8-30-2018

Enhancing Faculty Involvement in Program Review

G. Crawford
gcrawfor@uwo.ca

Abstract

This Organizational Improvement Plan provides a pathway to addressing the organizational problem of enhancing faculty involvement in program review, such that programs of instruction undergo a meaningful and rigorous review process that results in program improvement. This problem of practice is set in the context of a large, urban Ontario public college. The relevancy of this problem is born out of an increasing climate of accountability and the performative nature of the provincial quality assurance system's audit process. A contextual and historical analysis illustrates how adverse faculty-management relations and neoliberalism have affected faculty autonomy, leading to the marginalization of faculty in quality assurance processes. An organizational analysis reveals the incongruence between a growing audit culture, embedded in the formal organizational structure, and faculty culture, disallowing the meaningful participation of faculty in the determination of program quality. The proposed solution employs distributed leadership practice to engage faculty planning and design of program review in order to instill in this critical group more meaning and ownership of the process. Coupled with this is an authentic leadership approach that builds a trusting and collaborative relationship between faculty and management. Proposed theories for leading, monitoring, and communicating change are outlined.

Keywords: program review, postsecondary education, Ontario colleges, program quality, neoliberalism, accountability, program evaluation, quality assurance, audit culture

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge the faculty of the Doctor of Education program for their patience and support throughout this journey. Their recognition of the challenges of being a working professional while studying and attending to family commitments was extraordinarily helpful and established a relationship built on respect.

I would also like to acknowledge all the individuals at my workplace, including my manager and colleagues, for their constant encouragement and support. They showed great respect for my learning journey by stepping in and holding me up during challenging times.

Finally, without the infinite patience of my family, completing this program would not have been possible. I thank them for allowing so much time that they could have rightfully claimed as their own to be devoted to this endeavour. I hope to one day return the favour as they seek to achieve their own personal and professional goals.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Acronyms

CAATs	Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology
CAC	College Advisory Council
DAQ	Academic Quality Department
KPI(s)	Key Performance Indicator(s)
MAESD	Ministry of Advanced Education and Skills Development
OCQAS	Ontario College Quality Assurance Service
OIP	Organizational improvement plan
OPSEU	Ontario Public Service Employees Union
PCC	Program Coordinators Committee
PDSA	Plan, Do, Study, Act
PRC	Program Review Committee
PRIF	Program Review Innovation Fund
QA	Quality assurance
VPA	Vice President, Academic

Executive Summary

Today's postsecondary education system is becoming increasingly focused on accountability and quality assurance. Ontario's publically funded colleges must demonstrate the effective and efficient use of funds. The government mandates colleges to review their programs of study to ensure ongoing quality, currency, and relevancy. The movement toward accountability shows no signs of abating and provincial standards have become rigorous and prescriptive, shaping the program review process at Institution X. The key to effective program review is faculty who are meaningfully engaged in the process, yet few faculty complete the process with rigor and intent. This plan provides an analysis of the problem of how faculty involvement in the program review process, at a large, urban Ontario college, can be improved for greater impact on program quality.

This organizational improvement plan draws on existing research, theory and data to study, analyze, and solve the problem of practice. The study includes an analysis of the organizational and historical context to provide a deep understanding of the institution and the internal and external factors that shape its current state. This knowledge, in combination with distributed and authentic leadership theories, offer a vision for an ideal future state for Institution X in which program reviews are completed with rigorous attention to quality criteria based on both provincial standards and faculty input. The research draws attention to the fact that the infusion of neoliberal ideology into postsecondary education has impacted faculty perceptions of autonomy and professional identity. Moreover, there is a history of conflict between faculty and management, contributing to a culture of distrust. Using the lens of cultural organizational theory, a critical organizational analysis reveals the gaps between the existing state and the vision for change that sees faculty taking more ownership in the design and implementation of

the process, leading to meaningful participation and increased levels of motivation. Results of the analysis show that there is incongruence between several organizational components. In particular, the formal bureaucratic structure that has emerged in response to the accountability movement is incongruent with the persistent informal faculty culture.

The study finds the institution must change to maintain its reputation among students, government and the public. The program review process requires revision using an approach that includes the voice of faculty and constructs a meaning of quality that makes sense to both faculty and management. The recommended solution is twofold: a joint faculty-management planning committee which will develop a framework for program review that has meaning for faculty, and a fund for faculty-led innovation projects arising from program reviews.

This organizational improvement plan is based on secondary research. Therefore, the data used to inform the change plan does not include input directly from faculty or staff at Institution X specific to the problem of practice. However, this study is grounded in practice and contextual knowledge that, along with established theories and research on the problem, provide an evidence-based pathway to organizational improvement (Faculty of Education, Western University, 2017).

A change implementation plan is outlined that makes use of distributed and authentic leadership approaches as the basis for a solution and a framework for leading change. The intended result is the unification of faculty and management cultures, the co-creation of a new culture with new meanings around the concept of quality and leadership practice, enabling the institution to face the challenges of accountability in the postsecondary environment.

Chapter 1: Introduction and Problem

In postsecondary institutions, the cyclical review of programs is a vital quality assurance (QA) process that demonstrates accountability to students and the public, as well as maintaining competitiveness in the market. The government requires each college in Ontario to establish a review process that is held to provincial standards. Despite the importance of program review, many faculty members at Institution X are reluctant to engage in the review process. Without the meaningful involvement of this essential stakeholder group, program reviews cannot fulfil their purpose and objective. In this chapter, I provide a detailed description of this problem, beginning by examining the organizational context of Institution X and the political, economic, social, and cultural factors that have shaped the college over time. I explore the spirit of the institution as expressed though its mission, vision, aspirations, and leadership approaches. My own leadership approaches are also articulated. I then describe the gap between current program review practices at Institution X with the ideal state, framing the problem within a broader context and from different perspectives in order to arrive at a vision for organizational change.

Organizational Context

Organizational history. Institution X is one of the province's 24 publically funded Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology (CAATs) governed by the Ministry of Advanced Education and Skills Development (MAESD). The CAATs were created under the initiative of Ontario Education Minister William Davis, who in 1965 called for a new education system that would meet the social and economic demands of the day and of the future. They were meant to be an alternative to university, providing access to postsecondary education for all Ontarians, as well as a means to support the growth and expansion of the province's economy through the training of a highly skilled workforce (Davis, 1967). In keeping with Minister Davis' vision, the

college's program offerings responded to industry need. In its first year, Institution X launched a small number of programs designed around the service-based economy of the 1960s (Author, 2016) and now offers almost 200 career-oriented programs to over 20,000 full-time students.

Mission and vision. Aligning with its mandate to offer vocational learning, the mission of the college focuses on providing graduates with the skills needed for employment and providing employers with the human resources they require for economic success. (Institution X, n.d.-a). Institution X is also committed to social justice and promotes equity and inclusion as essential to the learning experience. As it did in the 1960s, the college primarily serves the underrepresented and marginalized groups in its local neighourhoods, holding true to the original access-oriented goal of the CAATs "to meet the relevant needs of all adults within a community" (Davis, 1967). While some other CAATs have sought to achieve more elite status, Institution X has built a culture on these grass roots beginnings and its expertise in serving non-traditional learners. Recognizing and embracing its diverse demographic, the college's vision is emancipatory, aspiring to contribute to a fair and just society, eliminate barriers, and promote diversity and inclusion (Insitution X, n.d.-b).

Political, economic, social, and cultural contexts. Since their inception, the CAATs have been linked to the economic life of the province (Dennison, 1995). However, in subsequent decades, the emergence of neoliberalism as the preferred political economic ideology (Basu, 2004) enhanced the role colleges played in the pursuit of economic goals. In an effort to increase efficiency and accountability, an audit-like rationality focused on value for money spread from the private to the public sector in most member countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, where market mechanisms have been introduced to higher education (Shore & Wright, 2000). In the late 1970s and early 1980s, pressure was put on the

education sector to prepare students for the knowledge economy, therefore enabling Ontario to compete in the global market (Sattler, 2012). In 2002, government released the Ontario Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology Act which positioned the CAATs as operating within a free market system (Arvast, 2006). The Act formally transferred neoliberal economic theory, previously reserved for private corporations, to public sector education, making students consumers and education a commodity. It is not surprising, then, that one of Institution X's strategic directions is to be the college of choice by providing high quality, economy-driven, and industry-responsive education (Institution X, n.d.-a).

Increased accountability figures prominently in neoliberal theories with a focus on measurable outputs, which in turn necessitates compliance and monitoring (Olssen & Peters, 2005). Economic deficits beginning in the late 1970s resulted in fiscal restraint in the public sector and the provinical government, having direct control over the funding and support of college programs, began to demand increased productivity (Dennison, 1995). The CAATs were put in the position of having to demonstrate their contribution to the good of society in order to earn public confidence and justify continued support. Today, terms such as "effectiveness," "efficiency," "excellence," and "quality" have become common language in the education sector. As such, Institution X's articulated values include continuous improvement and accountability to students, the community, and the public for the quality of the education it provides and its use of resources. This is reiterated in the college's academic and strategic plans, which commit to using rigorous program review processes and developing a culture of academic quality.

Despite being rooted in this neoliberal context, the college places strategic focus on contributing to the community as well as industry. Recognizing the crucial need for global citizenship, especially given the globalized and internationalized social context, Institution X

straddles the line between a critical approach and its neoliberal reality. By promoting equity and inclusion as keys to strengthening social as well as economic development, and as necessary for career success in a global economy (Institution X, n.d.-a), the college marries the two seemingly opposing ideologies.

Organizational structure. In 2015, Institution X employed over 400 full-time and over 1000 part-time faculty (OPSEU [Local Chapter], 2016) who teach within Academic Schools, discipline-based units within the college's Academic division. Schools are led by Deans and are further subdivided into departments headed by Chairs who manage the faculty directly. Historically, the college's structure could be described as a professional bureaucracy (Mintzberg, 1979) with many professionals (faculty) making up the operating core. While there has been conflict between faculty and management since the late 1970s and early 1980s with respect to faculty participation in college decision-making (Skolnik, 1988), faculty at Institution X were still considered experts in curriculum and in determining its quality. However, the rise of accountability and increasingly prescriptive Ministry requirements led Institution X to create, in the late 2000s, a department specifically dedicated to developing QA processes, such as program review, and for ensuring compliance with provincial standards. This has resulted in the emergence of a machine bureaucracy (Mintzberg, 1979). Influence has shifted to senior leaders (the strategic apex) and middle line managers who make and enforce decisions that impact teacher practice, accompanied by a growing techno-structure in the relatively new academic quality department (DAQ) (see Figure 1).

While faculty members were seconded to support the operations of DAQ, there was no faculty consultation in the development of QA processes. Focus was placed on honing the

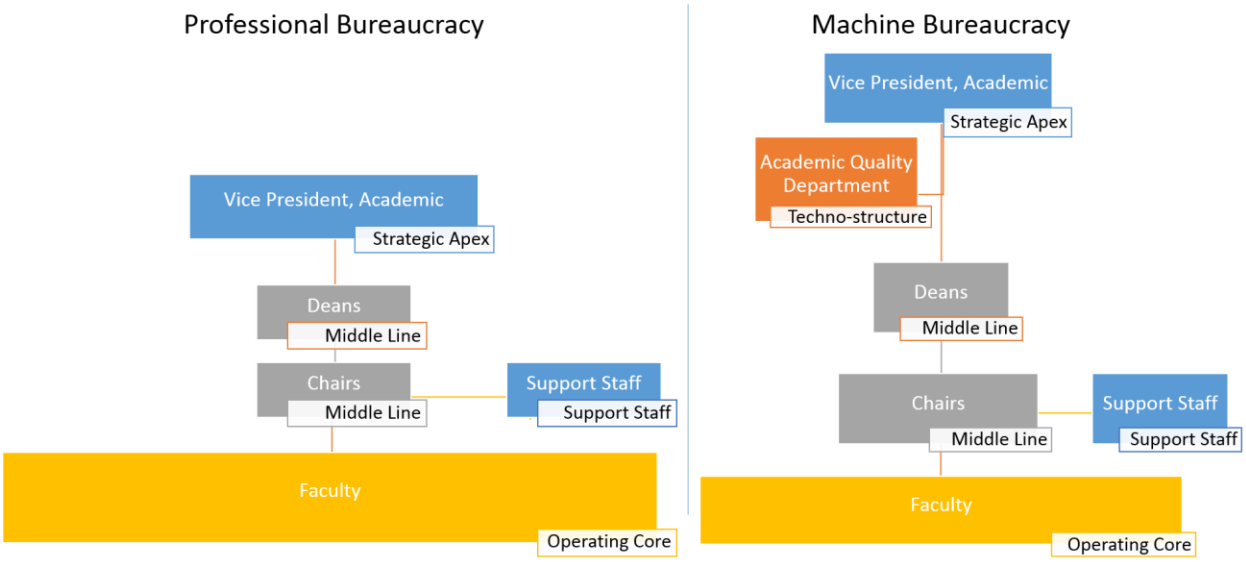

Figure 1. Simplified organizational charts comparing past and present structural configurations at Institution X. Adapting Mintzberg's (1979) model to show the relative size and influence of functional groupings, dipicted are the professional bureaucracy that existed prior to the prominance of accountability and the machine bureaucracy that has been established since. Adapted from Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice, and Leadership, 5th. Ed. (pp. 75-79), by L. G. Bolman and T. E. Deal, 2013, San Francisco: Josey-Bass. Copyright 2013 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

knowledge of the departmental staff with respect to the new outcomes-based approach to quality emerging out of the 2002 Act. Outcomes-based curriculum, an approach grounded in neoliberalism and the needs of industry, was foreign to faculty (Arvast, 2006) and these new curriculum experts would educate the professoriate.

Organizational leadership approaches. Despite attempts to position DAQ staff as partners with faculty in QA processes, a top-down leadership approach has emerged. To date, leaders have approved processes generally in absence of faculty input, and characteristic of a directive leadership style (Northouse, 2016), management instructs faculty on tasks, expectations, procedures and timelines. This hierarchical leadership approach may be a legacy of the mode of management that was imposed on the CAATs during their formation; despite the idealized and progressive values that underpinned this new education system, government made no real opportunities for faculty to participate meaningfully in academic policymaking (Skolnik,

1988). This omission would later prove to adversely impact the relationship between management and faculty both collectively at the provincial level and at the institutional level. During the 2017 collective bargaining process between faculty, represented by the Ontario Public Sector Employees Union (OPSEU), and college management, faculty involvement in decision-making was the highest ranked demand during the negotiations (MacKay, 2017). In the ensuing faculty strike, faculty autonomy factored prominently among the reasons for the inability to reach mutual resolution, leading to faculty being legislated back to work.

In contrast, the President motivates the college community using a transformational leadership style. A firm believer in access and equity, she is a strong role model for the college's values. Exuding charisma or idealized influence (Bass, 1990), her presidential communications clearly articulate deeply held morals and the ideological goals of the college in a way that makes people want to follow. Known for delivering moving speeches, the President has powerful influence on the emotion and spirit of the institution. In a recent employee engagement survey, 60% of participants reported the President inspires them. This use of inspirational motivation, a factor of transformational leadership (Bass, 1990), encourages employees to take part in the vision of the college with the belief that it is attainable.

At the same time, the human resources department actively promotes employee engagement. While there is no agreed-upon definition of employee engagement (Welbourne & Schlachter, 2014), Institution X subscribes to the definition articulated by the consulting firm McLean & Company (2011): "Employee engagement is the degree to which an employee is emotionally connected and committed to their organization and their role, exerting discretionary effort for the betterment of the organization" (p. 6). Although more empirical research is required to validate the relationship of leadership frameworks to engagement (Carasco-Saul, Kim, & Kim,

2015), several researchers have found a positive association between transformational leadership and engagement (Popli & Rizvi, 2016). Leaders are encouraged to develop leadership strategies focused on engagement drivers, which include empowerment, development, rewards and recognition, relationships, and culture (McLean & Company, 2011). Transformational leaders are well suited for this task, as they set out to empower followers, use individualized consideration to build relationships and enable self-actualization, reward others for their accomplishments while fostering intrinsic motivation, and are social architects of the organization's culture. Aligning with the definition of employee engagement used here, transformational leadership is a process that is concerned with emotions and values, satisfying followers' needs and moving them to accomplish more than what is expected of them by transcending their own interests and identities for those of the organization (Northouse, 2016).

Yet, it remains to be seen if transformational leadership will be fully taken up by college leaders or if it will positively impact the challenged relationship between management and faculty. The collective agreement between OPSEU and the colleges puts faculty and management in a transactional and contingent relationship based on advancing their own interests, beliefs, and values. Decades of disputes at the provincial level and grievances at the institutional level have bred a culture of distrust between both parties. Conflicts have mostly focused on workload, dating back to the cost-cutting measures of the early 1980s (Skolnik, 1988), and have persisted due to continued reductions in government funding. However, other related issues have figured in the strained labour relations, including most recently, professional autonomy (MacKay, 2017), a prominent and deeply held value of faculty culture.

Approaching the issue of professional autonomy, the former Vice President, Academic (VPA) recognized the devolvement of academic leadership to faculty as a necessary strategy to

ensure quality within a demanding and complex environment and declared the adoption of a "horizontal leadership" approach prior to her departure. She mandated the enhancement of the program review process in light of increasing competition for a shrinking target market (domestic enrolment) with the view of faculty playing a heightened role in the leadership of academic quality. The current VPA likewise promotes the involvement of faculty in leadership and takes a transformative and collaborative approach with the view to building individual capacity through relationship-building and mutual understanding.

Leadership Position Statement

Distributed leadership. Similar to a horizontal leadership approach, one of my leadership beliefs is that everyone has the ability and the responsibility to lead regardless of formal position. I approach every interaction with employees with the assumption they are intelligent and capable of leading. I trust that people are able to apply critical thinking and creativity to tasks and therefore exercise a delegating approach (Northouse, 2016) that lessens my involvement in the planning and control of details. Rather, I believe employees should be empowered to find solutions collaboratively without constant management direction. Following McGregor's (2006) Theory Y assumptions, I believe reward is intrinsically born out of autonomy and empowerment and am less inclined to rely on the contingent rewards of transactional leadership. Recognizing that "varieties of expertise are distributed across the many, not the few" (Bennett, Wise, Woods, & Harvey, 2003), I believe that successful leaders follow the experience and expertise of their team members, relying on their counsel, ideas, and contributions as part of what Gronn (2000) calls conjoint activity. These beliefs and assumptions are consistent with a distributed leadership approach where leadership "is dispersed or shared around, so that there are a number of sources of influence, initiative-taking and forward thinking" (Gronn, 2010, p. 417).

Leading authentically. How change is led is as important as what will change. Integrity, defined as honesty, trustworthiness, responsibility, and dependability (Northouse, 2016), is one of my core values. It is important that I lead with integrity by upholding the truth and making decisions without compromising my values. I need to stay true to myself to be an effective leader. Seeing integrity as "consistency of words and actions" (Palanski & Yammarino, 2009, p. 406), I believe leaders should follow through on what they say. Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, and Peterson (2008) call this self-regulatory process *internalized moral perspective* and identify it as one of the core components of authentic leadership. It is important for me to be seen as credible and have the trust and respect of others, especially in Institution X's context of distrust, where faculty claim management pays lip service to participative leadership practices.

Authenticity is key in creating relationships. My workplace relationships are built on *relational transparency*, another authentic leadership component identified by Walumbwa et al. (2008). I am open and honest in my interactions with others and make my motives transparent. Faculty must be able see that there are no hidden objectives in this organizational change and that my actions are not intended to simply secure buy-in but to meet the needs of all stakeholders. I intend to lead change by openly communicating and sharing information in order to instill trust between faculty and management.

Quality is also of great importance to me. I expect work to be well thought out with attention to detail and I model this behaviour for my staff. I am methodical and meticulous in my approach, exploring several options before selecting the best one. This high regard for quality and a dominantly liberal ideology positions me well to take on the organizational and social responsibility of ensuring the quality of public education. Yet I value the opportunity to critically debate the true purpose of education within the current neoliberal context, and to consider those

whose voices are heard and those whose are not. By leading authentically, I hope to exercise *balanced processing* (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008) by objectively and diligently considering diverse opinions, especially those of faculty who are essential to achieving organizational improvement and providing quality education.

Alavi and Gill (2017) have noted that transparency and authentic leadership can encourage trust in leadership through times of uncertainty, and reduce cynicism toward change. While a distributed leadership approach will influence the vision of a future state for Institution X, I intend to apply authentic leadership to inspire and guide all stakeholders toward positive change for the college.

