

Innovative Management Education Pedagogies for Preparing Next- Generation Leaders

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Chapter 6

Effective Change in Educational Institutions: Does the Construct of Power Influence Management and Leadership Models in Everyday Professional Practice?

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ABSTRACT

This chapter discusses the theoretical framework of management and leadership of change, focusing on the construct of power in educational institutions. Managers and leaders in educational institutions can adopt different models to apply change in the existing organisational procedures. According to the model they follow, they use their power differently. This chapter argues that the manner managers and leaders utilise their power strongly influences effective organisational change and their role in the organisation. Relevant managerial and leadership models of change are analysed in relation to different forms of power, with regard to the theoretical and research literature. The argument is further illuminated with a change event in a school in Greece in order to create a link between theory and everyday practice.

INTRODUCTION

Change is an important element of success in educational institutions and involves effective models of management and leadership. Effective management and leadership of change requires a number of elements of good practice, including planning skills, financial administration, vision etc. The construct of

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power is a cornerstone of effective management and leadership of change, influencing many of these practices. It negotiates significant aspects of people's performance and attitude towards organizational activities. Knights and Roberts (1982) support this, denoting that managers and personnel commonly interpret the issue of power mistakenly, as they fail to realize that power is expressed more in the relationship among humans rather than the individual actions of managers.

This chapter analyses the different models of management and leadership of change, with particular focus on the concept of power. Drawing on theoretical and research literature, it discusses in which way power can contribute to management and leadership procedures of change within educational institutions. It is argued that power holds vital ground in both management and leadership roles, and effective organizational change. An apt example is used to illustrate this argument and link theory to practice, concerning a change event in a case study conducted in Greece. This shows how a newly *appointed manager* failed to establish organizational change effectively due to her misuse of power but also highlights the way a teacher belonging to a lower rank of staff, became an actual leader.

The following section 2 analyses the theoretical framework of management and leadership of change, with particular emphasis on the aspect of power. Section 3 continues to illuminate the literature with an example of a change event in a school in Greece. Section 4 summarizes the discussion before drawing relevant conclusions.

MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP OF CHANGE: THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This section presents the theoretical approaches that managers and leaders can use to achieve change within educational organizations. The particular focus of these models is on the aspect of power and how the different forms of power affect organizational change.

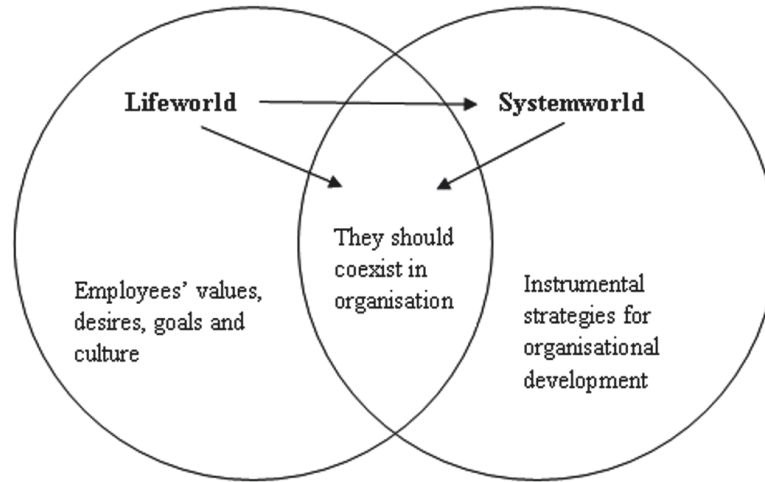
Management in Educational Institutions

Management is strongly related to coordinating multiple aspects of organizations. People in positions of authority are responsible for the well-being of employees, the general organization's performance and the ability to overcome whatever obstacles may hamper the organization's success. English (2008) supports this, maintaining that management links to the decisions and actions of people with high hierarchical employment.

Implementing academic managerial knowledge towards change, in a real life work environment, can be challenging and demanding. Knights and Willmott (1999) emphasize that guru guides and management text books are inclined to generate a negative and removed stance towards organizational activities. Some years later, Fullan (2003) agreed with this, highlighting that although management gurus may present a remedy from a difficult situation, they result commonly in the non-desired condition, especially when considerations such as local context and culture are not taken into account.

Effective managers show concern for employees rather than solely focusing on organizational procedures. Habermas (cited in Sergiovanni, 2003) responded to Knights's and Willmott's (1999) and Fullan's (2003) concerns, by demonstrating the two different worlds that cohabite within organizations. For this, he divides the organization into two (see Figure 1). The *lifeworld* represents the employees' values, desires, goals and culture. The *systemworld* includes instrumental strategies, necessary for the

Figure 1. Habermas' lifeworld and systemworld



organizational development. He argued that these two worlds should co-exist in harmony and their relationship should be mutually beneficial because it allows managers to maintain a good relationship with employees. *Lifeworld* should be the vital force that directs *systemworld* and not the opposite. According to Habermas (cited in Sergiovanni, 2003), if the *systemworld* governs within the organization, there is a *colonization* of the *systemworld* and the *lifeworld* is marginalized leaving minimal space for employees' creativity and initiatives. In such an incident there is an erosion of the organizational character.