Leadership Problem of Practice

Publically-funded colleges in Ontario face a growing focus on accountability enacted by government through policy directives. According to MAESD binding policy directive (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, 2009), colleges are to establish mechanisms for the review of their programs to ensure ongoing quality, relevancy, and currency. While previously the domain of faculty, determination of program quality in accordance with externally developed standards has become the purview of college administrators. However, implementation of the program review process designed by leadership at Institution X, a large, urban college in Ontario, relies on the faculty who often resist this process both overtly and covertly. Program review reports are often left outstanding or are not conducted with rigor or meaningful intent. Staff in DAQ continually review the process and provide supports and guidance to program review teams, but reports continue to be completed late, not at all, or with poor quality. Yet the robustness and rigor of the program review process are essential to meeting provincial audit standards. The problem of practice that will be addressed is, how can faculty involvement in the

program review process, at a publically funded Ontario college, be improved for greater impact on program quality?

Consistent with practices at other Ontario colleges (Program Review Working Group for the Heads of Quality Management, 2016), Institution X has a standard process for comprehensive, cyclical program review every five years. The manager overseeing the review process reports the following statistics: Each year less than 20% of program review reports are completed within the established time frame, 90% require reworking with the guidance of DAQ staff, and 50% are in need of major amendments (Manager of DAQ, personal communication).

This lack of rigor compromises the college in several ways. Foremost, the college is at risk of being non-compliant with provincial standards. The Ontario College Quality Assurance Service (OCQAS), the quality assurance body for the CAATs, conducts an institutional level, cyclical audit "that involves the review of each college's program quality assurance processes" (Ontario College Quality Assurance Service, n.d.). Incomplete and poor quality review reports will likely result in an unfavourable audit outcome. Poor audit findings may prompt the attention of MAESD, the consequences of which are not explicit but concerning. The position of OCQAS is that the audit exists for the purpose of continuous improvement alone; however, college administration is wary of potentially hidden objectives such as the audit forming the basis for funding decisions and the enforcement of corrective actions.

A poor audit result could also impact the college's public reputation, potentially affecting enrolment. Audit results are publically reported, possibly factoring into the decision-making of college applicants. The rise of the neoliberal concept of accountability has created a desire to ensure institutions efficiently and effectively use public funds, leading to high quality, industry relevant programs. Students, as consumers of education, demand value for money, expecting to

secure employment upon graduation. The need for new workplace skills and knowledge resulting from technological changes in all areas of the economy is expected to increase (Conference Board of Canada, 2013). A college seen to be unconcerned with quality education or with remaining relevant to employment market demands will fail to meet social, industry, and government expectations. Therefore, Institution X must continuously ensure its programs are current in order to remain viable.

A desired organizational state is one in which program reviews are completed according to established procedure and with rigorous attention to quality criteria that meet provincial standards while engaging faculty. Robust program review reports are needed to demonstrate accountability to government and ultimately affect program quality. To achieve this, faculty conducting program reviews must be motivated and find meaning in the process. The future state would balance the perspectives and needs of faculty with those of audit-minded management, bringing the two groups together under a common purpose and shared values.

Framing the Problem of Practice

Historical overview. Program review as an academic managerial process has developed in tandem with the emergence of accountability in higher education. From the late 1960s and through to the 1980s, quality in Ontario higher education was primarily defined by the institutions, who developed their own QA processes (Clark, Moran, Skolnik, & Trick, 2009). However, scarcity of resources and financial strains within the public sector led to new managerial approaches to planning and effectiveness. Government and society increasingly demanded that educational institutions justify continued fiscal support by reporting on their achievement of goals (Dennison, 1995b). In the 1990s, the Ministry of Education began to intervene in the determination of quality (Chan, 2014; Colleges Ontario, 2015). There is

evidence that Institution X was sporadically conducting program reviews at this time; however, there was no centralized process. By 2003, the requirement for CAATs to establish a program review process had become a binding policy directive (Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, 2009) but how quality, relevancy, and currency were to be measured was left at each colleges' discretion.

By 2004, the college's small teaching and learning centre began supporting faculty conducting program reviews; however, there was no prescribed concept of "quality," or how to analyze a program's performance, leading to variation in approaches. Administrators found that reports were based on anecdotal evidence, faculty opinion, and the selective use of data. In 2005, OCQAS created quality standards for use in the first provincial audit. Towards the end of the decade, the college's new academic quality department (DAQ) developed a robust process requiring evidence that mapped to these standards, and forced the comprehensive use of data. The result was a goal-based model that assesses "the degree of congruence between objectives and performance" (Conrad & Wilson, 1985, p. 37). Unexpectedly, faculty protested the enhanced process and made regular complaints to the union (OPSEU [Local Chapter] President, personal communication, 2017). This aligns with the paradox Welsh and Metcalf (2003) discovered in the US—that "as colleges and universities attempt to respond to the demand for increased accountability… [faculty] support for them seems to be tenuous and shallow" (p. 34).

Perspectives on the problem. Emil and Cress (2014) note that "relatively little is known about the factors that inhibit and facilitate faculty engagement in programme *(sic)* and curricular assessment" (p. 534). However, an analysis of the broad contextual forces shaping program review practices affords the articulation of various perspectives on the problem.

***Structural frame*.** In 2012, Institution X conducted a survey and focus group with faculty program review leads to determine how the process could be improved (Institution X, 2012). Eighty-five percent of participants cited lack of time as the largest barrier to completing the review. This is a common theme across the CAATs (Program Review Working Group for the Heads of Quality Management, 2016) as well as among postsecondary institutions within the United States (Bresciani, 2006). Participants also discussed being solely responsible for conducting the review with little support from peers. Both of these factors reveal structural deficits with respect to allocation of resources and division of labour that may be rectified by additional allocated time and an enhanced support structure. Yet, despite the allocation of more time and a significant increase in support provided by DAQ in recent years, review completion rates have declined and quality of the reports do not match administration's expectations.

Human resource theory. Following McGregor's (2006) Theory X assumptions, College leadership often casts reluctant or resistant faculty as recalcitrant or lazy. The faculty union challenges this, stating that faculty are experiencing job dissatisfaction, anxiety, depression, and stress at a higher rate than ever due to an audit culture that deprofessionalizes their work (Author, 2015). Neoliberalism has been associated with the management-dictated specification of job performance and the redesign of "traditional conceptions of… rights and powers over work" (Olssen & Peters, 2005, p. 325).

Faculty figure prominently in the literature on successful program reviews (Barak, 1982; Cranton & Legge, 1978), including being responsible for planning the process. Yet, as Dugan (2004) notes, many institutions have adopted administratively driven approaches to QA in response to external pressures, "resulting in processes that do little to engage faculty as partners in continuous improvement" (p. 236). At Institution X the program review process has been

developed in absence of faculty input and faculty complain that they are left out of decisions made following reviews. The union has noted faculty's objection to the loss of professional academic control, claiming that crucial decisions are being made that undermine the integrity of education and deny the expert role of faculty (OPSEU [Local Chapter], 2015). Empowerment of faculty has been limited to orienting them to the program review process, however, "information is not sufficient to fully engage employees" (Bolman & Deal, 2013, p. 148). Instead, providing opportunity for autonomy and decision-making is more likely to meet employee needs for esteem and self-actualization (Maslow, 1987), leading to enhanced participation.

Mets (1995a) notes that a common complaint about program review is lack of return or reward for time and energy devoted to the process. Not knowing what administrative decisions have been made as an outcome of program review is a frustration among faculty (Mets, 1995a). Faculty members at Institution X complain that their recommendations for program improvement are not taken seriously, that is, reports "sit on a shelf." Human resource theory tells us that rewarding employees leads to job satisfaction (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Tangible benefits such as increased resources (additional faculty, support staff, operating budget, space) may supplement intrinsic rewards gained through increased autonomy and alignment of values, enhancing engagement in the program review process.

Conflict theory. From a critical perspective, organizational behaviours are influenced by the general conflict between labour and management (Levin, 1995). In the case of the CAATs, the longstanding, adversarial relationship between faculty and the administration has affected institutional life. Skolnik (1988) sees this as "the greatest barrier to the academic development and functioning of Ontario's…Colleges" (p. 83). Historically, these groups have struggled over power and decision-making due to the fact that the bicameral governance structure established in

universities was never formally practiced in Ontario colleges (Owen, 1995). Further, with the advent of neoliberalism, the hierarchical structure taking hold in many institutions trickled down to QA processes. Faculty in Ontario typically have little opportunity for input into the design or purpose of QA processes, or the criteria that are used (Skolnik, 2010). Studies (Anderson, 2006; Harley, 2002; Hoecht, 2006; Morley, 2003) reveal that many faculty in other jurisdictions also have negative perceptions of QA processes. Common themes include "feelings of marginalisation *(sic)* and powerlessness; that the processes were intended to serve managerial ends rather than to improve quality; and that some interests were being favoured over others" (Skolnik, 2010, p. 14). Faculty facing neoliberal notions of QA perceive that the "academic lifeworld, traditionally shaped by peer processes, academic freedom and the pursuit of knowledge, has been colonised *(sic)* by a (new) public sector managerialism" (Hoecht, 2006, p. 542). The faculty union executive have bemoaned this transformation, stating higher education, "once a highly creative and relational vocation, has now become dominated by excessive regulation, standardization, and managerial control" (Author, 2015, p. 2). Therefore, faculty resistance to program review may be a form of resistance to management domination.

Organizational culture. Davis (1967) envisioned the CAATs as providing access to students "at all socio-economic levels, of all kinds of interests and aptitudes, and at all stages of educational achievement" (p. 8). As such, the colleges were founded upon ideals of democratization of opportunity and access (Levin & Dennison, 1989). Among faculty, these values superseded the economic mandate of the CAATs. Institution X's faculty culture was built on teachers who developed expertise in serving non-traditional learners and adapting to the diverse needs of the community, supported by the college's emancipatory vision and ideology.

The values of faculty are squarely focused on students, teaching, and the expert role of faculty in that process.

However, scholars (Eliott, 2015; Niesche & Gowlett, 2015; Olssen & Peters, 2005) link the emergence of neoliberalism to the detriment to what faculty believe to be the central purpose of education. In an audit culture, program reviews that focus on compliance "often lead to a checklist mentality, rather [than] a deeply held valuing of the process and its potential to drive meaningful change" (Hernon & Dugan, as cited in Galipeau 2016, p. 18). Faculty see managerial and audit-like processes, such as program review, as distractions from teaching and the demands of the classroom. These artifacts do not carry meaning for faculty and in fact symbolize the devaluing and questioning of faculty expertise. Emil and Cress (2014) found if faculty did not personally believe in the value of program review they were less likely to put effort into the process. This speaks to the need for shared values that will motivate faculty engagement in program review (Emil & Cress, 2014).

Writer's perspective. I serve as the director of Institution X's academic quality department, which is charged with facilitating the program review process and ensuring provincial standards are met. The considerable responsibility attached to this role makes me vested in finding a viable plan for improving quality of the college's program reviews. As an authentic leader, I will attempt to be self-aware of this bias as I lead the change process. My commitment to finding a solution that meets institutional needs is compounded by my core values of integrity and quality. However, these same values make me equally vested in the needs of faculty as important stakeholders in the review process and in the institution.

I apply an interpretivist approach to scholarship, believing that understanding of an organization is gained from employees' experiences. As a constructivist, I believe "individuals

seek understanding of the world in which they live and work…[and] develop meaning of their experiences" (Cresswell, 2013, p. 8). My approach to organizational change will involve attending to how faculty in particular construct their professional identities and find meaning and purpose through their interactions with management, artifacts of work, and structures, using distributed leadership to engage them in the co-creation of a definition of quality and a new culture.

The limitation of an interpretivist approach is that it is not emancipatory in nature (Hartley, 2010) and therefore does not address dominant ideologies that may be causing faculty dissonance with program reviews. In addition, the distributed leadership approach I intend to employ may only create a *sense* of ownership and autonomy, rather than true ownership. There is a risk that distributed leadership can be normative, formulating a subtle approach to making top-down processes more palatable (Hartley, 2010). However, turning my gaze to the critical lens enables me to critique the status quo and raise consciousness about dominant ideologies that underlie the structures in which faculty and management interact and therefore the values and meanings attached to these interactions. By doing this I span the interpretivist and critical boundaries and instead of proposing solutions that are simply strategies to achieve compliance and meet organizational goals, can work toward meaningful and sustainable change.

Guiding Questions Emerging from the Problem of Practice

The obvious question emerging from the problem of practice is what do faculty perceive are the barriers to participation in program review? In her study of the good practices of higher education institutions in the United States, Bresciani (2006) notes that experiencing resistance and barriers to program review is normal. She places barriers in two categories: a) resources (time and support) to engage in meaningful and manageable assessment, and b) understanding of

assessment with respect to its value and importance (reward and inclusion). Elements of these categories are considered when identifying a solution to address the problem of practice.

The lack of meaningful faculty involvement begs the question, what motivates engagement and participation? The prevalent perception of faculty who fail to complete a review, or express their frustrations with the process, is that they are difficult and resistant to additional workload and effort. Blackmore (2013) troubles this notion, stating that teacher "anger and despair are not merely about stress arising from work intensification but also arise from feelings of powerlessness" (p. 147). The faculty union also challenges this, claiming high levels of anxiety and stress attributed to the audit-like managerial approaches that have diminished their ability to work as autonomous professionals (Author, 2015). The reference here is to the relatively recent development of management-dictated QA processes, such as program review. It was not until 2005 that the college initiated a standardized program review process. Until then, faculty enjoyed a certain amount of autonomy in determining quality and needed improvements to curriculum and delivery. Following this, a line of inquiry taken here is what role would collaboration and a sense of process ownership play in fostering faculty engagement?

Clearly, faculty and management have varying conceptions of QA, leading to the question of how does one define quality? "Diversity in views about quality is not surprising because ideas of quality are both personal and social constructions that vary from stakeholder to stakeholder" (Skolnik, 2010, pp. 11-12) and culture to culture. At Institution X, management's concept of quality has been shaped by the OCQAS quality audit. In the quality audit approach, the external body evaluates the mechanisms the college uses to assure quality, rather than directly judging the quality of the institution itself (Skolnik, 2010). While the intention is to give colleges autonomy in determining quality, the result has been performative whereby the

standards specified by OCQAS have considerably influenced the program review process. In this way, audits "do as much to construct definitions of quality and performance as to monitor them" (Power, 1996, p. 25). Conversely, faculty, who are largely unaware of the audit standards and criteria, have a view of quality that is focused on the student experience and engagement in educational processes that enhance teaching and learning (Skolnik, 2010). Skolnik (2010) asks, "How is this diversity of views as to what constitutes quality to be handled in a QA process?" (p. 12), summarizing the challenge inherent in developing a vision for change that addresses the problem of practice.

Leadership Focused Vision for Change

Desired state. The desired future state is one in which program reviews are completed according to established procedure and with rigorous attention to quality criteria based on both OCQAS standards and faculty input. Faculty will take more ownership in the design and implementation of the process, leading to meaningful participation and increased levels of motivation. They will work collaboratively with management to create a collegial team responsible for driving the process. Shared accountability will make the review a mechanism of collaboration as well as quality assessment. Structurally, faculty will take part in making decisions evolving from program review recommendations, creating a more inclusive process that takes into account many perspectives. Accountability to government will also be transparent through high quality reports. Ultimately, the process, operating under the shared value of student success, will lead to the improvement of programs.

Achieving these outcomes requires a divergence from the current hierarchical leadership approach that has emerged in the wake of accountability. It is necessary to address the underlying issues of distrust between faculty and management, and the resultant feeling of

marginalization experienced by faculty. Bolden, Petrov and Gosling (2009) note that the nature of higher education institutions is not well suited to managerial or top-down leadership, as there "remains a deep-seated desire for collegiality, consultation and academic freedom" (p. 257). Yet, in the event of failure, it is management that is accountable, making the full devolution of leadership to faculty an impossibility. Avoiding the reality of the broader educational context of accountability and the demands placed on institutions is an untenable solution.

Gronn (2000) points out that this bifurcation of leadership as either resting in the autonomy of individuals or in a managerial structure is a false one. He states that "neither constitutive element of social reality, agency nor structure, reduces to the other; rather, the relationship between the two is always one of interplay through time: each element is analytically distinct from, but is ontologically intertwined with, the other" (p. 318). The vision for change, therefore, is based on a distributed approach where leadership is "*stretched over* the social and situational contexts of the school" (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004, p. 5) in a way that does not deny the role of formal leadership but opens an autonomous space for faculty. Distributed leadership strategies such as self-managed teams, joint planning committees or a faculty-designed model (Bresciani 2006), would empower faculty and enhance participation. Seen as a means of furthering democracy (Mayrowetz, 2008), distributed leadership relates directly to faculty culture that calls for democratic leadership solutions which offer them an increased sense of autonomy and ownership. Likewise, more equality between faculty and management aligns with the conflict theory perspective, mitigating unbalanced power relations between groups and disturbing the hierarchical structure. From this perspective, distributed leadership has the potential for uniting the concepts of collegiality and managerialism, and

providing a framework for the integration of top-down and bottom-up decision-making processes (Bolden, Petrov, & Gosling, 2009).

Change drivers. The requirements for the primary change leader and initiator outlined by Cawsey, Deszca, and Ingols (2016) position me to take on these roles. As director of DAQ and primary liaison between the College, MAESD, and OCQAS with respect to QA processes, I have insight into the external environment. Formal authority permits me to initiate change and access formal structures and systems when approvals or resources are required. In addition, years of service and experience in several progressive positions at Institution X afford me with an understanding of the organizational culture. Knowing the stakeholder networks and patterns of organizational life means I can reach members at all levels of the institution through informal structures. I have earned the trust and respect of colleagues at all levels of the institution.

Another driver of change is the VPA who has mandated the revision of the program review process to encourage a higher completion rate and level of quality in light of increasing demand for accountability and the high stakes nature of the OCQAS audit process. Taking a transformative leadership approach, she recognizes the importance of building relationships with faculty and acknowledging their need for self-actualization. Without the support of the VPA for a distributed leadership approach, senior leaders, such as deans and directors, will likely find it difficult to let go of responsibility and control due to concerns around trust and accountability (Bolden et al., 2009). Senior leaders must be champions of the change, or distributed leadership remains a rhetorical concept. Communications and strategies with this group must "acknowledge the need for accountability while being critical of the kind of social processes it often seems to put in train" (Strathern, 2000, p. 14).

As change facilitator, the manager overseeing program review within DAQ will assist in driving the change management process and help to resolve issues of content and process while middle managers (departmental Chairs) will act as change implementers.

Faculty themselves will also be drivers of change. The vision for change entails collegial creation and oversight of the program review process. Characteristic of distributed leadership, collaboration with faculty will maximize sources of information, data and judgement, and the pooling of expertise and perspectives (Gronn, 2000). Yet the extent to which faculty will support change toward strengthening program review will depend on their perceptions of the true intent and goals of the administration. The perceptions that change toward distributed leadership is genuine, rather than an illusion meant to obscure management control, will enhance faculty participation in QA processes (Bolden et al., 2009; Galipeau, 2016). Therefore, the construction of the future state in collaboration with this group must rely on an authentic leadership approach.

Organizational Change Readiness

Assessing change readiness. The process of realizing a change vision depends on how ready Institution X and its members are for change. Cawsey et al. (2016) present a questionnaire that identifies six dimensions used to assess an organization's readiness for change. Scoring 16.5 out of a possible 35, the survey results (see Appendix A) suggest Institution X is minimally ready for change. Assessing the organization through the survey's six readiness dimensions helps to identify factors that promote and inhibit organizational readiness for change, as well as strategies to overcome resistance (Cawsey et al., 2016).

Low scores in the dimensions of *openness to change* and *previous experiences* indicate potential for "turf protection", lack of transparent information, and the suppressing of conflict and perspectives (Cawsey et al., 2016). In an environment where union grievances are frequent,

management is wary of openly dealing with conflict. As a result, faculty claim that management pays lip service to inclusive decision-making. When referring to past change experiences, faculty often express lack of consultation, and proper communication, as well as disregard for faculty expertise on the part of management. These negative experiences can make faculty cynical about anything new. To ready the organization for change, authentic leadership can encourage new trust in management in times of uncertainty, and "reduce cynicism toward change that may result from miscommunication of the outcomes of previous change" (Alavi & Gill, 2017, p. 163).

The college's strongest readiness indicators fall in the dimensions of *executive support* and *credible leadership and change champions* (Cawsey et al., 2016). For the college to be ready for change, key individuals that organizational members look to must support the change (Armenakis, Harris, & Field, 1999). The VPA has directed the enhancement of QA processes, meaning senior management will be directly involved in sponsoring the change. With respect to *measures for change and accountability*, senior managers are accustomed to monitoring and reporting processes, making them supportive of a stronger review process. However, there is risk involved with devolving responsibility and accountability to faculty, therefore, the confidence of senior management in the benefits and outcomes of a distributed leadership approach must be bolstered so that so that they believe the change is attainable (Armenakis et al., 1999) and will not fail.

Cawsey et al. (2016) remind us of the pitfalls of assuming leadership support is all that is required for change to be taken up: "The point of view of the person championing the need for change will likely differ from the perspectives of other stakeholders" (p. 101). Faculty and middle managers "may not be prepared to recognize that need or believe it is strong enough to warrant action" (Cawsey et al., 2016, p. 106). The lack of trust in leadership due to the historical

struggle for power and competing values between faculty and administration adversely impact the credibility of senior management. Chairs, faced with practical operational issues, are unsure of the need to put effort and resources toward QA. Dealing directly with faculty, Chairs may be sympathetic with their employees while also attempting to carry out the directives of senior management, leading to limited buy-in. Identifying a compelling future state that demonstrates the need for the change is essential to ready faculty and Chairs for change (Cawsey et al., 2016).

Institution X scored lowest in the *rewards for change* dimension of change readiness. There is no structural reward system in place for faculty due to the collective agreement between faculty and management. The agreement dictates that innovation and change cannot be tied to performance assessment or pay, and managers struggle to find satisfactory ways to recognize employees according to a recent employee engagement survey. Currently, faculty see the costs of enhanced QA processes as more workload, loss of autonomy and an alteration of their role and purpose in education. To be ready for change, faculty will need to see the change as being genuinely beneficial to their work (Drew, 2010) and meeting their need to identify as professionals who are partners in decision-making processes. Therefore, in absence of a reward system, the perceived value of the change must be clearly identified, addressing the "what's in it for me/us?" question (Armenakis et al., 1999).

Forces shaping change. The most powerful forces of change are external. The Ontario government's growing focus on accountability and an increasing audit culture as seen in the audit activities of OCQAS present the immediate driving forces. The prospect of an unfavourable audit presents college leadership with fear concerning the negative repercussions on the college's reputation. Following this potential outcome, the longer-term forces are the threats of reduced funding, enrolment, and revenue.

An additional external force is the free market. Operating under a neoliberal paradigm, it is essential for colleges to stay competitive by responding to the needs of industry and meeting the demands of employers and students. Choice in education, combined with reductions in government funding at the system level, dictate that the college must continually improve its programs to ensure competitiveness. Provincial benchmark data, the Key Performance Indicators (KPIs), are collected for each college on a yearly basis and used to calculate a portion of Ministry funding. Sound program review processes are meant to improve KPI scores, standing as a sign of quality in the eyes of the government and the public.

These external forces are in opposition to the divergent ideologies of faculty around the purpose of education. Faculty disregard for the distractions of the neoliberal drive for effectiveness and efficiency pose an internal restraining force for change. As one of Drew's (2010) research participants stated, "Responding to those [efficiency] changes whilst protecting the academic environment within is the challenge" (p. 67). A major struggle identified by faculty is finding balance between their teaching practice and audit-like, managerial activities within "a more regulated environment with increased administrative demands" (Drew, 2010, p. 67). This is impacted by the faculty perception that they have not been allocated enough time to conduct program review while attending to their regular teaching duties, a perceived symbol of the devaluing of their work, and their values.

The belief in autonomy and an ingrained defensive response to management intervention in professional practice form both restraining and driving internal forces. On the one hand, the higher education tradition of dual authority that persists within faculty culture resists the forces of the accountability movement, which has typically resulted in a top-down, hierarchical management style. However, this same desire for autonomy is a driving force for change in

leadership approach and a program review process that would motivate the involvement of faculty through participative decision-making and higher levels of ownership. Adding to this is the support at the executive level for horizontal leadership with respect to program quality and employee engagement, creating a strong internally driven force for change.

Chapter 1 Conclusion

Like other colleges in the Ontario system, Institution X has taken measures to ensure alignment with the accountability movement that has swept the postsecondary education environment. However, the program review process, constructed explicitly to meet external standards, has not been enacted with the level of quality required to result in program improvement. A vision for change that sees the meaningful involvement of faculty will require a solution based on distributed leadership practice and an authentic approach that will establish the trust between faculty and management needed to enact organizational change. The next chapter describes a leadership framework used to conduct an organizational analysis to better understand the gaps between the current state and the vision for change, and proposes a solution that will lead Institution X to its ideal state.

Chapter 2: Planning and Development

In the previous chapter, I described the problem of practice that Institution X is experiencing, that is, the lack of meaningful faculty involvement in program review. I also outlined a vision for organizational change that will ensure the effectiveness of the college in response to the current context of accountability in the education sector. In this chapter, I engage in the planning and development of an organizational change process. I begin by presenting a leadership framework that connects organizational theory and a model for change with my approach to this inquiry and leadership style described in Chapter 1. I share an understanding of the institution and the problem of practice from a cultural perspective and then explain a change model that is appropriate for addressing organizational culture. A critical organizational analysis is conducted to identify the best solution for Institution X. I then explain the leadership approaches required both as part of the desired state, and to implement the change process. Finally, a plan for communicating the need for change is outlined.

Framework for Leading the Change Process

The framework for leading the change process stems from an interpretivist perspective that holds that individuals construct meaning from their experiences and therefore leading change requires understanding the organization from the perspective of its members (Mack, 2010). Figure 2 depicts a conceptual model of how these theories and models come together

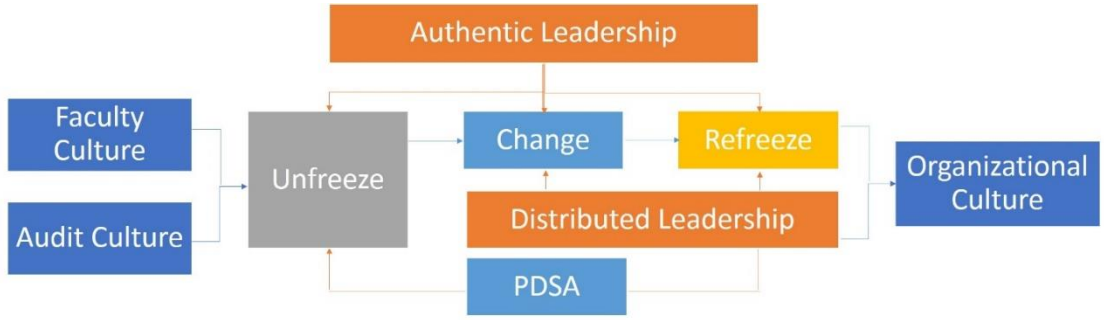

Figure 2. Leadership framework. Organizational subcultures become unified through distributed leadership. Authentic leadership is applied throughout the change process (Lewin, 1951).

in a leadership framework. Organizational culture theory is grounded in this concept and provides the lens for viewing how faculty involvement in program review is driven by their perceptions, values and identities. I use Lewin's (1951) model of change as it recognizes that change can only occur when cultural norms and values are addressed. Using authentic leadership of the change process will be necessary to for me to gain purchase with this stakeholder group that has historically distrusted management. Implementing a distributed leadership approach that connects with faculty culture and values forms a solution to the problem.

Organizational culture. I propose leading and implementing change through a cultural lens, seeing the institution as "a system of shared meanings and symbols" (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984, p. 198). The concept of organizational culture has its theoretical underpinnings in cultural anthropology, where scholars have long observed that different societies have different ways of doing things and making sense of the world (Morgan, 2006; Smircich, 1983). Having a predominantly constructivist worldview, I am particularly interested in the influence of symbolic anthropology on organizational theory and the concept of culture as the product of people's minds (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984). According to the symbolic school of anthropology, as social actors, individuals make meaning out of their experiences and interactions with each other. Geertz (1973), the leading proponent of symbolic anthropology, described this semiotic concept of culture:

> Believing…that man is an animal suspended in webs of significance he himself has spun, I take culture to be those webs, and the analysis of it to be therefore not an experimental science in search of law but an interpretive one in search of meaning. (p. 5)

Organizational culture is likewise expressed though patterns of symbolic discourse among employees and the way experiences become meaningful for them. This can be seen in the

organization's shared meanings and symbols (such as legends, stories, heroes/heroines) and the recurring themes expressed therein that represent common beliefs and values (Smircich, 1983).

An organization's history and leadership can impact the meanings and interpretations members ascribe to their experiences (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984; Schein, 2010), yet it is the ongoing sensemaking of interactions and actions that continually create culture. Schein (2017) defines organizational culture as follows:

> …the accumulated shared learning of that group as it solves its problems of external adaptation and internal integration; which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, feel, and behave in relation to those problems. (p. 6)

Analyzing how experiences and meanings translate into shared learnings and actions is an important focus for leaders of organizational change, as reaching common interpretations of situations can create a sense of "organization" and make coordinated action and the solving of organizational problems possible (Smircich, 1983).

Creation of culture at Institution X. As the college system celebrates its 50th year, the nostalgic recollections of the institution's beginnings afford an excellent opportunity to identify the symbols that communicate the college's founding culture. According to Schein (2017), organizational culture is created "through the actions of founders who operate as strong leaders" (p. 130). Myths, stories, rituals, ceremonies, and metaphors center on the founding heroes/heroines who went above and beyond to help students find their pathways to success. Symbols are found in the renegade and visionary faculty who, through a pioneering attitude and dogged persistence, were the first to actualize the idea of an education system that truly served the community (Author, 2016). Stories of students, who were told they had no place in

traditional postsecondary education, crossing the stage due to the innovation of devoted teachers, embody the values of the college and faculty culture.

Faculty's founding and influential position in the creation of culture at the college was supported by what Skolnik (1988) calls *social consensus* and a *unitary frame of reference* among faculty and administration in the early years of the CAATs. The government's proposal of the CAATs described a system that would prevent the "rigid class system that often prevails at other institutions" (Davis, 1967) and underscored the importance of collegial interaction between faculty and administration (Skolnik, 1988). Despite the lack of formal bicameral governance in the Ontario college system, faculty constructed a reality, a culture, in which they operated as autonomous professionals with an expert role in academic decision-making.

This faculty culture, which Manning (2013) terms "collegium", is not without precedence in academia. Faculty authority over academic issues, rooted in professional values and norms, is seen as a unique characteristic of postsecondary education (Owen, 1995). While management structures exist simultaneously with collegium, the tradition of dual authority has a long history in education. The collegium, characterized by faculty control over the curriculum, has persisted since the 12th century, making it one of the longest lasting organizational models in the world (Manning, 2013).

Cultural differentiation and fragmentation. Morgan (2006) notes that while some organizations may have one dominant culture shared by members, others may be fragmented into groups that think about the world in different ways and have different views on what the organization should be. From this perspective, it is possible to gain insight to how, as the external environment has brought to the forefront bureaucratic concerns around the measurement of quality, Institution X's main stakeholder groups (faculty and management) have become

fragmented, or differentiated, into subcultures with their own beliefs, values and assumptions. A differentiated view sees organizational culture as a collection of sometimes contradictory values and manifestations, rather than a single, monolithic entity. Complex organizations, such as the college, contain occupational cultures like those of faculty collegium and management bureaucracy, which become nested subcultures (Meyerson & Martin, 1987). In fact, the co-existence of faculty culture with management bureaucracy is the most common combination of perspectives in colleges and universities (Manning, 2013).

Cultural change. External pressures cause organizational cultures to change; in attempting to adapt to their environment, they modify their formal goals, strategies and structures (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984; Schein, 2010). As the demand for accountability has grown in the education sector, management at Institution X have put emphasis on top-down QA processes and a definition of quality conceptualized by the requirements of external bodies. Shore and Wright (2000) argue that the result of such audit technologies being introduced to higher education is the emergence of an *audit culture*. An audit culture imposes norms and values based on the principles of the free market, neoliberalism, and bureaucratic management behaviours on organizational members (Shore & Wright, 2000), putting it at odds with the coexisting faculty culture. Organizations with nested cultures "may find themselves with beliefs, values, norms, and basic assumptions that are to some degree dysfunctional and will require change" (Schein, 2017, p. 125). Such is the case at Institution X, calling for a change process and model of change that will "manage the direction and evolution of culture" (Schein, 2017, p. 126).

Change model. Kurt Lewin's change model (1951) provides a framework for leading change through the three steps of *unfreezing*, *changing* and *refreezing*. Lewin saw the group environment as an influence on individuals' perceptions and attitudes. He "postulated that group

behaviour is an intricate set of symbolic interactions and forces that not only affect group structures, but also modify individual behaviour" (Burnes, 2004, p. 981). At Institution X the meanings faculty have created about the their roles and identities in the process of education trigger a set of behaviours that impact how they involve themselves in program review. Seeing themselves as experts in what academic quality is and its determination lends meaning to their reason for being. Rejecting, either explicitly or implicitly, processes that symbolize divergence from these values has become the norm for faculty. The strength of Lewin's model from a cultural perspective is the recognition that there must be a separation from, or *unfreezing* of, group norms embedded in organizational culture for change to occur (Schein, 1996).

For Institution X, the organizational change will be *discontinuous,* or *episodic*, due to institutional inertia and prolonged avoidance of the environment (Cawsey et al., 2016). The existence of subcultural differentiation, makes possible cultural changes in response to the environment that are "localized, rather than organization-wide, and more incremental, rather than revolutionary" (Meyerson & Martin, 1987, p. 634). While college leaders have applied an incremental approach to the program review process in response to the growing quality agenda, these changes focussed on the task of progam review alone. Unlike strategic change, not all organizational components have come into focus (Nadler & Tushman, 1989); little has been done to engage faculty or to address the shift in culture. Lewin's (1951) model of change is applicable to the episodic change now required because it assumes that the inertia experienced by the insitution is due to group norms that create restraining factors, making culture the main impediment to change (Weick & Quinn, 1999).

Unfreeze. The first step in Lewin's change model (1951), *unfreeze,* is based on the theory that behaviour is the product of a field of driving and restraining forces that are constantly

adapting in order to achieve a quasi-stationary equilibrium. Beliefs and assumptions grounded in organizational culture are restraining forces that counterbalance the driving forces for change that exist in the environment. To achieve change, these restraining forces must be removed, or unlearned, so that new learning can occur (Burnes, 2004; Cawsey et al., 2016; Schein, 1996).

A limitation with Lewin's model is that it is descriptive, rather than prescriptive (Cawsey et al., 2016), providing little pragmatic detail and direction for leaders to follow. Cawsey et al. (2016) assert that the model does not expound on how to move individuals away from their beliefs and assumptions toward a vision of the ideal future state. Elaborating on Lewin's theory, Schein (1996, 2010) mitigates these limitations by outlining systematic processes that I will use to lead and motivate change. According to Schein, unfreezing requires disconfirmation of the status quo, using information to create dissatisfaction or frustration with the current state. The disconfirming information may come from a comprehensive scan and analysis of the internal and external environments. Chapter 1's exploration of the organizational context revealed a need for change at Institution X if it intends to maintain its reputation and survive in a market-driven economy. Once communicated this message should initiate a disconfirmation of the status quo, leading to step two of Lewin's model.

Change. The second step in Lewin's model (1951) is *change*, when old beliefs and structures are suspended, and a shift to the new state can occur. Authors (Bushe & Marshak, 2016) have criticized Lewin's and other classical models of change for their planned approach and positivistic assumption that holds the organization to an objective ideal. Newer, "dialogic" approaches promote "effective dialogue and conversation and a basic assumption that it is by changing the conversations that normally take place in organizations that organizations are ultimately transformed" (p. 360). However, Lewin did in fact advocate for a change process that

is participative, collaborative, and which involves all stakeholders in decision-making (Burnes, 2004). Supporting this theory, Schein (1996) notes that stakeholders must be involved in the change process and shaping the solution in order for it to be adopted by the organizational culture. Following Lewin, the change phase will involve faculty in determining the best way to adopt the change, finding solutions to challenges and making adjustments, so that they can embrace and embody the change (Burnes, 2004). This aligns with emergent change processes and the distributed leadership approach I intend to use in addressing the problem of practice.

Refreeze. The final step in Lewin's change model (1951) is *refreeze*, when the change becomes a permanent part of organizational culture. Once the changes are designed and implemented, faculty and management will need to adapt and "develop new patterns and habits" (Cawsey et al., 2016, p. 46) allowing the institution to again stabilize. Again, Lewin's change model has been heavily criticized in recent years as new approaches to change propose that organizational change is emergent, dynamic, and ongoing (Burnes, 2004, 2009). Proponents of emergent change assert that "in today's rapidly changing world, organizations find that pressures to adapt mean they are never 'refrozen' – and if they are, they are in trouble" (Cawsey et al., 2016, p. 47). Recognizing this limitation, the leadership framework (Figure 2) will implement a Plan-Do-Study-Act (PDSA) model (The W. Edwards Deming Institute®, 2016) which presents an on-going cycle of continuous improvement, addressing the need for the college to adapt continually to the environment. However, first it is necessary to understand what needs to change in the organization. This is the focus of the critical organizational analysis that follows.

Critical Organizational Analysis

A critical organizational analysis involves detecting existing gaps between where the organization is and the ideal future state. I chose Nadler and Tushman's Congruence Model

(1980) to analyze the current realities at Institution X as it offers the ability to examine the interaction of the informal (faculty) and formal (management) organizational cultures and the consistency of these with other organizational components.

Inputs. As previously discussed, the *environment* of the higher education sector can be characterized by a neoliberal focus on accountability and market competition. Over a relatively recent period of time, government policy has demanded a heightened focus on the quality assurance of programs of study at Ontario colleges. OCQAS has developed provincial standards that have had a performative effect on the college's program review process. "Because legitimacy and worth are anchored in the match between structural characteristics and prevailing myths, organizations alter appearances to mirror changes in social expectations" (Bolman & Deal, 2013, p. 292). In an attempt to adjust to the changing environment, the college administration has become more interested in centralized processes, which can symbolize that the college strives for continuous improvement of its programs and therefore makes effective use of provincial funds. The environment also puts constraints on the institution; the desire to achieve a mature level of effort toward quality leads to consistency in approach and process, limiting the autonomy of faculty. No longer may faculty devise their own approach to program review; the college's enhanced program review process, designed by management, is mapped directly to OCQAS standards.

As the institution's main *resource*, faculty provide subject matter and pedagogical expertise that informs the content of the college's programs. With leadership increasingly shaping QA processes, faculty feel their value has diminished and efforts have been misdirected toward managerial matters, or that their expert role has been deprofessionalized (Eliott, 2015; Niesche & Gowlett, 2015; Olssen & Peters, 2005). From the management perspective, faculty

appear inflexible and maladaptive to new data-oriented approaches characteristic of QA and audit processes. Faculty protest that they are not allocated enough time and claim they do not have the data analysis and report writing skills required to carry out the review (Institution X, 2012). While the capabilities of the college's main resource, faculty, has remained fixed, the review process increasingly requires more flexibility and an expanded skill set.

The *history* of the college sector was forged upon lofty ideals and progressive goals based on social and economic equality and the development of human potential (Skolnik, 1988). Perhaps due to the novelty of the system, Skolnik (1988) notes that faculty seemed either critically unaware of, or unconcerned with, the fact that the design of the the CAATs was paradoxically "unaccompanied by any concrete provisions for meaningful participation in academic policy making" (p. 90). However, the budget pressures of the late 1970s were met with neoliberal management approaches, resulting in severe cutbacks to funding (Skolnik, 1988). The impact of the government's new focus on efficiency was the illumination of the inconsistency between the ideals that the CAATs were built upon and the exclusion of faculty from the colleges' governance structure. Faculty perception that they were undervalued and increasing workload concerns led to the system's first faculty strike in 1984. As leaders took on a business-like management style, the social consensus was broken, ushering in a period of low trust between management and faculty that has lasted to the present day. In October 2017, faculty entered into the longest strike in CAAT history, the resolution of which hinged on the issue of faculty involvement in academic decision-making. After five bitter weeks, faculty were legislated back to work, leaving the matter unresolved.

The *strategy* of the institution is based both on the colleges' original mandate of serving the economy as well as the community. While Institution X's basic mission is to prepare students

for the workforce, its vision is emancipatory in nature and revolves around global citizenship. The college has built a culture on its grass roots beginnings, priding itself on the expertise of faculty in meeting the changing needs of a diverse community and student body. Serving the nontraditional learner and dedication to student success defined quality rather than provincial standards. However, the rise of an audit culture (Cheng, 2010; Strathern, 2000; Taubman, 2014), has resulted in the college's recent strategy to create rigorous QA processes and specialized curriculum quality positions, with little attention paid to evolving the role of faculty.

Organizational components. Organizational components—the task, individuals, formal structure and informal organizational arrangements—make up the organization and how it transforms the above inputs into outputs (Nadler & Tushman, 1980). The *task* is the development, delivery, and maintenance of relevant programs of study that ensure graduate success. This requires industry knowledge or skills on the part of the faculty as the *individuals* charged with carrying out this task. Yet the extent to which faculty can exercise their previous autonomy in this work is constrained by provincial program standards that dictate the curriculum that must be delivered to students. Many faculty are themselves products of the university system where bicameral governance is a given and professors have autonomy over their courses. While not having anything to the effect written into policy, the persistent culture of collegium has formed faculty expectations of similar autonomy and decision-making power. Their lack of the skills now required for the program review process and their lack of involvement in the design of the process have resulted in perceptions of deprofressionalization.

With influence over program quality processes shifting to management, Institution X has seen the emergence of a machine bureaucracy (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Yet, this *formal organization* is incongruent with the persistent *informal organization*, the faculty culture. These

conditions disallow the formal structure from truly influencing faculty behaviours. Power struggles between faculty and management over decision-making have led to binary cultures with implicit distrust between the groups. At the individual level, the resistance expressed and demonstrated by faculty through lack of involvement in program review reveals little shared meaning is found in an artifact that has in effect been appropriated by a foreign culture. Faculty, perceived as inflexible and recalcitrant, have been excluded from decisions in order to avoid impediments to desired management directions. The resulting *output* is a program review process that is robust in structure but fails in practice.

Outputs. The main *outputs* of the college are vocationally focused programs that meet the needs of the marketplace. From the perspective of management, the Ministry, and the public, how well the college is attaining this objective is difficult to ascertain without a system of accountability in which a strong program review process plays a part. While it is difficult to directly relate program review to the measured performance of the college, declining domestic enrolment and graduate employment rates below the system average call into question whether Institution X is successfully adapting to the environment and keeping its programs current and relevant to the needs of the workplace and students.

Assessment of congruence. An assessment of the fit between organizational components reveals several areas of incongruence.

Individual/task and task/organization. At the simplest level, the task of program review demands skills that many faculty claim they do not have. They find the process cumbersome and too time-consuming. Their level of interest in program review is not sufficient enough to outweigh these factors. In the view of faculty, the formal organization does not adequately meet the demands of the task in that they have not been allocated enough time. The faculty collective

agreement precludes any faculty from having positional authority over another, making it difficult for program review leads to demand their colleagues take part in the process. These structural arrangements leave program review leads feeling alone and overwhelmed in completing the task.

Task/informal organization. According to Manning (2013), if one contrasts the values of faculty with those of neoliberal accountability, a clash of cultures is obvious. Power (1997) notes that the effect of an audit culture is the development of QA mechanisms at the administrative level. As such, program review can be seen as a symbol and ritual of administrative control, impacting the relationship between faculty culture, the informal organization, and the task.

Individual/organization. While structural issues pose a problem, organizational incongruence also lies in the lack of motivation on the part of faculty to conduct program review. Union representatives claim that faculty have reached an all-time low in job satisfaction due to management control and the deprofessionalization of the faculty role (Author, 2015). This insight into the faculty climate reveals higher order needs of esteem and self-actualization (Maslow, 1987) are not being met. Faculty resistance to program review may actually be an emotional response arising from "feelings of powerlessness…from a sense of a lack of individual and collective agency" (Blackmore, 2013, p. 147). Management is accused by faculty of what Bolman and Deal (2013) term "bogus empowerment" (p. 150). Faculty claim that management asks for feedback on decisions that have already been made, not listening to recommendations, or not asking for feedback at all (OPSEU [Local Chapter] President, personal communication, 2016). There appears to be a dichotomy between the institution's espoused theories and the theories in use (Argyris, 1976). Empowering employees is an objective of the institution's

transformative leadership approach, yet a perceived lack of autonomy and trust in their work has dampened motivation.

Organization/informal organization. Cultural differentiation allows one nested organizational culture to channel attention independently of the others and respond to the organization's environment (Meyerson & Martin, 1987). In this manner, management has responded to the accountability movement, attempting to tightly link to the immediate environment by changing QA processes. This type of channeling, however, results in a "loose coupling" between organizational subcultures (Meyerson & Martin, 1987). While faculty have been buffered from external demands and disruptive episodic change to program review has been mitigated, organization-wide change has been inhibited since change has been incremental and localized to one group.

The shift of balance in power to management seen at Institution X is not congruent with the enduring faculty culture of collegial governance and autonomy. Rather, it is at odds with the values, meanings and myths that faculty hold, impacting the institution's ability to collectively deal with current challenges. As artifacts of audit culture, QA mechanisms "are agents for the creation of new kinds of subjectivity: self-managing individuals who render themselves auditable" (Shore & Wright, 2000, p. 57). An audit culture therefore poses a threat to faculty self-identity and their values of autonomy and trust in teacher expertise. In a recent address to academic managers, the union president declared a culture of fear among members due to the lack of trust in faculty, proposing as a remedy more consultation during decision-making processes (OPSEU [Local Chapter] President, personal communication, 2016). The existing competition for control between the two groups is exasperated and the emerging dominance of

managerial organizational culture in academic decision-making is eroding faculty commitment to and faith in the institution and its processes.

Possible Solutions to Address the Problem of Practice

Additional time. There is no doubt that the most precious resource is time. Program review requires time to become educated about the process and how to engage in it, to reflect purposefully on the results of it, and to document findings, decisions and plans for program improvement. Many institutions reallocate time from other work to program review (Bresciani, 2006). Faculty can be released from teaching so that they have allocated time each week for this task. This solution would have an impact on both human and fiscal resources. Additional budget would be needed to replace faculty in the classes from which they would be released. With approximately 20 program reviews conducted each year this would be a sizable incremental cost to the college of over $100,000 per year. It may be difficult to convince senior leadership of the need to add such a cost to improve an existing process. Unlike trendy new initiatives, such as the introduction of online courses, a change to the program review process may not yield quantifiable outcomes that would justify the allocation of this amount of financial resources. Further, department Chairs would need to find qualified candidates to replace faculty, which may pose an operational challenge depending on the specialized knowledge and credentials required.

This solution would address the inadequacy of the institution's formal organizational arrangements in meeting the demands of the task and the incongruence between the individual and the task. However, while structural changes appear to be in order, organizational improvement "requires more than structural change; it requires changes in the meanings and purposes that individuals learn within their society" (Greenfield, 1973, p. 559). This structural solution does not address the cultural issues that underlie the problem of practice. At Institution

X, more time has been allocated to faculty over the years, yet completion rates continue to drop. It is unlikely that any amount of time will convert uninterested faculty members to engaged participants. Faculty members report that their other duties, such as assisting students, quickly fill the vacuum created by release time. This is not surprising considering the value and purpose placed by faculty on working with students. Without strategies that position program review in its design and implementation as contributing to a common purpose and shared values, this solution only masks the true cultural issues at Institution X.

Additional supports. Faculty members, who are otherwise experts in their fields of study, may be intimidated by the need to learn a new process or use new skills (Bresciani, 2006). Cranton and Legge (1978) recommend that the lead reviewer should have "experience in statistics, research design, questionnaire use and construction, educational planning, a knowledge of the course content, and a high level of interpersonal skills" (p. 469). Models of review described by Gardner (1977) demand that reviewers be expert in such skills as measurement methodology, analysis of performance data, social interaction and the formulation of meaningful descriptive reports. Even for experienced faculty this is a tall order. Recognizing this, an unprecedented amount of support has been lent to program review teams by DAQ. This capacity-building approach, where the tools and information are provided to faculty for them to use with guidance, is echoed by Bresciani's (2006) findings: "Comprehensive faculty and staff development initiatives are important in educating faculty about the assessment process and in supporting them throughout the process" (p. 126). Year after year DAQ staff are applauded for their support and resources, yet the completion rates and quality of program reviews are at their lowest, making the argument that increasing supports by this department will improve faculty involvement unconvincing.

Program review analyst. Bresciani (2011) also found that faculty should be provided with supports such as "assistance with documentation, and facilitated reflection for interpretation of results and decision-making" (p. 14). This leads to a third possible solution of developing a specific role in the college, a Program Review Analyst, responsible for analyzing and interpreting data, facilitating the problem-solving process with faculty teams and writing the final report. In a focus group conducted with faculty leaders of program review, it was recommended that a supportive role such as this be created to fill faculty's self-reported skills gap (Institution X, 2012). Faculty claimed that the data analysis, report writing, and interpersonal skills required to engage other faculty are outside of their scope. A Program Review Analyst would relieve them of this "heavy lifting" and leave them to simply contribute to solving identified issues.

This position would require an investment in human resources, either as a permanent hire or through contracted services. Estimating that one individual may be able to lead the review of a maximum of seven programs per year, at least three Program Review Analysts would be needed. This would require an investment of approximately $225,000 in salaries per year. It will be difficult to convince senior management that faculty are not capable of learning and exercising these skills, warranting the creation of three new positions. Typically, faculty are viewed as highly educated academics, many holding graduate degrees that would have required some level of data analysis, synthesis and writing. It is more likely that management would view faculty as resistant and lazy. Therefore, this position may be viewed as an unnecessary incremental cost.

Faculty culture also impacts the viability of this solution. While it is the faculty's claim that they would rather leave these elements of the review to a skilled individual, this solution could cause the unintended consequence of disrupting the collegium that faculty enjoy. The

current model was developed in part to ensure faculty buy into the recommendations and outcomes arising from program review. Rather than an administrator dictating program direction based on data, faculty, through a process of self-discovery and capacity-building, would be the architects of the action plan, leading to little resistance in implementing improvements of their own design. A Program Review Analyst may be perceived as an outsider, working at the behest of management, with little contextual understanding of the discipline, the program's students, and its objectives. As Manning (2013) notes, "decision-making in curricular and academic matters rests on a tradition of expert authority, authority that only faculty possess" (p. 41). The Analyst's interpretation of data could easily be dismissed by faculty and seen as another instrument of managerialism and the usurping of their expertise and autonomy. Further, this solution fails to address faculty's concern that they have been left out of the design of the program review process and therefore their voice and perspective would not be reflected in what data the Program Review Analyst would consider pertinent, what issues are illuminated, and ultimately how program quality is defined.

Individual reward. Mets (1995a) notes that the biggest complaint about involvement in program review is lack of return or reward for the amount of time and energy devoted to the process. Increased workload with a lack of incentive related to tenure and promotion can discourage involvement in the process (Andrade, 2011). Reward for program review efforts could come in the form of institutional recognition through travel funds to attend external conferences or other professional development activities (Banta & Palomba, 2015). However, this approach is transactional in nature and does little to disrupt the contingent relationship that currently exists between the two groups and is causing a bifurcated organizational culture.

Collective reward. A common frustration among faculty is not knowing what administrative decisions have been made at the leadership level (Mets, 1995a), stressing the importance of supportive leadership that acts on recommendations to demonstrate the value of program review (Hoey, 1995a; Hoey 1995b). Faculty do not perceive the existence of tangible benefits or reward such as resources, or if they are received, it is not possible to connect their allocation directly to the review (Mets, 1995a). Grants and release time to work on innovations identified through program review that will lead to program improvement may also serve as incentives for faculty. Therefore, another possible solution could be the creation of a Program Review Innovation Fund to support innovative initiatives coming out of program review with a faculty committee responsible for deciding on the use of the funds. These funds would be separate from departmental operating budgets, which would continue to cover the regular costs of program maintenance.

There is, however, some disagreement in the literature on linking program reviews to budget and resource allocation. Conrad and Wilson (1985) advised that one program review process cannot serve both purposes, as faculty reviewers would be less transparent about their program's limitations for fear of budget reallocation. Conversely, Arns and Poland (1980) advocate that the use of program review adds confidence to the institutional planning process and counteracts the frequent faculty observation that "nothing happened" (p.283) following the review. Some feel this linkage would strengthen the impact and implementation of program review (Barak & Sweeney, 1995).

This solution will also require a financial commitment. Similar funding envelopes available to faculty at Institution X are between $10,000 and $36,000 and fund between five and ten projects per year through an application process. However, comparable funding could be put

toward this fund from an already existing line item in DAQ's budget. To date, this amount has been used to offset costs of special projects in an ad hoc manner, however, the intention had been to utilize it to fund faculty-led curriculum innovation. The cost of compensating departments for faculty time to sit on the adjudication panel can easily be covered by this budget as well. The allocation of faculty complementary hours for such duties is a norm at the college and encouraging scholarly activity is a college priority, making this solution realistic.

Still holding to my leadership belief that reward is intrinsic and not transactional, these funds would be allocated to support program initiatives, rather than individual pursuits. This solution has characteristics of "high-involvement" practices related to human resource theory that are based on the principle of empowering employees by providing opportunities to exercise autonomy and influence in such mechanisms as decision-making processes and self-managed teams, but also aligns with distributed leadership. The prospect of being resourced to autonomously design and manage a teaching initiative would motivate faculty to meaningfully participate in program review. It addresses faculty's complaints that their recommendations are not taken up and decisions resulting from program review are either not transparent or non-existent. The fund will foster initiatives that are of meaning for faculty rather than audit criteria. Judged by their peers and trusting in collegium, faculty will likely respect the decisions of the review committee. The faculty convening the review committee will likewise be engaged in a collegial decision-making process, exercising their autonomy and expert opinion.

Co-ownership. The value placed on consensus in faculty culture starkly differs from the managerial perspective; faculty believe that sound decision making requires their professional and institutional knowledge, and that they are best suited to inform what is best for the institution (Manning, 2013). In their classic step-by step guide to assessment, Banta and Palomba (2015)

concluded that successful assessment should be faculty-driven, with faculty carrying out all steps in the process from articulating the purpose for assessment to acting on the review findings. Likewise, a good practice identified in Bresciani's study (2006) is a faculty-dependent model where faculty take leadership of developing the process and coordinating the review. Therefore, the solution should involve faculty in the design of the program review process.

Schein (2010) recommends facilitating communication across subcultural boundaries in dialogues that stimulate mutual understanding of each other's taken-for-granted assumptions. This may take the form of a committee of faculty and administrators to jointly plan the program review process and ensure a shared and agreed-upon framework (Bresciani, 2006). This joint planning committee would be charged with devising the criteria and data sets used to assess a program. This would be the first step to a revised process in which faculty would be given ownership and distributed leadership can be achieved through structural relations and institutionalized arrangements (Gronn, 2002). Transparent information and open discussion can be had about balancing managerial expectations to meet audit requirements with the needs of faculty. This varies from the current goal-based model of program review, which has been criticized as reductionist and promoting homogenization (Skolnik, 1989). Rather, it approaches a responsive model that takes into account the concerns and issues of multiple stakeholders (Conrad & Wilson, 1985). This framework could be used by the committee to collaboratively review and provide feedback on program review reports.

A committee that reviews program review reports, the Program Review Committee (PRC), is already in existence as a subcommittee of the College Advisory Committee (CAC), the institution's forum for making recommendations on academic matters of importance to the Board of Governors through the VPA. Utilizing this established structural governance flow, the

proposal is to transform this committee into the joint planning committee, reducing redundancies and inefficiencies in human resources and time. This committee is currently management-heavy, therefore, some adjustments to the membership would have to be made to equalize management and faculty representation. Membership will be drawn from the CAC by election, and appointment to any at large faculty roles would be left with the union to determine. I would co-chair this committee with an elected faculty member.

A joint planning committee will be more time-consuming than the other possible solutions, which could be implemented in one semester. The proposal of the committee, development of a new framework and vetting process will require some time for consultation with all stakeholders and acquisition of approvals from CAC and senior management due to the significant change proposed. Upon consensus and approval, formation of the committee itself and the completion of deliverables will likely take the span of another year, followed by more time to implement the new process. However, the cost of allocating time (approximately two hours per week) to faculty to participate on the committee could be assigned as complementary work in addition to teaching duties and easily be absorbed by the academic Schools. Given the level of faculty dissatisfaction with the program review process, if faculty believe that their voice will truly be heard, the prospect of changing the process will incentivize faculty participation.

Despite the cost of time, participation on this committee would in effect constitute engagement in step two of Lewin's change model (1951) – *change*. The change process will be participative and collaborative through the involvement of both faculty and management stakeholders in the process of conducting this work and deciding the design of program review. As advocated by Lewin, a joint planning committee will necessitate an iterative trial and error process with faculty involved in shaping the solution and co-determining the path that will yield

the best organizational results. Schein (2014) makes the salient point that what stabilizes cultural change is what works, not what management dictates. If faculty are engaged in the change process, it is more likely that the change will produce favourable results, creating comfort in how things are done and contributing to the new order being adopted by faculty culture.

Proposed solution: co-ownership and collective reward. When faced with resistance, leaders have attempted to rely on vertical control, failing to understand "the need to gain shared consent within a culture that so values autonomy and cooperative decision-making" (Ramsden, as cited in Drew, 2010, p. 66). Such has been the case at Institution X, leading to the problem of practice that is of issue here. Skolnik (2010) notes that in Ontario, the "marginalisation *(sic)* of the faculty role in QA stands in contrast to the norms in many countries regarding the role of faculty in academic governance" (p. 14). The collaborative and inclusive solution of a joint planning committee could mitigate the feelings of marginalization and loss of meaning that faculty experience when they have little opportunity for input into the design or purpose of QA processes, or the criteria that are used (Skolnik, 2010). Because the formation of a joint planning committee, albeit a structural arrangement, addresses the cultural issues underlying the problem of practice and because the solution itself is an enactment of Lewin's change model, I have selected this solution for organizational improvement at Institution X. Further, this proposal aligns with my distributed leadership approach and is a low cost option. To complement this solution I also propose enacting the Program Review Innovation Fund (PRIF). The PRIF aligns with DAQ's operational plans and budget and requires no higher-level approval. Faculty will experience increased empowerment and involvement in decision-making in a way that supports their values and establishes trust that management has authentic and genuine motivations.

As discussed in Chapter 1, senior leadership at Institution X advocate for a transformational leadership approach to empower employees, enable self-actualization, and foster intrinsic motivation. This solution aligns well with this espoused leadership style and the college's focus on employee engagement. However, the history of conflict between faculty and management that has bred a culture of distrust, presents the potential barrier to this solution. Management may resist the concept of trusting faculty with authentic decision-making power in a matter for which they are ultimately accountable. Yet the recent faculty strike of 2017 has left the issue of faculty control on the minds of senior leaders who are more conscious than ever before of faculty's desire to be involved in decision-making. Looking to heal the organization from the effects of this disruption, the VPA has pledged to continue dialogue on the issue. Management are cautiously ready to adopt a more democratic approach and, while at the core of my work, program review is a centralized process that will have little direct impact on their operations, making it a low-risk entry point for them. In addition, senior managers look to me as the college's lead and subject matter expert in academic quality, knowing I am accountable for institutional processes and will be apt to take my suggestions. A carefully considered and executed communication and implementation plan that readies the institution for change and takes into account the reactions of this stakeholder group will ensure this solution in accepted and viable.

Leadership Approaches to Change

Distributed leadership. Participative decision-making has become a prominent concern of faculty across the system (MacKay, 2017). Four weeks into the faculty strike of 2017, negotiations ceased after one major issue remained on the table—academic freedom, a pseudonym the union used to mean greater say in academic decision-making (OPSEU, 2017). In

many ways, the problem of practice faced by Institution X mirrors this issue that dominated the final weeks of the faculty strike. For the same reasons management at Institution X have felt the need to intervene in QA processes, the demand for faculty control over decision-making and governance could not be agreed to by the colleges' bargaining team. The arbitration award (Kaplan, 2017) codified the concept of academic freedom generally accepted in academia, that is, the freedom to engage in inquiry and discussion without fear of reprisal. While this may have represented a step ahead for faculty at some colleges, this language only mimics existing policy at Institution X and does little to concretely address the issue of decision-making and governance. As recovery from the strike unfolds, it is unlikely that this language will appease the mounting concerns of faculty with respect to professional autonomy and inclusion. A collaborative approach and a plan for improvement grounded in distributed leadership practice are timely. The formation of a joint planning committee enacts a distributed leadership approach through a structural institutionalized arrangement (Gronn, 2002).

Some iteration of distributed leadership has always been in existence at the college. As noted earlier, determining quality rested primarily with faculty prior to the ascendance of accountability and managerialism in the education sector. In addition, the former VPA had explicitly recognized the need to devolve the responsibility of ensuring academic quality to faculty in response to an increasingly competitive market, positioning horizontal leadership as an emerging approach at Institution X. There are in fact a number of definitions and terminologies to describe distributed leadership that have similarities and differences, along with a growing body of material (Bolden, 2011). However, all seem to "suggest a similar need for a more collective and systemic understanding of leadership as a social process" (Bolden, 2011, p. 252). Through a comparative review of the literature on the many concepts associated with distributed

leadership, Bolden (2011) identified three common premises: leadership is an emergent property of a group or network of interacting individuals, there is openness to the boundaries of leadership, and varieties of expertise are distributed across the many, not the few.

The first point is significant from an interpretive perspective. Following Spillane (2005), distributed leadership centers on leadership practice rather than the actions of individuals. Distributed leadership is not the product of a leader's actions; it is not something that is "done" to others. Rather, in alignment with a cultural perspective, it is "a product of the interactions of school leaders, followers, and their situation" (Spillane, 2005, p. 144). The former VPA's approach could be categorized as a "leader plus" (Spillane, 2005) model or a "numerical action" (Gronn, 2000) that simply acknowledges that the functions of many individuals in an organization play a part in leadership. However, this view only attributes leadership to the actions of multiple individuals. Institution X presents a good example of this, where faculty were given the responsibility to lead the program review process and yet the desired results were not actualized. In my approach to distributed leadership, the question is not whether leadership is distributed, it is *how* it is distributed. By convening the joint planning committee where the voices of faculty and management will equally be heard, I will initiate a distributed leadership *practice* that will see committee members playing "off one another, creating a reciprocal interdependency between their actions" (Spillane, 2005, p. 146) as they take up the challenge of developing a shared program review framework.

Distributed leadership has been seen by many as a call to promote democracy, offering a solution to the top-down management approaches that have become common in educational institutions due to neoliberal ideologies (Mayrowetz, 2008) making it appropriate to the organizational context of and problem facing Institution X. The driving forces of the

accountability movement and the restraining forces of faculty culture call for an integrated change grounded in distributed leadership, one that fosters collaboration and preserves academic values while meeting accountability requirements (Drew, 2010). Distributed leadership can help to construct professional identities that bring together concepts of academic and managerial work and values, reframing the traditional notion of leadership that has been enacted in recent history at the college (Bolden et al., 2009). A solution based on this approach therefore has the potential to reconcile competing internal and external forces of change.

Still, the uptake of a distributed approach may have challenges given the current climate of accountability and the existing hierarchical structure. Distributed leadership risks being reduced to simple rhetoric among management who are held responsible for compliance with provincial standards and therefore reluctant to give greater control to faculty. The faculty union has recommended faculty be equal partners with college administration in the governance of the institution (MacKay, 2014), but the colleges refused this demand in recent negotiations and management in general is ambivalent to such strategies due to lack of trust. Distributed leadership could easily become an illusion of collaboration and autonomy that obfuscates hierarchical forms of leadership. Moreover, some researchers suggest that shared decision-making processes and greater participation of faculty do not benefit the organization as a whole if faculty and organizational goals are not well aligned (Mayrowetz, 2008). Therefore, the shared review model proposed here, where review processes are accommodated to serve the interests of both faculty and the requirements of government, may have limitations. Opponents claim that theoretical and practical factors may clash with approach (Barak, 1982) and frustrate faculty members. Faculty may perceive the joint planning committee as a way of masking managerialism with collegiality (Bolden et al., 2009) with the aim to coercively replace

commitment to teaching practice with an audit culture. To mitigate these risks, an authentic leadership approach to the change process must be taken.

Authentic leadership. In 1988, Michael Skolnik wrote "Arguably, the greatest barrier to the academic development and functioning of Ontario's…[CAATs] is the hostile and suspicion laden relationship which exists between management and the union" (p. 83). Thirty years later, in the months after the longest strike in CAAT history, it is possible that this statement still holds true. Scholars (Alavi and Gill, 2017; Bligh, 2017) argue that authentic leadership can respond to the issue of distrust of managers. Bligh (2017) writes that

> Authentic leadership is fundamentally based on trust, which fosters a more candid and direct process when dealing with difficult problems. A credible leader must first develop "credits" with potential followers before they will consent to being led in a new direction; as a result, leaders who are more transparent and positive are more likely to have followers who trust them and rate them as effective leaders. (p. 24)

By shaping "a collective environment for change in which followers identify themselves with the values and collective meanings developed within that environment" (Alavi & Gill, 2017, p. 160), I will establish trust in leadership at the beginning of and during the change process. Shaping a collective environment for change and building trust begins with transparent communication about the need for change.

Plan to Communicate the Need for Change

Explaining the need for change. Returning to Lewin's change model, the first step is to unfreeze, the focus of which is to "dislodge the beliefs and assumptions of those who need to engage in systemic alterations to the status quo" (Cawsey et al., 2016, p. 45). Schein (1996) elaborates that unfreezing requires the communication of disconfirming information, in other

words, communicating the need for change. A message must be communicated that outlines some sort of discrepancy between the current and desired state (Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder, 1993). Communicating the disconfirming information that the current review process is not respected and puts the college in danger of not meeting provincial standards should create *survival anxiety* (Schein, 1996), or guilt, among institutional members. For administrators, the risk of non-compliance and the impact this may have on reputation and enrolment will create a sense of urgency. For faculty, the message must relate to their values; the thought that the college's programs, and faculty themselves, are not adequately preparing students for success will create dissatisfaction with the status quo and therefore heighten an awareness for change.

Providing reassurance. While disconfirming information may create a sense of urgency and awareness among employees, Schein (1996) points out that survival anxiety may not be sufficient to achieve change if it is accompanied by *learning anxiety*. Learning anxiety comes from the fear of admitting to imperfections, as this admission may alter one's effectiveness, self-esteem, or even identity. For faculty, learning anxiety may create denial and resistance, generated by the fear of deprofessionalization and diminished expertise in the determination of academic quality.

For Schein (1996), the key to the unfreezing stage is to create psychological safety so that learning anxiety can be overcome, allowing survival anxiety to be felt, and thus creating the motivation for change. To create psychological safety at Institution X a "transformational vision based on higher order values" (Cawsey et al., 2016, p. 113) will be communicated. A clear and powerful change vision focused on faculty expertise and student success will capture the hearts and minds of employees, in particular, faculty. Expecting that the accountability movement and

the competitive market will intensify to the point of organizational crisis if the college does not implement a strong continuous program improvement mechanism, the change is anticipatory as well as discontinuous, the combination of which is *reorientation* (Nadler & Tushman, 1989). When reorienting an organization, the change often emphasizes continuity with the values of the past while planning for a new reality. With this type of change, a stong vision becomes "symbolic, providing a point for rallying and identification" (p. 198). The proposed vision of distributed leadership that draws upon a time when faculty had autonomy in the determination of program quality, will help organizational members make sense of their experiences as change occurs. Again, this vision will be communicated, along with the need for change, by the VPA via broadcast email, in-person open house and the intranet (internal organizational website) site.

Responding to perceptions of change. Mento et al. (2002) note that resistance to change is related to how it is framed and the change must be framed for the different stakeholders who will play a role in the change effort. Building the case for change also requires demonstrating the benefits will outweigh the costs of change (Cawsey et al., 2016). Faculty, department Chairs and senior management will have different perceptions of the impact a new program review process will have on the institution and on themselves. The change will come under scrutiny to ensure congruence with stakeholder and organizational values (Klein, 1996). The combination of perceptions of organizational and individual consequences can predict the extent to which each stakeholder group will likely support the change and provides some insight into the responses each audience may have (see Table 1). These responses can be dealt with collaboratively by co-hosting open houses with the VPA with each stakeholder group as part of the communications plan outlined in Chapter 3.

Senior management will likely perceive the impact of the change on both themselves and

the organization as positive due to the responsibility placed on them to ensure processes are followed. This group is most likely able to feel a sense of urgency and need for change within a

Table 1

Organizational and Individual Consequences and the Support for Change

Stakeholder	Perceived Impact of the Change on the Organization	Perceived Impact of the Change on the Individual	Direction of Support of the Change
Senior management	Positive	Positive (better work, easier work)	Strong support for change
Faculty	Neutral	Negative (more work, potentially worse work, values impact)	Resistance to change
Middle management (Chairs)	Positive	Negative (more work)	Indeterminate support for change
Faculty union executive	Negative	Negative (more work, worse work, values impact)	Resistance to change

Adapted from *Organizational change: An action-oriented toolkit, 3rd Ed.* (p. 195), by T. F. Cawsey, G. Deszca, and C. Ingols, 2016, Los Angeles: SAGE Publications, Inc. Copyright 2016 by SAGE Publications, Inc.

context of the competitive market and the demands of the Ministry. However, both Chairs and senior management will likely be reluctant to give faculty ownership of the process due to years of low trust and transactional relations between the groups. Anti-management sentiment, grievances, workload disputes, and a pattern of resistance to change will leave many managers questioning the sense in giving faculty more control to what is becoming a high stakes process for which management are ultimately accountable. Therefore, the message I will convey to this group must be on strategy and assurance that management will be co-leading the review process and ensuring from an administrative perspective that external requirements are met.

Department Chairs will be relied upon to implement the change with faculty, convincing them of the need for change about which they may themselves be neutral, enacting a “middle

powerlessness" that this group often feels. Mobilizing and empowering this group through consistent communication of information will be important as they represent the bridge between senior management and faculty and thus between the desired and end state (Cawsey et al., 2016). Chairs' concerns will likely revolve around how much work will be required of faculty and what supports they will be given. Faculty complaints about workload go directly to the Chair and the Chair is held responsible for holding faculty accountable for completing tasks. Communication to this group must include the message that the change will result in higher faculty engagement and therefore less need for confrontation with faculty over incomplete assignments. As supervisors to faculty, Chairs must also be clear about the steps and expectations of stakeholders through the process, as questions of this nature will be directed to them. Leveraging this group's regular monthly meetings, I will collaborate with the Manager of DAQ, who works with Chairs to operationalize processes, to ensure that they are kept abreast of essential information, enabling them to respond to faculty concerns.

It is particularly important to keep opinion leaders completely abreast of all relevant information (Klein, 1996) and provide them with opportunity for input. Faculty program coordinators and union leaders at Institution X are typically long standing faculty and hold significant influence among their faculty colleagues. The VPA and I will hold meetings with these opinion leaders in person, leveraging the regular monthly meetings with the union and the Program Coordinators Committee (PCC).

Faculty, including union executive, will be most impacted by the change and are likely to perceive the change as having a negative impact on them. Already ambivalent to program review, they are unlikely to have desire to enhance a management driven process that results in work that would divert them from the classroom and students. While the prospect of having

influence over the design of the review process would be met with enthusiasm, the low level of trust between faculty and management may neutralize any interest and excitement faculty may feel. Past negative change experiences and the current climate in the wake of the faculty strike may leave them skeptical of any management-initiated change. Communication must ready this group by identifying the distributed approach that will involve them in the change process (Cawsey et al., 2016). Throughout, information will be conveyed transparently and authentically with a view to instilling trust. An authentic leadership approach can effectively communicate the need for change and impact readiness because the leader is perceived as genuine (Alavi & Gill, 2017). Gaining trust and confidence, especially of faculty, will enable the implementation of the specific steps in the change process as outlined in the following chapter.

Chapter 2 Conclusion

Schein (2010) notes that "building an effective organization is ultimately a matter of meshing the different subcultures by encouraging the evolution of common goals, common language and common procedures for solving problems" (p. 272). This calls for new symbols that tell a new story of program review, a new culture of program quality, of which both groups can make sense. "When a leader does make a difference, it is by enriching and updating the drama – constructing new myths that alter beliefs and generate faith" (Bolman & Deal, 2013, p. 299). Having a proposed solution in hand that will accomplish this goal, the following chapter outlines a plan for implementing a change process that will bring about the ideal state for Institution X.

Chapter 3: Implementation, Evaluation, and Communication

In the last chapter, I developed a leadership framework for understanding change and analyzing the gaps that exist between the current state at Institution X and the vision for change. A critical organizational analysis revealed incongruence between several organizational components, resulting in a conflict in values, meanings, and beliefs held by faculty and those in use by administration that are embodied in the program review process. I also proposed a solution that would bring together faculty and management cultures through shared accountability and ownership that will enable the college to respond to system level demands for a more rigorous approach to the continuous improvement of its programs. Having outlined a plan for raising awareness among key stakeholders and readying the institution for change, the focus of this final chapter is on formulating a plan for implementing the proposed solution, and monitoring and communicating the change process. I begin by outlining an implementation plan and participation change strategy that is commensurate with faculty culture, distributed leadership practice, and an authentic approach to ethically communicating and leading change. I then explain the tools and measures I will use to assess and evaluate progress and the success of the implementation. Finally, a communication plan based on the stages of Lewin's (1951) change model provides a strategy for communicating the change process to key stakeholders.

Change Implementation Plan

Strategy for change. The change proposed for Institution X is to revamp and enhance program review. As visualized in Figure 3, components of the strategy for change enable each other toward reaching the overarching goal of a process that results in high quality program review reports that align with provincial standards and faculty practice.

The objective is to increase the involvement of faculty in the program review process by

Figure 3. Pyramid representing components of the strategic change plan. Adapted from What's the Difference Between a Goal, Objective, Strategy, and Tactic?, by John Marrinan, 2014, retrieved from http://www.commonbusiness.info/2014/09/whats-the-difference-between-a-goal-objective-strategy-and-tactic/. Copyright 2014 by John Marrinan.

using the strategy of engaging faculty in decision-making around the planning and design of the process and outcomes of the review in a way that recognizes their expertise and aligns with faculty culture. The anticipated result is that faculty will be better able to find meaning in program review and experience a sense of ownership of the process, leading to increased motivation and participation. More meaningful faculty involvement will lead to higher quality analyses of programs and ultimately program improvement. The tactics I will use in cooperation with key stakeholders to carry out the strategy are twofold: (a) convene and co-chair a joint planning committee which, through distributed leadership practice, will collaboratively develop a shared program review framework and quality criteria; and (b) create a Program Review Innovation Fund (PRIF) to support the implementation of recommendations arising from program review that is adjudicated by a committee comprised of faculty.

Compatibility of change goals with the institution's long range strategic plan is key (Mento, Jones, & Dirndorfer, 2002). In this case, the change plan fits well within the context of

Institution X's overall organizational strategy, which is to serve both the economy *and* the community by providing relevant and current programs. While Institution X's basic mission is to prepare students for the workforce, its vision is emancipatory in nature and revolves around an inclusive approach to student success. The change plan brings both of these into vision and focus within the program review process.

A distributed leadership approach also has synergy with the horizontal and transformational leadership styles espoused by leadership, in particular the VPA and President, where empowering and engaging employees through inclusion and ownership is central. I argue that leadership's objective of achieving high employee engagement will require attention to culture and specifically alignment of faculty culture with the formal structure of the organization. For Spillane et al. (2004), distributed leadership is situated in the cultural context in which individuals interact. That is, organizational members make meaning out of their interactions with each other and these interactions are mediated by structures and artifacts that embody leadership practice. Therefore, a hierarchical organizational structure and a program review template focused on a neoliberal view of quality currently constitute what leadership is at Institution X. The change strategy rests on the concept that structure and artifacts are inventions and the meanings they convey are constructed and can therefore be reinvented (Spillane et al., 2004).

Structure. The organizational analysis conducted in Chapter 2 proved that the formal structure at Institution X does not align with the informal structure. With quality standards becoming more prescriptive at the provincial level, the bureaucratic approach taken thus far by management would appear to be a logical solution. The proposed change challenges this assumption, putting forth an alternate response that utilizes distributed leadership to address the internal misalignment of formal systems and processes with faculty culture. By working

collaboratively with others to establish a joint planning committee as shown in Figure 4, I will enable distributed leadership to be practiced through structural relations and institutionalized arrangements (Gronn, 2002). In the practice of distributed leadership "new elements may be

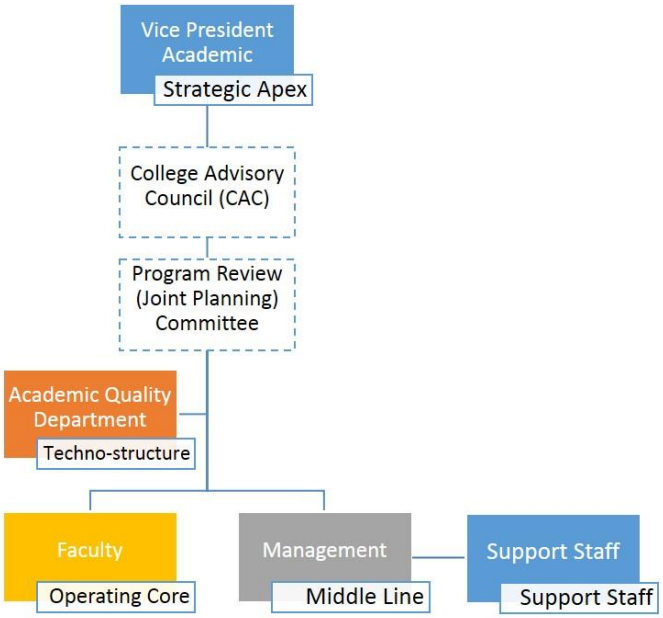

Figure 4. New organizational chart, adapted from Mintzberg's framework of organizational configurations (1979), illustrating the position of the joint planning committee. In comparison with Figure 1, faculty and management are depicted equally in size, influence and position in a flattened hierarchy of distributed leadership. Adapted from Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice, and Leadership, 5th. Ed. (p. 75), by L. G. Bolman and T. E. Deal, 2013, San Francisco: Josey-Bass. Copyright 2013 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

grafted onto existing arrangements or managers may try to regularise *(sic)* informal relations" (Gronn, 2002, p. 431), as is the case with the joint planning committee. Tied into governance and with equal representation of management and faculty through a voting mechanism, the committee's operating guidelines will mitigate the power and influence of management members, ensuring everyone has a voice. The committee will be a mechanism for conjoint leadership activity, incorporated into the college's formal organizational structure.

Artifacts. Like structure, artifacts such as tools and symbols, also mediate the interaction of organizational members (Spillane et al., 2004). Artifacts, such as the definition of quality, and

the language and terminology used to do so, are "externalized representations of ideas and intentions that are constitutive of leadership practice" (p. 23). According to Schein (1996, 2010), new learning may occur in three ways: by words taking on different meanings; by concepts taking on a broader interpretation; and by the use of new standards of judgment. In the context of Institution X, the concept of "quality" is contested between faculty and management. In assigning the committee with the work of developing a shared program review framework, while transparently sharing the need to meet provincial standards, they will collectively redefine quality in a way that provides meaning to both cultural groups. This redefinition of quality would in effect broaden the concepts of leadership and decision-making, making both more distributed and inclusive in nature. Finally, by enacting this distributed approach to the redefinition of quality, the standards by which faculty judge academic quality can be changed to include provincial standards, rendering them meaningful.

Artifacts common to leadership practice include forms, templates, email communications, and policies (e.g., a program review protocol). These artifacts do more than guide the actions of organizational members, they convey and construct shared meanings, beliefs and values about leadership (Spillane et al., 2004). "Hence, the introduction of new tools or artifacts does not merely make the work of leaders more efficient, but can transform the nature of the leadership activity" (p. 21). Enacting the joint planning committee to create new artifacts such as the program review framework, quality criteria and standards, and a report template that reflect both faculty and management values, will change the nature of leadership at Institution X.

Steps for change implementation. In order to see the change implemented, the strategy depicted in Figure 3 must translate into an action plan. Table 2 outlines the steps of the change implementation plan which also acts as a responsibility chart (Cawsey et al., 2016), detailing

who should do what, when, and the deliverables to be produced as a result. Actions to be taken are mapped to Lewin's three-step model (1951) to correspond with the stages of planned change.

Unfreeze. During the unfreezing stage, approval and buy-in must be secured, disconfirming the status quo and opening a space for change. As Director of DAQ, changes to the program review process are within my span of control. By virtue of my title and position I am responsible for evaluating and optimizing the program review process, therefore *positional power* gives me the legitimate authority to initiate this change and carry out the actions listed (Cawsey et al., 2016). However, leveraging formal structures and systems, and gaining the support of senior individuals can help to advance change (Cawsey et al., 2016). Therefore, as noted in Table 2, as a first step I will obtain approval from other senior academic leaders. Having a seat at the Dean's Council, I have direct access to Deans and the VPA and have the *process power* (Hardy, 1994), to put this change initiative before them for consideration. Deans are accustomed to referring to me as the institutional subject matter expert on QA, therefore I can also influence this group through *knowledge power* (Cawsey et al., 2016). Through successive discussions, the power tactic of "using and giving reasons" (Cawsey et al., 2016, p. 189) for the change will likely gain acceptance from this group who, being accountable for program review within their Schools, already have an appetite for improvement.

I will then seek formal approval from the CAC to reconfigure its existing Program Review Committee (PRC) to assume the role of the joint planning committee and in doing so use good process to legitimatize the change proposal (Cawsey et al., 2016). Again, process, positional, and knowledge power provide me with the ability to influence CAC's agenda and initiate change. Additionally, I will enact *meaning power*, the ability to define the meaning of symbols and rituals (Hardy, 1994) with CAC, half of which is comprised of faculty. The shift

from a management-heavy PRC to one in which there is equal representation of faculty and administration will symbolize a move away from hierarchical power and toward the collegium that faculty value. This interpretation of the change, especially in light of the circumstances surrounding the recent faculty strike, will help to secure the critical approval of this body.

The same use of meaning power will be influential with the union executive and the PCC, whose interests are to secure more faculty involvement in college decision-making. While their approval is not required, given the politicized relationship between faculty and management, again, in the wake of the strike, I will seek input and endorsement of the change from these opinion leaders. From an authentic leadership perspective, including these parties in the early stages of change signals my intention to be inclusive and alter the trust relationship between management and faculty.

Change. An inclusive approach is also seen in the development of the joint planning committee. Mento, Jones, and Dirndorfer (2002) state that "a plan that does not solicit input with respect to both the content of the change as well as the process of the change will surely prove to be non-optimal" (p. 51). Striking a committee made up of equal parts faculty and management will provide opportunity for key stakeholders to contribute to both the process and the content of the change. As Cawsey et al. (2016) point out, involving stakeholders in the discussion makes them feel they have been heard and adds veracity to the change initiative in that it has been thoroughly assessed. The committee is therefore both a solution and a *participation and involvement strategy* where participating stakeholders inform the design of the change and are committed to implementing it (Kotter & Schlesinger, 2008). A participative approach to change aligns with distributed leadership practice "as a form of collective agency incorporating the activities of many individuals" (Higgs & Rowland, 2005, p. 14).

As the change stage unfolds, actions will center on bringing the framework developed by the joint planning committee to fruition. After consultations and gaining approvals from relevant stakeholders, the VPA will communicate the final framework process to the academic division via broadcast email. Following this communication, the DAQ team will launch and operationalize the change via workshops, training, and dissemination of the details around the new process. Convening the PRIF committee, which will adopt the new framework into their terms of reference, and issuing a call for proposals will further implement the change.

Refreeze. As the institution refreezes, actions will ensure that the change is embedded in the institution's processes. The PRIF Review Committee will award the first round of funding, and with the support of DAQ through the process, program teams will complete the first cycle of reviews under the new framework, institutionalizing the change.

Table 2

Steps of Change Implementation Plan

Actions	Audience	Responsibility	Deliverables	Timeline
		Unfreeze		
Obtain input and approval for joint planning committee	Senior management; CAC	Director of DAQ	Approval secured	Year 1, Oct – Dec
Secure buy-in for joint planning committee	Program Coordinators Committee; Union executive	Director of DAQ	Endorsement obtained	Year 1, Sept – Dec
		Change		
Convene Joint Planning Committee; reconfigure existing committee	Management and faculty	Director of DAQ	Terms of reference established	Year 1, January
Develop program quality framework	N/A	Joint planning committee	Framework developed	Year 1, Feb-April

Administrative planning	N/A	Director of DAQ	Adjusted timeline and deliverables as needed	Year 1, May-August
Consult on new framework	Senior management; CAC; union executive, PCC	Director of DAQ	Approvals secured	Year 2, Sept - Dec
Communicate final framework and process	Academic division	VPA	College-wide broadcast	Year 2, January
Communicate details of new process	Academic division	Manager of DAQ	Workshops, intranet site	Year 2, Feb-June
Convene faculty PRIF Review Committee	Faculty, administrators	Director of DAQ	Developed TOR	Year 2, May-June
Develop program review training	Program review leads; faculty, Chairs	Manager of DAQ	Resources disseminated	Year 2, May-August
Conduct program review training program and roll-out new process/ framework/criteria	Program review leads; faculty, Chairs	Director of DAQ	80% completion rate 100% of faculty report confidence with new process	Year 3, Sept-June
Launch fund; call out for proposals	Faculty in programs undergoing program review	Director of DAQ	Target 20 innovation project proposals	Year 3, Sept-Dec
		Refreeze		
Adjudication of proposals; award of funding	Faculty in programs undergoing program review	PRIF Review Committee	Target 10 innovation projects funded	Year 3, Jan-April

Completion of first program review cycle	Program review leads; faculty, Chairs	Program review leads; faculty, Chairs	Target 80% submitted on time	Year 3, June

Understanding stakeholder reactions. A participation and involvement strategy lends itself well to understanding stakeholder reactions to change during the implementation process as it is intended to minimize resistance by involving many more people than the change initiator in the design of the change (Kotter & Schlesinger, 2008). By targeting and involving the key stakeholder groups of faculty and management on the joint planning committee, the audience most affected by the change will be able to give feedback, and allow resistance to surface and be dealt with (Mento et al., 2002). As the committee meets monthly, it will act as a focus group for bringing forward concerns. As co-chair of the committee, I will be able to hear regular and immediate feedback directly from the stakeholders, which I can use to guide the committee in adjusting plans accordingly and build suggestions into the developed framework.

As part of the communication process described later, the VPA will hold open houses at which initial stakeholder reactions can be heard, documented, and brought to the committee. At this beginning stage, there will likely be feelings of anxiety among stakeholders, especially faculty, as they wonder how the change will affect them personally. Understanding these feelings provides opportunity to build messages into subsequent communications that will dispel rumours and clarify information. Further, engaging organizational members early in the change process helps to identify potential problems that can be mitigated (Cawsey et al., 2016). As an authentic leader, balanced processing (Walumbwa et al., 2008) is a strategy I use regularly and therefore will respond to issues transparently and am open to making corrective actions that are in the best interest of all stakeholders while ensuring the overall goal is achieved.

This committee's agreed-upon terms of reference, outlining the mandate and responsibilities of members will codify and communicate an authentic approach. During the change process, each member of the committee will have the responsibility to represent his/her constituent groups and utilize existing forums for communication (e.g., faculty meetings, email lists) to discuss the change. Committee members should be able to report any ambivalent or negative reactions to the committee that could influence the course of action. As per the communication plan, I will have regular meetings with the PCC and the union executive, which will provide opportunity to understand the reactions of these important opinion leaders. "If one can look at the positive aspects of resistance to change, by locating its source and motives, it can open further possibilities for realising *(sic)* change" (Mento et al., 2002).

Change champions/team. Cawsey et al. (2016) suggest change be operationalized through a steering team. Further, aligning with distributed leadership practice, Mento et al. (2002) state that a change leader team "can better provide the necessary leadership role than can a single individual" (p. 54). The joint planning committee in effect forms the change leader/steering team, providing advice to me as the change initiator and providing direction for the change in light of diverse institutional priorities (Cawsey et al., 2016). In co-chairing the committee with the union, we will recruit a diversity of members from across the division who will be engaged in the change and empowered to act as change champions.

Among the members of the joint planning committee will be the Manager of DAQ, an ideal choice to collaborate with as primary change champion. Faced with the operational realities of facilitating the review process, he is motivated to seek and support change. Reporting directly to me, we have worked closely together on the program review process and share a commitment to ensuring program quality. Having operational expertise, experience interacting with

stakeholders in the process of completing program reviews, and established relationships with these stakeholders, he is able to initiate action and undertake the work needed to implement the new framework. Importantly, others see this individual as having, the "energy, drive, skills, resilience, credibility, and commitment to make it happen" (Cawsey et al., 2016, p. 279).

"Our views of change are also influenced by the comments and actions of those around us – particularly those whose opinions and relationships we value" (Cawsey et al., 2016, p. 235). Having standing roles for members of the PCC and the union on the joint planning committee will engage and empower them as well as position them to advocate for the change among their peers. Likewise, having Chairs and Deans who support the change as members of the committee will signal to the academic management team that the change is viable. In both cases, stakeholders will be assured there are members on the committee that have their interests in mind as they collaboratively work towards a solution. When the time comes to implement the framework designed by the committee, having been involved in the design of the change, they will be able to authentically champion it among their colleagues.

Supports and resources. One of the strengths of the strategy for change and its implementation is that few additional resources are required. Financial costs are minimal, as the monies that will be put towards the PRIF already exist within DAQ's operational budget over which I have discretion. This budget line item had been reserved for curriculum development innovations but has yet to be dispensed due to the lack of an established framework within which to make funding decisions across a large college with many Schools and programs. The framework created by the joint planning committee will serve this purpose and enable the fair and transparent use of these funds. Further, the allocation of faculty time to conduct complementary (non-teaching) duties each semester is a norm at the college and the Schools can

absorb the complementary hours for faculty to sit on the planning committee/PRC or the PRIF review committee without the need to provide release time or pay part-time faculty to cover teaching duties.

DAQ has an existing staff complement that supports the implementation and facilitation of the current program review process. This team will continue to support and implement the new process, manage logistics, track progress and achievements and make adjustments as needed, negating the need for additional human resources.

Implementation issues. While supports and resources are in place, as with any project, implementation issues may arise. The challenges of devolving administrative duties to faculty present a potential implementation issue. Faculty, as union members, are not accountable in the same way as management. While their participation on the committee will be initiated by expressed interest and is formalized as a work assignment, they can refuse instruction or ignore timelines with little consequence should they feel they have reached the limit of allocated hours or if the tasks exceed what was agreed-upon. In addition, the level of administrative work may seem unappealing or out of their scope and/or capacity. Should this occur, to maintain integrity with the committee's mandate, work will suspend until a new faculty member can join the committee. Collaboration with the union on a selection process for recruiting committee members that makes clear the required skills and performance expectations will mitigate this obstacle. A fair and realistic appraisal of the hours of time required and allocated to faculty will reduce the number of complaints about workload and instances of incomplete tasks.

Building momentum. Given the fact that members of the joint planning committee will be putting in time and effort, and the change effort rests on the work they do, mechanisms must be put in place to build momentum and sustain effort. The steps for implementation outlined in

Table 2 include clear benchmarks that the group will have to work toward: (a) the development of terms of reference within the first month, and (b) drafting of the new program review framework by the end of the first semester. Having these set timeframes will help to create intentional action.

"Real transformation takes time, and a renewal effort risks losing momentum if there are no short-term goals to meet and celebrate" (Kotter, 1995, p. 6). In this multi-year implementation plan, the work of the committee must be recognized to maintain focus on the change, especially in a semester cycle that instils a sense of finality every four months. "It is very difficult to keep the change leader team self-energised *(sic)* if they do not see any tangible benefits corresponding to their level of effort" (Mento et al., 2002, p. 54). The drafting of the framework is a large and important piece of work that the committee will have the opportunity to present to the VPA, followed by a celebratory lunch. As Mento et al. (2002) note, small victories such as this, and a show of appreciation by the VPA will go far in generating the desire to continue the effort into the next semester. As noted in the communications plan (see Table 4), once the draft framework is finalized, the VPA will issue a broadcast email communicating the groundbreaking work of the committee.

Those not on the joint planning committee must also be recognized for their involvement in the expected performance improvements that result from the change (Mento et al., 2002). DAQ will award faculty members who complete the training program with certificates signed by the VPA, signaling the recognition of their participation at the highest level in the academic division. I will ask the VPA to celebrate in a broadcast email the success of the first programs to complete the new process, and I will request Deans and the CAC to invite faculty who were

involved to present on their experience and efforts at meetings, building momentum among others who have yet to be involved in the process.

At the launch of the new process, the PRIF will be introduced simultaneously, providing incentive to those faculty members whose programs are undergoing review to fully participate in the process. I will work with the PRIF Review Committee to profile the successful project proposals through a broadcast email to the academic division and a posting on the college internet and intranet. Making known the implementation of this faculty-adjudicated fund will signal an authentic intent to enact distributed leadership in program review and sustain faculty interest and motivation.

Limitations.

***Implementation strategy*.** Utilizing a committee as the main component of the change plan presents a limitation with respect to time. Kotter and Schlesinger (2008) point out that change strategies that have a high degree of involvement by others call for a much slower change process. However, taking more time to ensure all stakeholders have been involved in the process is necessary when attending to organizational culture. Immediate and short-term goals will be celebrated to mitigate loss of momentum through the extended timeframe.

Kotter and Schlesinger (2008) also state that a participation and involvement strategy demands a less clear plan. In this case, what the actual end product will be is not defined and is dependent on the work of the planning committee. Therefore, the communication plan will impart a shared vision of collaboration and collegiality that appeals to the values, hearts and minds of stakeholders in absence of a pre-defined product. Mento et al. (2002) advocate for a "proper balance between specificity and flexibility" (p. 51) and Kotter and Schlesinger note that this type of strategy will keep resistance to a minimum.

Power dynamics. Resistance is sure to be a factor if faculty feel they have no power. The structure of the joint planning committee will give equal voting rights to all members, reducing "observable and intentionally used authority" (Boonstra & Bennebroek Gravenhorst, 1998, p. 99) by managers with positional authority. However, Boonstra and Bennebroek Gravenhorst (1998) point out that managers hold power that can be less observable. A manager's legitimacy may unconsciously go unquestioned. "Conflict does not arise, demands do not have to be made, and certain actors appear as authorities to whom others voluntarily obey" (pp. 107-108). To mitigate this form of power, I, along with the co-chair, must pay close attention to group process and dynamics that support dialogue and allow the experiences and perceptions of all members to be heard.

Personal bias. My personal bias and my own unconscious use of power may affect the entire process. According to Lewin, a neutral facilitator should help those involved in change to understand how their behaviour is constructed and motivated to avoid coercion and manipulation (Burnes, 2009). Further, it is fundamentally difficult for anyone of the dominant culture not to see other cultures from a deficit perspective (Lumby & Foskett, 2011). To mitigate this I will employ authentic leadership. "An authentic leader has a considerable awareness of his or her personal judgments and biases that enable the leader to have control of his or her thoughts and emotions" (Alavi & Gill, 2017, p. 158). I will maintain a moral perspective and foster a positive ethical climate (Walumbwa et al., 2008) by making my bias explicit and employing balanced processing of information as part of my authentic leadership practice.

Change Process Monitoring and Evaluation

The organizational improvement plan (OIP) will employ the Plan-Do-Study-Act (PDSA) model (The W. Edwards Deming Institute®, 2016) to assess, monitor and evaluate change because of

its extensive use in the development and deployment of quality policies (see Figure 5). It is also chosen because it is "a fundamental concept of continuous improvement processes embedded in the organization's culture" (Sokovic, Pavletic, & Pipan, 2010, p. 483), making it a model for the assumptions that underlie program review. Its simplicity also makes it useful; Institution X has many stakeholders representing over 200 programs, calling for a simple model with broad applicability. The model also easily maps onto the well-known ADDIE (Analyze, Design, Develop, Implement, and Evaluate) model used in curriculum development and instructional design, therefore mimicking an existing quality assurance and academic process with which both DAQ staff and faculty are familiar.

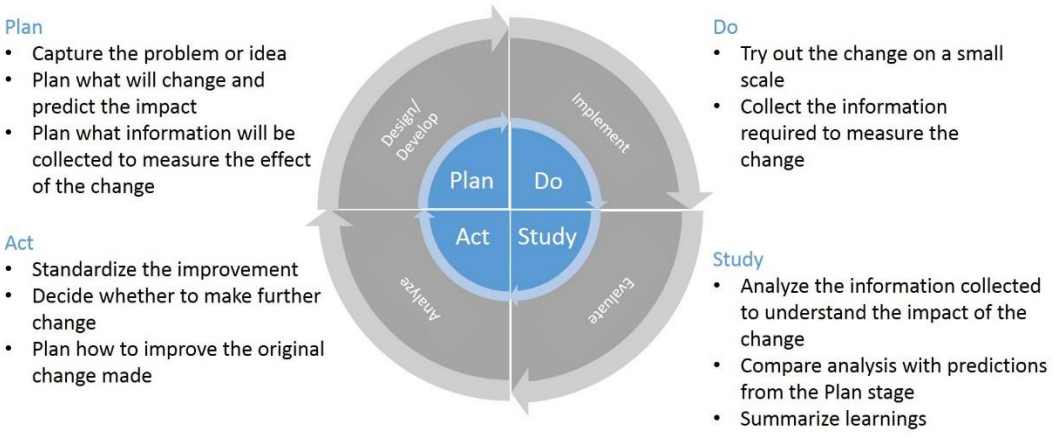

Figure 5. The iterative stages of the PDSA improvement cycle (The W. Edwards Deming Institute®, 2016) mapped onto the ADDIE model. Adapted from CLIC (n.d.).

The *Plan* step involves identifying the metrics that will be used to indicate the intended goal has been reached. These metrics will include: (a) the number of faculty who feel confident and competent to engage in the process, (b) an increase in faculty engagement throughout the review process, (c) an increase in program review completion rates, (d) a decrease in the number of reports returned to reviewers for reworking, (e) satisfaction with the process, (f) an increase in level of faculty engagement, (g) the number of teaching and learning innovation projects

awarded funding, and (h) improved program-level KPI scores. Targets have been chosen based on reasonable and realistic projections of success. These metrics and their measurement are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3

Change Process Monitoring and Evaluation Plan

Outcome	Measure	Tool	Target Metric
Meaningful to faculty	Feedback on training program	Post-training survey	100% report confidence with the new process
Faculty motivation and interest	Faculty involvement throughout process	Mid-cycle reports	75% of reviews on track
Faculty motivation and interest	Report completion rate	DAQ tracking template	80% of reports completed on time
Quality reports	Reports completed according to quality criteria on first submission	PRQ review	80% of reports accepted without return for revision
Satisfaction	Faculty satisfaction with process	Post-cycle survey and focus groups	86% positive feedback
Program improvement	Number of PRIF projects	PRIF proposals	10 PRIF projects funded
Program improvement	Student, graduate and employer satisfaction, graduate employment	KPI Surveys	5% increase in KPIs

In the *Do* stage, DAQ will implement the new program review process and track the mix of quantitative and qualitative data needed to measure the success of the change as outlined in Table 3, starting with the training program. The training program will be crucial in ensuring that Chairs and faculty are aware of their responsibilities, the steps in the process, expectations, as well as motivating them to participate meaningfully. Therefore, DAQ will deploy a post-training

survey measuring their competence and confidence with the process. This data will help to assess the delivery and design of the training program itself and will reveal how relevant the process is to faculty understandings of program quality. It will also provide context in the analysis of subsequent data collected and indicate whether adjustments will have to be made to the plan (e.g., additional training or supports).

DAQ will request program review leads to complete short, non-punitive milestone check-in reports tracking how much of the process has been completed and will track report completion rates in order to gauge faculty involvement, motivation and interest with the new process. Further, faculty responses to a survey upon completion of the program review process will determine if faculty demonstrate positive attitudes about the process. Report quality will measure changes in practice; it is expected that the number of reports returned to faculty for revision due to poor quality will decrease. Finally, the number of program innovation projects that are awarded funding will measure the impact of the revised process on program improvement.

During the *Study* stage, assessments will be made to determine success of the new process and areas for improvement using the data collected. DAQ will collect, collate, and analyze the data, providing overall findings and recommendations to the PRC. During the *Act* step, DAQ can adjust the process based on the learning gathered. With each review cycle, these four steps in the PDSA cycle will be repeated "as part of a never-ending cycle of continual improvement" (The W. Edwards Deming Institute®, 2016) as depicted in Figure 2.

Within the span of the one-year review cycle, lead measures for assessing success of implementation of the new review process itself will be gained. Later, lag measures must also be assessed. The next provincial OCQAS audit (within five years) will serve as an opportunity to assess the success of the revised review process. In addition, after the completion of program

review and any recommended changes to a program have been sufficiently introduced, KPI data, which measures student, graduate and employer satisfaction, as well as graduate employment, will serve as measures of the impact the review process has had on the program quality.

Leadership Ethics and Organizational Change

Lumby and Foskett (2011) argue that when leaders engage in changing organizational culture, they exercise power. By power they mean "the capacity of an individual or group to influence positively or negatively the psychological and material resource of others" (Lumby & Foskett, 2011, p. 447). While I have legitimate positional power that gives me authority to make changes in my organization, cultural change often requires a different kind of power that is less overt and shifts to "the construction of perceptions, values, and norms through management of meaning" (Boonstra & Bennebroek Gravenhorst, 1998, p. 99). Looking at organizational change through a cultural lens, my role as a leader involves utilizing meaning power (Hardy, 1994) to creating a new culture, new artifacts, language, and meanings among organizational members in order to enact change. Lumby and Foskett (2011) warn of the risk of sustaining existing inequities when engaging in cultural change:

> It is difficult for a leader not to operate in a way in which the power relationship of organizational structures and processes are not replicated in the power relationships between cultures and subcultures, with associated risks of reinforcing social difference and existing hegemonies. (p. 452)

These authors suggest that leaders engaging in culture change must think carefully about the relationship between a perspective that views culture from the value base of the dominant group and one that considers the culture of subgroups. The perspective the leader takes can make cultural change either an exercise of moving a deviant group closer to the norm, or a way of

empowering subgroup cultures. By adopting a distributed leadership approach, it is my intention to empower faculty. However, distributed leadership does have limitations, principal among them that it may only create a *sense* of ownership and autonomy, rather than true ownership. Critics claim distributed leadership remains a normative strategy, subtly making QA process more palatable to faculty (Hartley, 2010). "The notion of [distributed leadership] may be invoked by senior managers to encourage engagement and participation in organizational activities while masking substantial imbalances in access to resources and sources of power" (Bolden, 2011, p. 260). With a superficial approach to distributed leadership, faculty will continue to be cast as the problematic group when compared to the norms of management, and under the guise of democracy, power will remain in the hands of the dominant group (Lumby & Foskett, 2011). Distributed leadership then runs the risk of becoming coercive control at a distance.

The change strategy will follow an ethical approach to change promoted by Lewin, whose model of change makes up the framework of this improvement plan. According to Burnes (2009), Lewin believed that successful change could only be achieved "through a democratic-participative learning process where people changed of their own volition rather than by coercion or manipulation" (p. 376). I will attempt to avoid coercion by being self-aware and acknowledging my own biases in order to foster trust between management and faculty. I will approach the change project with transparency regarding expectations and limitations of the initiative and objectives of the joint planning committee's work. I must be clear with the joint planning committee from the start that our work will be shaped to an extent by provincial standards, avoiding the false pretense that any framework the committee imagines would be accepted. Rather, the challenge before the committee will be to find a solution that both serves the interests of faculty and meets the requirements of government with the unified objective of

student success. My authentic leadership approach will not involve obfuscating the reality of the accountability movement, but will invite faculty into the creation of an inclusive, institutional response. I will continue to exercise ethical and authentic leadership through regular and transparent communication with stakeholders, even if the years of tension between management and faculty and their seemingly opposing values and beliefs cause setbacks in the change process. As an authentic leader, I will be able to transfer my true intentions in a transparent and sincere way in order to increase trust (Alavi & Gill, 2017).

Change Process Communication Plan

Kotter (1995) states that one of the reasons organizational transformations fail is under-communication. Change initiators have been considering and planning the change for some time and for them the reasons for change are obvious and clear. However, others in the organization have not been focusing on the change as they have and will have much different perspectives on the matter (Cawsey et al., 2016). At Institution X, faculty are ambivalent as to the importance of the program review process and therefore the need for improvement would be elusive in absence of communication. Table 4 outlines a plan that will be used communicate the change process, including the targeted audiences, the key messages, the medium or method of communication, the communicator and the frequency of delivery.

Table 4

Communication Matrix

What	Who/ Target	Purpose	When/ Frequency	Type/ Method	Respon-sibility
Project status; key decisions	Senior leaders (VPA, Deans)	Update on status and discuss critical issues. Seek approval for changes to implementation. Identify and communicate potential risks and issues that may affect the	Monthly	Meeting	Director of DAQ

		schedule, budget or deliverables			
Project information	All stakeholders	Inform all stakeholders about the change; need and rationale; vision for change	Once	E-mail; intranet; open house; CAC meeting	VPA
Project information	Faculty union; PCC	Keep opinion leaders abreast of relevant information	Monthly	Meeting	VPA; Director of DAQ
Update on Progress	All stakeholders; CAC	Outline benefits; update stakeholders on status and progress; next steps	End of each semester	E-mail; intranet; meeting	VPA
Project status/ schedule	Academic managers	Keep Chairs and Deans up to date on next steps	Monthly	Meeting	Director of DAQ and Manager of DAQ
Notice of deployment	All stakeholders; CAC	Inform all stakeholders about the final process and go-live plan; celebrate success of Joint Planning Committee	Once	E-mail; intranet; meeting	VPA
Deployment information	Department management (Chairs) and faculty; all stakeholders	Review of go-live plan; communicate changes in program review process and procedures, clarify job-related tasks and expectations	As required	E-mail and process documentation; intranet; presentation; live and recorded webinar	Manager of DAQ
Document sharing	Anyone who requests	Central location to house status reports, meeting minutes, project description, and project	As required	Intranet	Director of DAQ and Manager of DAQ

		plan, for any communications that can be shared with all members			
Project success	All stakeholders	Inform on success of first programs undergoing new process; funded Program Review Innovation Fund project	Once	Email; intranet	VPA
Project success	Faculty; CAC	Inform on success and experience with the new process	Bi-monthly; As needed	Meeting	Chairs, program review team

Adapted from "Project Communication Management Plan," by [Institution X], Project Management Centre, 2018, Copyright 2018 by [Institution X].

Table 4 outlines the overarching themes of what needs to be communicated to who, however, specifics of what the messages are for each stakeholder will be different as the change unfolds. "Recipients' understanding and responses to the change will evolve over time as the change unfolds. As a result, the approaches used by change leaders will need to vary over the course of the change process" (Cawsey et al., 2016, p. 222). Klein (1996) suggests developing a communication strategy that coincides with the stages of the planned change, therefore, the process communication plan will map to Lewin's three-step model (1951) of *unfreezing*, *changing* and *refreezing* and the "relevant associated information requirements" (Klein, 1996, p. 36) for each stage. Table 5 provides an overview of the communication needs for each stage.

Table 5

Stages of Change and Communication Needs by Audience

Stakeholder	Unfreeze (Year 1 Sept-Dec)	Change (Year 1	Refreeze
All	Explain issues, needs, rationale	Inform on progress; challenge misconceptions; get input	Publicize success; spread the word

Senior management (Deans)	Identify and explain directives	Develop knowledge; identify issues	Publicize success
Unit supervisors (Chairs)	Identify and explain first few steps; expectations concerning impact on faculty	Develop sophisticated knowledge pertaining to faculty roles and responsibilities	Publicize success
Faculty	Provide expectations concerning personal impact of change; provide reassurance	Disclose relevant personal and job-related information (clarify role and expectations); provide continued reassurance	Publicize and reward success
Opinion leaders (Faculty union executive; Program Coordinators)	Keep abreast of relevant information	Keep abreast of relevant information	Keep abreast of relevant information

Adapted from "A Management Communication Strategy for Change," by S. M. Klein, 1996, *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 9(2)*, p. 37. Copyright 1996 by MCB University Press.

As seen in Table 5, different stakeholders have different needs with respect to communication about the change. The change process communication plan outlines the focus and strategy of the overall communications efforts that will be used to keep stakeholders informed and committed during each stage of change.

Communication when unfreezing. During the unfreezing stage, the focus of communication will be readying the organization for change. Connecting to the plan to communicate the need for change in Chapter 2, at this stage the organizational objective is to build awareness by explaining issues and conveying a compelling rationale for change. The first steps toward change should be relayed and organizational members must be reassured that they will be treated fairly through the change process (Cawsey et al., 2016; Klein, 1996).

Communicating the need for change. The awareness for change occurs when the balance of driving and restraining forces that make up the organization's quasi-stationary equilibrium is upset (Schein, 1996), in other words, by challenging the status quo. This will be done by communicating the rationale for change with what Schein (1996) calls disconfirming information. As recommended by Klein (1996) and noted in Table 4, the first communication about the need for change that challenges the status quo will come from the senior-most manager of the division, the VPA. As Klein (1996) notes, "communiqués from those in authority carry both practical and symbolic weight" (p. 35). Further, Judge and Douglas (2009) found trusted and credible senior leadership to be a dimension of an organization's capacity to change.

As recommended by Klein (1996), this first communication of the rationale for change, crafted with my support, will occur in written form, via broadcast email, followed by an open house meeting, co-hosted with me, at which any organizational member can ask questions and provide feedback so that communication is multidirectional. I will also ensure the message is communicated in person by the VPA at the CAC, reaching representatives from across the college. The college has a well-established intranet site to which organizational members are routinely directed for internal information. As discussed in Table 4, the Manager of DAQ and I will create a central webpage on the intranet for document sharing. Here, the initial announcement and any further communications, feedback and frequently asked questions gleaned from the open house, steps and timelines for the change process, and supporting information and data (such the relationship between program improvements and program review) can be published.

Pull tactics. In Chapter 2, I discussed that the change at Institution X will be what Nadler and Tushman (1989) call a *reorientation*. Organizational reorientation requires a strong vision

that symbolizes the identity of the organization. *Pull tactics* that are "characterized by organizational visions of higher-order purposes" (Cawsey et al., 2016, p. 270) can pull willing employees to the change. The VPA's messages and subsequent communications will convey a vision of change focused on what faculty percieve to be the true purpose of education—providing high quality education to students and enabling their success. Looking forward to a program review model that will make the most of faculty expertise and be meaningful to them will capture the hearts and motivations of the faculty (Cawsey et al., 2016). This vision will be communicated in the VPA's broadcast and during the open houses.

***Responding to stakeholder reactions*.** Each stakeholder group will have different concerns and reactions to the change as noted in Chapter 2 (see Table 1). By anticipating these reactions, and potential resistance, I can best deal with these responses through meetings conducted with each stakeholder group. Further, Klein (1996) suggests that subsequent to the stage setting conducted by the senior-most unit leader, meetings are carried out by unit supervisors. As shown in Table 4, I will conduct monthly meetings with Deans, and along with the Manager of DAQ, with Chairs, addressing their concerns and informing them of the steps that will be taken to ensure that they are equipped to hold departmental meetings with faculty and can confidently reinforce the need for change, relay the process and answer questions. By leveraging regular monthly meetings with the union President and the VPA, and the PCC and myself, opinion leaders will be kept abreast of relevant information.

Communication when changing. During the change stage, the focus of communications should be on providing updates, obtaining feedback and challenging misconceptions (Cawsey et al., 2016). At this stage, conceptualizations of the change are becoming a reality (Klein, 1996). Organizational members will be poised to determine whether there will be follow-through on the

commitments made, especially the commitment of including faculty in the process, or whether this is yet another case of lip service that to be added to the folklore. Authentic leadership, and the integrity, honesty, follow-through and transparency that are its hallmarks, is crucial through this phase in order to secure faculty trust in management and the change process.

Providing specifics and dispelling rumours. As implementation begins, activity will be focused on convening the joint planning committee as well as the PRIF Review Committee. While those involved on these committees will be aware of what is happening, others in the institution will not. Early stages of the changing phase should involve providing those not yet directly involved with accurate information about what is occurring and how they will be affected by the change in the future (Klein, 1996). There may be rumours among faculty that a new program review process is being developed absent their input. Cynicism around who has been selected to participate in these committees is likely to emerge. Responding to feedback brought to the committee through its members via and email broadcast and posting on the college intranet will give clarity and dispel rumours around the process and who is involved. Faculty must be made aware that their colleagues are involved and the process by which the selection of members was made. Communications will reiterate the objective of convening the joint committee, as well as the objective of the change process overall.

It is rarely enough for executives to express their support at the launch of a change initiative alone. Rather, periodic supporting statements are needed to reiterate management's support for the change (Klein, 1996). This communication will therefore come from the VPA to faculty and management, to indicate ongoing support at the highest level of the division. This will also provide Deans and Chairs with an awareness of what is happening, enabling these individuals to reinforce the message with their staff and faculty groups.

Participation and involvement. One of the objectives of communication through the change phase is to obtain feedback. Goodman and Truss (2004) note the importance of viewing communication as a two-way process of "feedback and iteration so that communication strategies are continually updated and refined to ensure maximum employee awareness and commitment" (p. 225). This approach aligns with the participation and involvement change strategy (Kotter & Schlesinger, 2008) that will be employed and a distributed leadership approach. Faculty involved in the change process through participation on the joint planning committee will provide feedback from this group's perspective on the effect of the process, providing opportunity to modify and adjust the plan as needed (Klein, 1996).

Reporting on progress. I will give monthly updates at meetings, taking advantage of already established venues such as the monthly meeting of academic managers and PCC meetings, and the VPA will keep the union abreast of progress at their monthly meetings (see Table 4).

By the end of the first semester of the change stage, the college community will want to know what progress has been made over the past four months. At this point, another email broadcast from the VPA will give an account of the work of the joint planning committee thus far and further steps that will be taken. Agreement on a new framework between two groups that have traditionally been at odds with each other will be a major and definitive milestone in the process, which will be communicated and celebrated. Likewise, progress on the establishment of the PRIF will be provided, with the guidelines and procedures for the fund and a call-out for applications to follow.

Should the committees be on track with established timelines, this communication will provide the community with a sense of confidence in the change process and that the intention to

change was authentic. However, confidence can also be reached even when things have not gone as well as originally hoped by owning up to any delays or challenges faced during the process. Given the ingrained lack of trust between faculty and management and heightened awareness of issues related to faculty autonomy because of the 2017 strike, it is possible that agreement will not be reached easily. Transparent communication, as a part of authentic leadership, will be exercised through honest communication with stakeholders, even in times of failure. Alavi and Gill (2017) suggest that even when failure occurs, hope, optimism, self-efficacy, and resilience of followers developed through authentic leadership may help sustain focus on change processes until completion.

As more information becomes known, supervisors should disclose relevant job-related information and the effects on individuals' roles to faculty (Klein, 1996). Once the new framework is ready to be implemented, the Manager of DAQ will provide specific information on tasks, roles, and responsibilities as the new program review process goes live by way of face-to-face meetings, first with academic managers (see Table 4). Further, a face-to-face orientation session and live webinar will target those who will be involved in the next cycle of program review but will also be open to the whole community. A recording of the webinar will be posted on the intranet site, which is accessible to all employees.

At face-to-face department meetings, usually occurring twice per semester, Chairs will be instructed to provide relevant details about the changes and what the new process will mean for individuals' jobs and workloads. As Klein (1996) notes, the most immediate supervisor is a key communicator. While the messages from the VPA will symbolize the importance of the change and the Manager of DAQ will provide needed details as the facilitator of the centralized process, faculty will expect to receive information or directives with respect to their job duties from their

direct manager. Therefore, by keeping Chairs, as first level supervisors, informed of the rationale, progress and specifics of the change via monthly academic managers' meetings, it is likely that faculty will also be well informed (Klein, 1996).

Communication when refreezing. During the refreezing stage, the success of the change must be celebrated (Cawsey et al., 2016). As shown in Table 4, an email broadcast and write-up on the intranet will profile the first group of programs to go through the new review process. Testimonials from faculty involved in the review process will provide credibility to the change. Opportunities to nominate and recognize the work of the joint planning committee via existing college awards will publicize the success of the change. Program review reports are regularly presented to the CAC, offering an opportunity to highlight the changes in the process to representatives of different groups across the college. The projects that have been awarded funds from the new PRIF will be profiled on the college internet as well as through broadcast email from me to the academic division.

As the change process moves into the refreezing stage, the burden of communication begins to shift from senior leadership to supervisory management (Klein, 1996). Chairs will continue to concretize the change by reporting on the program review process at regular department meetings. Some faculty will now have first-hand experience with the change and at these meetings can share with others the impact the change has had on them personally.

At this final stage of the change process, people will be comfortable with the new process, institutionalizing the change in college structure and procedures. Most importantly, the new process will create a cultural change in which faculty and management bring their previously bifurcated cultures and perceptions of quality together under a united vision for program improvement and student success.

Chapter 3 Conclusion

Implementing a cultural change is an exercise in constructing meaning. The change implementation plan outlined here provides opportunity to change the narratives that organizational members hold about quality and leadership at Institution X. Through symbols such as a joint committee, and artifacts such as a new program review framework and report template, a narrative can be told of distributed leadership practice that promotes an inclusive and united vision of quality. “New narratives stimulate new meanings which in turn will allow previously impossible or incompatible actions to be seen as not only possible, but long overdue” (Bushe & Marshak, 2016, p. 46). A participation and involvement change strategy, enacted through distributed leadership practice and implemented authentically, has the potential to bring together the values and knowledge of two historically competing cultures at Institution X in the pursuit of quality.

Future Considerations

Change often occurs at the periphery or edge of a system in isolation of the main body (Higgs & Rowland, 2005). While I have argued for the importance and urgency of a change in the program review process for the success of the institution, this is but one process among many at work in the college. The practice of distributed leadership and a positive change in the relationship between faculty and management groups may run the risk of remaining isolated within the scope of the program review process. Affecting successful change in only one area can detract from the overall value of the improvement in the effectiveness of the institution (Kang, 2015). The conflict between faculty and management cultures, the impact of neoliberalism, and hierarchical leadership practices extend beyond program review to other QA processes at the college. Therefore, next steps and future considerations should focus on exploring how cultural change seen in this initiative can influence positive change in other areas of the institution, beginning with QA practices such as curriculum development and assessment. As Lumby and Foskett (2011) state, the cross-fertilization of ideas within different areas of the organization is important to retention and sustainable change.

Understanding how this organizational change is situated in and impacts the broader context also warrants future consideration. Authors (Lumby and Foskett, 2011; Shore and Wright, 2000; Strathern, 2000) claim that neoliberal government policies in many jurisdictions have affected a subversive change in consciousness that embeds

> a new culture that utilizes revised ways of thinking about students as customers, communities as markets, and leaders as enacting nationally designated standards. As a result, without necessarily making a conscious choice to do so, we continue to use the same language to describe schools and colleges, learners and educators, even though the

> leadership in question may actually be based on quite different values to previous eras. School leaders have been implicated in this cultural change, yet may have been engaged in it without seeing the larger scale ideological cultural project they have been instrumental in delivering. (Lumby & Foskett, 2011)

Despite the fact that distributed leadership is seen as a means of furthering democracy (Mayrowetz, 2008), it is unlikely that this OIP will lead to macro-structural changes that may remedy the adversarial relationship between faculty and management. However, the OIP gives a nod to critical and conflict theories, bringing to light the dominant neoliberal ideology that underlies faculty and management interaction with a view to challenging traditional notions of hierarchical leadership at the local level. Indeed, this OIP has been constructed to be narrow in focus on a specific organizational problem within the scope of my leadership and realistic in execution. Yet it is also meant to contribute more broadly to a growing body of practice and society. Challenging hierarchical leadership and interrogating the definition of quality contributes to a broader ideological interrogation that would affect the entire institution and potentially shape meaning for faculty and management in a way that optimizes Institution X's ability to respond ethically to the demands of the higher education environment.

References

Alavi, S. B., & Gill, C. (2017). Leading change authentically: How authentic leaders influence follower responses to complex change. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 24*(2), 157-171. doi:10.1177/1548051816664681

Allaire, Y., & Firsirotu, M. E. (1984). Theories of organizational culture. *Organization Studies, 5*(3), 193-226. doi:10.1177/017084068400500301

Anderson, G. (2006). Assuring quality/resisting quality assurance: Academics' responses to "quality" in some Australian universities. *Quality in Higher Education, 12*(2), 161-173.

Argyris, C. (1976). Single-loop and double-loop models in research on decision making. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 21*(3), 363-375. doi:10.2307/2391848

Armenakis, A. A., Harris, S. G., & Field, H. S. (1999). Making change permanent: A model for institutionalizing change interventions. In W. Passmore, & R. Woodman (Eds.), *Research in organizational change and development* (pp. 289-319). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Armenakis, A., Harris, S., & Mossholder, K. (1993). Creating readiness for organizational change. *Human Relations 46*(6), 681-703. doi:10.1177/001872679304600601

Arns, R. G., & Poland, W. (1980). Changing the university through program review. *Journal of Higher Education, 51*(3), 268-284. doi:10.2307/1981009

Arvast, A. (2006). From community to commodity college: Globalization, neoliberalism and the new Ontario college curricula. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy, 50*, 1-21.

Author. (2015). [Citation information withheld for anonymization purposes.].

Author. (2016). [Citation information withheld for anonymization purposes.].

Banta, T. W., & Palomba, C. A. (2015). *Assessment essentials: Planning, implementing, and improving assessment in higher education* (2nd. ed.). Somerset: Jossey-Bass.

Barak, R. J. (1982). *Program review in higher education: Within and without.* Boulder, CO: National Center for Higher Education Managment Systems, Inc.

Barak, R. J., & Sweeney, J. D. (1995). Academic program review in planning, budgeting, and assessment. *New Directions for Institutional Research, 1995*(86), 3-17. doi:10.1002/ir.37019958602

Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformation leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational Dynamics, 18*(3), 19-31. doi:10.1016/0090-2616(90)90061-S

Basu, R. (2004). The rationalization of neoliberalism in Ontario's public education system, 1995–2000. *Geoforum, 35*(5), 621-634. doi:10.1016/j.geoforum.2004.03.003

Bennett, N., Wise, C., Woods, P. A., & Harvey, J. A. (2003). *Distributed leadership.* Nottingham: National College for School Leadership.

Blackmore, J. (2013). A feminist critical perspective on educational leadership. *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 16*(2), 139-154. doi:10.1080/13603124.2012.754057

Bligh, M. C. (2017). Leadership and trust. In J. Marques, & S. Dhiman (Eds.), *Leadership today.* Springer International Publishing. doi:10.1007/978-3-319-31036-7_2

Bolden, R. (2011). Distributed leadership in organizations: A review of theory and research. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 13*, 251-269. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2370.2011.00306.x

Bolden, R., Petrov, G., & Gosling, J. (2009). Distributed leadership in higher education: Rhetoric and reality. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 37*(2), 257–277. doi:10.1177/1741143208100301

Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (2013). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership* (5th ed.). San Francisco: Josey-Bass.

Boonstra, J. J., & Bennebroek Gravenhorst, K. M. (1998). Power dynamics and organizational change: A comparison of perspectives. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 7*(2), 97-120. doi:10.1080/135943298398826

Bresciani, M. J. (2006). *Outcomes-based academic and co-curricular program review: A compilation of insitutional best practices.* Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing.

Bresciani, M. J. (2011). Identifying barriers in implementing outcomes-based assessment program review: A grounded theory analysis. *Research & Practice in Assessment, 6*(1), 5-16.

Burnes, B. (2004). Kurt Lewin and the planned approach to change: A re-appraisal. *Journal of Management Studies, 41*(6), 977-1002. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6486.2004.00463.x

Burnes, B. (2009). Reflections: Ethics and organizational change - Time for a return to Lewinian values. *Journal of Change Management, 9*(4), 359-381. doi:10.1080/14697010903360558

Bushe, G. R., & Marshak, R. J. (2016). The dialogic mindset: Leading emergent change in a complex world. *Organization Development Journal, 34*(1), 37-65.

Carasco-Saul, M., Kim, W., & Kim, T. (2015). Leadership and employee engagement: Proposing research agendas through a review of literature. *Human Resource Development Review, 14*(1), 38-63. doi:10.1177/1534484314560406

Cawsey, T. F., Deszca, G., & Ingols, C. (2016). *Organizational change: An action-oriented toolkit* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Cheng, M. (2010). Audit cultures and quality assurance mechanisms in England: A study of their perceived impact on the work of academics. *Teaching in Higher Education, 15*(3), 259-271. doi:10.1080/13562511003740817

Clark, I. D., Moran, G., Skolnik, M. L., & Trick, D. (2009). *Academic transformation: The forces reshaping higher education in Ontario.* Montreal and Kingston: Queen's Policy Study Series, McGill-Queen's University Press.

CLIC. (n.d.). *Cumbria Production System toolkit*. Retrieved from http://www.theclic.org.uk/cumbria-production-system/toolkit-2/summary/module-1/1-1-plan-do-study-act

Conference Board of Canada. (2013, June). *The need to make skills work: The cost of Ontario's skills gap.* Retrieved from Conference Board of Canada: http://www.collegesontario.org/Need_to_Make_Skills_Work_Report_June_2013.pdf

Conrad, C. F., & Wilson, R. F. (1985). *Academic program reviews: Institutional approaches, expectations, and controversies.* ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 5. Washington, DC: Association for the Study of Higher Education.

Cranton, P. A., & Legge, L. H. (1978). Program evaluation in higher education. *The Journal of Higher Education, 49*(5), 464-471. doi:10.2307/1980510

Cresswell, J. W. (2013). *Research design: Qualitive, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

CultureUniversity.com. (2014, March 10). *Culture, leadership and humble inquiry from Edgar Schein [Video]*. Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7MwebWXtKBs

Davis, W. G. (1967, June). Statement by the minister in legislature, May 21, 1965. *Basic documents relating to colleges of applied arts and technology,* 5-16. Ontario Department of Education.

Dennison, J. D. (1995). Community college development in Canada since 1985. In J. D. Dennison (Ed.), *Challenge and opportunity: Canada's community colleges at the crossroads* (pp. 13-104). Vancouver, BC: UBC Press.

Dennison, J. D. (1995b). Accountability: Mission impossible? In J. D. Dennison (Ed.), *Challenge and opportunity: Canada's community colleges at the crossroads* (pp. 220-242). Vancouver: UBC Press.

Drew, G. (2010). Issues and challenges in higher education leadership: Engaging for change. *The Australian Educational Researcher, 37*(3), 57-76. doi:10.1007/BF03216930

Dugan, R. E. (2004). Institutional perspectives. In P. Hernon, & R. E. Dugan (Eds.), *Outcomes assessment in higher education: Views and perspectives* (pp. 235-246). Westport, CT: Libraries Unlimited.

Elliott, G. (2015). Critical practice leadership in post-compulsory education. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 43*(2), 308-322. doi:10.1177/1741143213494891

Emil, S., & Cress, C. (2014). Faculty perspectives on programme curricular assessment: Individual and institutional characteristics that influence participation engagement. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 39*(5), 531–552. doi:10.1080/02602938.2013.855998

Faculty of Education, Western University. (2017, March). *Doctor of Education (EdD) Organizational Improvement Plan (OIP): Culminating research-informed document.* London: Western University.

Gardner, D. E. (1977). Five evaluation frameworks: Implications for decision making in higher education. *The Journal of Higher Education, 48*(5), 571-593. doi:10.2307/1981598

Geertz, C. (1973). *An interpretation of cultures: Selected essays.* New York: Basic Books.

George, B. (2003). *Authentic leadership: Rediscovering the secrets to creating lasting value.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Ghanbari, M. (2014, June 16). *Business goals vs. objectives vs. strategies vs. tactics*. Retrieved from LinkedIn: https://www.linkedin.com/pulse/20140616055721-142774715-business-goals-vs-objectives-vs-strategies-vs-tactics/

Goodman, J., & Truss, C. (2004, September). The medium and the message: Communicating effectively during a major change initiative. *Journal of Change Management, 4*(3), 217-228. doi:10.1080/1469701042000255392

Greenfield, T. B. (1973). Organizations as social inventions: Rethinking assumptions about change. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 9*(5), 551-574.

Gronn, P. (2000). Distributed properties: A new architecture for leadership. *Educational Management & Administration, 28*(3), 317–338. doi:10.1177/0263211X000283006

Gronn, P. (2002). Distributed leadership as a unit of analysis. *The Leadership Quarterly, 13*, 423–451. doi:10.1016/S1048-9843(02)00120-0

Gronn, P. (2010). Leadership: Its genealogy, configuration and trajectory. *Journal of Educational Administration and History, 42*(4), 405-435. doi:10.1080/00220620.2010.492959

Hardy, C. (1994). Power and organizational development: A framework for organizational change. *Journal of General Management, 20*(2), 29-41. doi:10.1177/030630709402000203

Harley, S. (2002). The impact of research selectivity on academic work and identity in UK universities. *Studies in Higher Education, 27*(2), 187-205.

Hartley, D. (2010). Paradigms: How far does research in distributed leadership stretch? *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 38*(3), 271–285. doi:10.1177/1741143209359716

Higgs, M., & Rowland, D. (2005). All changes great and small: Exploring approaches to change and its leadership. *Journal of Change Management, 5*(2), 121-151. doi:10.1080=14697010500082902

Hoecht, A. (2006). Quality assurance in UK higher education: Issues of trust, control, professional autonomy and accountability. *Higher Education, 51*, 541-563. doi:10.1007/s10734-004-2533-2

Hoey, J. J. (1995a). Organizational factors in program review. *New Directions for Institutional Research, 1995*(86), 37-47. doi:10.1002/ir.37019958604

Hoey, J. J. (1995b). Impact of program review on community colleges. *New Directions for Institutional Research, 1995*(86), 49-59. doi:10.1002/ir.37019958605

Insitution X. (n.d.-b). *Statement of diversity*. Retrieved from [Institution website]

Institution X. (2012). *CPQR - 2012 stakeholder review for improvements.*

Institution X. (n.d.-a). *Mission and vision*. Retrieved from [Institution website]

Judge, W., & Douglas, T. (2009). Organizational change capacity: The systematic development of a scale. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 22*(6), 635-649. doi:10.1108/09534810910997041

Kang, S. (2015). Change management: Term confusion and new classifications. *Performance Improvement, 54*(3), 26-32. doi:10.1002/pfi.21466

Kaplan, W. (2017, December 20). Kaplan award in the matter of the Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology Labour Dispute Resolution Act, 2017. Toronto, Ontario.

Katz, S., & Dack, L. A. (2013). *Intentional interruption: Breaking down learning barriers to transform professional practice.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Klein, S. M. (1996). A management communication strategy for change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 9*(2), 32-46. doi:10.1108/09534819610113720

Kotter, J. P. (1995, March-April). Leading change: Why transformation efforts fail. *Harvard Business Review*, pp. 1-9.

Kotter, J. P., & Schlesinger, L. A. (2008). Choosing strategies for change. *Harvard Business Review, 86*(7,8), 130-139.

Langley, G. J., Moen, R. D., Nolan, K. M., Nolan, T. W., Norman, C. L., & Provost, L. P. (2009). *The improvement guide: A practical approach to enhancing organizational performance* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Levin, J. S. (1995). The challenge of leadership. In J. D. Dennison (Ed.), *Challenge and opportunity: Canada's community colleges at the crossroads* (pp. 105-120). Vancouver: UBC Press.

Levin, J. S., & Dennison, J. D. (1989). Responsiveness and renewal in Canada's communicy colleges: A study of organizations. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education, 19*(2), 41-57.

Lewin, K. (1951). *Field theory in social science.* New York: Harper and Row.

Lumby, J., & Foskett, N. (2011). Power, risk, and utility: Interpreting the landscape of culture in educational leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 47*(3), 446–461. doi:10.1177/0013161X11400187

Mack, L. (2010). The philosophical underpinning of educational research. *Polyglossia, 19*, 5-11. Retrieved from http://en.apu.ac.jp/rcaps/uploads/fckeditor/publications/polyglossia/Polyglossia_V19_Lindsay.pdf

MacKay, K. (2014). *Report of education in Ontario colleges.* Toronto: OPSEU Communications.

MacKay, K. (2017, June 7). *Collegial governance in Ontario colleges: The time is now*. Retrieved from OPSEU College Faculty: https://opseu.org/news/collegial-governance-ontario-colleges-time-now

Manning, K. (2013). *Organizational theory in higher education.* New York: Routledge.

Marrinan, J. (2014, September 29). *What's the difference between a goal, objective, strategy, and tactic?* Retrieved from Common Business: http://www.commonbusiness.info/2014/09/whats-the-difference-between-a-goal-objective-strategy-and-tactic/

Marshak, R. J. (2013). The controversy over diagnosis in contemporary organization development. *OD Practitioner, 45*(1), 54-59.

Maslow, A. H. (1987). *Motivation and personality* (3rd ed.). New York: Harper and Row.

Mayrowetz, D. (2008). Making sense of distributed leadership: Exploring the multiple usages of the concept in the field. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 44*(3), 424–35. doi:10.1177/0013161X07309480

McGregor, D. (2006). *The human side of enterprise, annotated edition.* New York: McGraw-Hill Education.

McLean & Company. (2011). *Make the case for employee engagement.* Retrieved from McLean & Company: https://hr.mcleanco.com/research/ss/hr-make-the-case-for-employee-engagement

Mento, A., Jones, R., & Dirndorfer, W. (2002). A change management process: Grounded in both theory and practice. *Journal of Change Management, 3*(1), 45-59. doi:10.1080/714042520

Mets, L. A. (1995a). Program review in academic departments. *New Directions for Institutional Research, 1995*(86), 19-36. doi:10.1002/ir.37019958603

Mets, L. A. (1995b). Lessons learned from program review experiences. *New Directions for Institutional Research, 1995*(86), 81-92. doi:10.1002/ir.37019958608

Meyerson, D., & Martin, J. (1987). Cultural change: An interaction of three different views. *Journal of Management Studies, 24*(6), 623-647. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6486.1987.tb00466.x

Miller, D. (2010). Successful change leaders: What makes them? What do they do that is different? *Journal of Change Management, 2*(4), 359-368. doi:10.1080/714042515

Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities. (1990). *Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology - Boards of Governors and Council of Regents (R.R.O. 1990, Reg. 770), Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities Act, R.S.O. 1990, c. M.19*. Retrieved from Government of Ontario Laws: https://www.ontario.ca/laws/regulation/900770

Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities. (2009). *Framework for Programs of Instruction Minister's binding policy directive.* Retrieved from MTCU Postsecondary Education Partners' Gateway: http://www.tcu.gov.on.ca/pepg/audiences/colleges/

Mintzberg, H. (1979). *The structuring of organizations.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Morgan, G. (2006). *Images of organization.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Morley, L. (2003). *Quality and power in higher education.* Berkshire: Open University Press.

Nadler, D. A., & Tushman, M. L. (1980). A model for diagnosing organizational behavior. *Organizational Dynamics, 9*(2), 35-51. doi:10.1016/0090-2616(80)90039-X

Nadler, D. A., & Tushman, M. L. (1989). Organizational frame bending: Principles for managing reorientation. *Academy of Management Executive, 3*(3), 194-204. doi:10.5465/AME.1989.4274738

Niesche, R., & Gowlett, C. (2015). Advocating post-structuralist politics for educational leadership. *Educational Philosophy and Theory, 47*(4), 372-386. doi:10.1080/00131857.2014.976930

Northouse, P. G. (2016). *Leadership: Theory and Practice* (7th Ed.). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Olssen, M., & Peters, M. A. (2005). Neoliberalism, higher education and the knowledge economy: From the free market to knowledge capitalism. *Journal of Education Policy, 20*(3), 313-345. doi:10.1080/02680930500108718

Ontario College Quality Assurance Service. (n.d.). *About CQAAP*. Retrieved from Ontario College Quality Assurance Service: http://www.ocqas.org/quality-assurance/about-cqaap/

OPSEU [Local Chapter]. (2015). [Citation information witheld for anonymization purposes.].

OPSEU. (2017). *Union team calls on faculty to reject colleges' offer*. Retrieved from Ontario Public Service Employees Union: https://opseu.org/news/union-team-calls-faculty-reject-colleges-offer

Owen, S. L. (1995). Organizational culture and community colleges. In J. D. Dennison (Ed.), *Challenge and opportunity: Canada's community colleges at the crossroads* (pp. 141-168). Vancouver: UBC Press.

Palanski, M. E., & Yammarino, F. J. (2009). Integrity and leadership: A multi-level conceptual framework. *The Leadership Quarterly, 20*, 405–420.

Popli, S., & Rizvi, I. A. (2016). Drivers of employee engagement: The role of leadership style. *Global Business Review, 17*(4), 965–979. doi:10.1177/0972150916645701

Power, M. (1996). *The audit explosion.* London: Demos.

Power, M. (1997). *The audit society rituals of verification.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Program Review Working Group for the Heads of Quality Management. (2016). *Provincial scan of program review practices.*

Ryan, J. (2006). Inclusive leadership and social justice in schools. *Leadership and Policy in Schools, 5*, 3-17. doi:10.1080/15700760500483995

Sattler, P. (2012). Education governance reform in Ontario: Neoliberalism in context. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy, 128*, 1-28.

Schein, E. H. (1996). Kurt Lewin's change theory in the field and in the classroom: Notes toward a model of managed learning. *Systems Practice*, *9*(1), 27-47. doi:10.1007/BF02173417

Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organizational culture and leadership* (4th ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schein, E. H. (2017). *Organizational Culture and Leadership* (5th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Shore, C., & Wright, S. (2000). Coercive accountability: The rise of audit culture in higher education. In M. Strathern (Ed.), *Audit cultures: Anthropological studies in accountability, ethics and the academy* (pp. 57-89). London: Routledge.

Skolnik, M. L. (1988). The evolution of relations between management and faculty in Ontario Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology. *The Canadian Journal of Higher Education, 18*(3), 83-112.

Skolnik, M. L. (1989). How academic program review can foster intellectual conformity and stifle diversity of thought and method. *The Journal of Higher Education, 60*(6), 619-643. doi:10.2307/1981945

Skolnik, M. L. (2010). Quality assurance in higher education as a political process. *Higher Education Management and Policy, 22*(1), 1-20. doi:10.1787/17269822

Smircich, L. (1983). Concepts of culture and organizational analysis. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 28*(3), 339-358. doi:10.2307/2392246

Sokovic, M., Pavletic, D., & Pipan, K. K. (2010). Quality improvement methodologies – PDCA Cycle, RADAR Matrix, DMAIC and DFSS. *Journal of Achievements in Materials and Manufacturing Engineering, 43*(1), 476-483.

Spillane, J. P. (2005). Distributed leadership. *The Educational Forum, 69*(2), 143-150. doi:10.1080/00131720508984678

Spillane, J. P., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J. B. (2004). Towards a theory of leadership practice: A distributed perspective. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 36*(1), 3-34, doi:10.1080/0022027032000106726

Strathern, M. (2000). Introduction: New accountabilities. In M. Strathern (Ed.), *Audit cultures: Anthropological studies in accountability, ethics and the academy* (pp. 1-18). London: Routledge.

Taubman, P. (2014). The art of the impossible: Professional study and the making of teachers. *English Journal, 103*(6), 14-19.

The W. Edwards Deming Institute®. (2016). *PDSA Cycle*. Retrieved from The W. Edwards Deming Institute®: https://deming.org/management-system/pdsacycle

Walumbwa, F. O., Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Wernsing, T. S., & Peterson, S. J. (2008). Authentic leadership: Development and validation of a theory-based measure. *Journal of Management, 34*(1), 89-126. doi:10.1177/0149206307308913

Weick, K. E., & Quinn, R. E. (1999). Organizational change and development. *Annual Review of Psychology, 50*(1), 361-386. doi:10.1146/annurev.psych.50.1.361

Welbourne, T. M., & Schlachter, S. (2014). *Engaged in what? Creating connections to performance through rewards, recognition and roles.* The Incentive Research Foundation.

Welsh, J. F., & Metcalf, J. (2003). Cultivating faculty support for institutional effectiveness activities: Benchmarking best practices. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 28*(1), 33-45.

Appendix A

Table A1

Readiness-for-Change Questionnaire

Readiness Dimensions	Readiness Score
Previous change experiences	
1. Has the organization had generally positive experiences with change?	0
2. Has the organization had recent failure experiences with change?	0
3. What is the mood of the organization: upbeat and positive?	1
4. What is the mood of the organization: negative and cynical?	-2
5. Does the organization appear to be resting on its laurels?	0
Executive support	
6. Are senior managers directly involved in sponsoring the change?	1
7. Is there a clear picture of the future?	.5
8. Is executive success dependent on the change occurring?	1
9. Has management ever demonstrated a lack of support?	0
Credible leadership and change champions	
10. Are senior leaders in the organization trusted?	.5
11. Are senior leaders able to credibly show others how to achieve their collective goals?	1
12. Is the organization able to attract and retain capable and respected change champions?	2
13. Are middle managers able to effectively link senior managers with the rest of the organization?	.5
14. Are senior leaders likely to view the proposed change as generally appropriate for the organization?	2
15. Will the proposed change be viewed as needed by the senior leaders?	2

Openness to change	
16. Does the organization have scanning mechanisms to monitor the environment?	1
17. Is there a culture of scanning and paying attention to those scans?	.5
18. Does the organization have the ability to focus on root causes and recognize interdependence both inside and outside the organization's boundaries?	0
19. Does "turf" protection exist in the organization?	-1
20. Are the senior managers hidebound or locked into the use of past strategies, approaches, and solutions?	0
21. Are employees able to constructively voice their concerns or support?	0
22. Is conflict dealt with openly, with a focus on resolution?	1
23. Is conflict suppressed and smoothed over?	-1
24. Does the organization have a culture that is innovative and encourages innovative activities?	1
25. Does the organization have communications channels to work effectively in all directions?	0
26. Will the proposed change be viewed as generally appropriate for the organization by those not in senior leadership roles?	1
27. Will the proposed change be viewed as needed by those not in senior leadership roles?	1
28. Do those who will be affected believe they have the energy needed to undertake the change?	0
29. Do those who will be affected believe there will be access to sufficient resources to support the change?	0
Rewards for Change	
30. Does the reward system value innovation and change?	0
31. Does the reward system focus exclusively on short-term results?	0
32. Are people censured for attempting change and failing?	0

Measures or change and accountability	
33. Are there good measures available for assessing the need for change and tracking progress?	1
34. Does the organization attend to the data that it collects?	.5
35. Does the organization measure and evaluate customer satisfaction?	1
36. Is the organization able to carefully steward resources and successfully meet predetermined deadlines?	1
	16.5

Note. Scores can range from -10 to +35. The higher the score, the more ready the organization is for change. If the organization scores below 10, it is not likely ready for change. Institution X's score indicates it is likely ready for change, however the score is low and therefore readiness needs to be improved. Adapted from *Organizational Change: An Action-Oriented Toolkit, 3rd. Ed.* (pp. 108-110), by T. F. Cawsey, G. Deszca, and C. Ingols, 2016, Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.