In relation to the strategy that managers follow towards *lifeworld* and *systemworld*, they can be categorized differently. According to Taylor (cited in Crawford, 2003), in *scientific management* employees are treated like machines and the focus is on the governance of staff which is obliged to practice management correctly management directions and resolutions. This type of management is strongly related to Habermas's (cited in Sergiovanni, 2003) *colonization*, as it is a mechanistic way of implementing managerial instructions. Crawford (2003) further categorizes managerial roles in a more *humanistic approach*, where there is greater emphasis on motivating employees to exercise organizational tasks rather than implying punishments as in *scientific management*. This angle of managerial role is correlated with Habermas's (cited in Sergiovanni, 2003) effective approach of *lifeworld*, as managers consider seriously employees' perspectives and needs.

In support of the existing variety of management models there are some key features that contribute to successful management procedures of change. Organizations are complex systems with more than just two sides of the coin and thus, managers should adopt different approaches according to the relevant condition in order to accomplish change successfully. Crawford (2003) proposes that people with positions of authority should visualize organizations in different frames and attempt to combine and communicate them. Such a practice will enable them to confront these organizational complexities. *The structural frame* is centralized in the adoption of organizational techniques. *The human resource frame* includes humans' relationships within the organization. *The political frame* focuses on the negotiation among teams in order to form organizational ideas. *The symbolic frame* utilizes various symbols to trigger employees' attention.

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Further to Crawford's (2003) different frames, an effective manager should establish an atmosphere of trust in educational institutes to implement successfully directions towards change. Snair (2003) supports this, by denoting that management should create a link within the professional team. This can be maintained when managers listen actively to employees, as this practice improves managers' ability to overcome difficulties within organizations. He indicates that when point of views are communicated from employees to managers and from managers to employees, there are better opportunities to resolve potential issues and problems at an early stage.

This leads us to suggest that management within educational institutes is not a straightforward issue, as there are multiple aspects that surround management in the social world. Furthermore, the transfer from academic management theory to everyday practice is a challenging and demanding procedure with complex and different parameters to negotiate.

Having analyzed the theoretical framework of managerial practice of change, there is a clear need to also discuss the issue of leadership, as it is an important aspect of effective management.

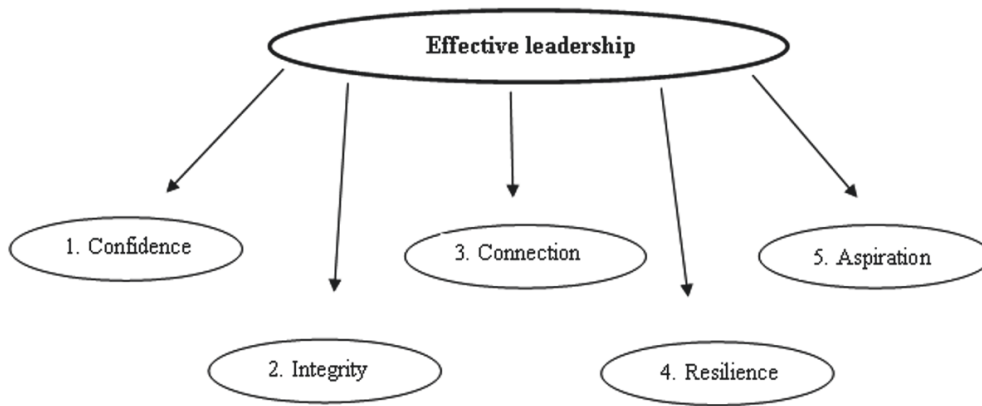
Leadership in Educational Institutions

Are leaders born or made? There is a great dispute in the scientific field of management and leadership relating to whether leaders have specific genetic inborn attributes or they gain these characteristics through their life experience and stimuli. Horner (2003) and Grint (2003) endorse that leaders were born and their success is ascribed to their individual innate characteristics. According to this perspective, there are no specific training techniques that educators can teach to people to become leaders because it is a matter of their inborn personalities. On the other hand, some years later, English (2008) strongly disagreed with this, arguing that leaders come to this world like everyone else. He stated that leaders were born with the same physical characteristics as all people, like one head, two feet, one nose etc. and that after birth there are various stimuli that contribute to create their personalities. It has to be acknowledged that both views have vital aspects of truth. Children's environment plays an important role to their attitude but there are also issues of genetic attributes which are inherited from parents. Although the definition of leaders according to their background or personality is an interesting matter, as Jackson and Parry (2008) note, it does not enable us to determine leaders' qualifications.

Jackson and Parry (2008) identify five important qualities that enhance effective leaders to implement organizational change (see Figure 2). *Confidence* generates the fundamental context to maintain leaders to their position. *Integrity* enables leaders to verify their values. *Connection* is the capacity to communicate these values to the followers. *Resilience* aids leaders to meet setbacks and pressure successfully. *Aspiration* is the most important attribute because if a leader does not have the ability to aspire followers to change their strategies, he/she does not have either the ability to lead.

Horner (2003) supplements this, stating that effective leaders should focus on the cultural issues of employees and organization. Therefore, leaders should relate their strategies to the individual culture of employees and the general culture of the context that surrounds the organization in order to achieve change successfully. Leadership exists when there are followers to believe in the leader's ideas and perspectives. Grint (2003) indicates correctly that leaders should have a persuasive background of their past and their present, which mirrors their future performance. English (2008) agrees with Grint (2003), recognizing that the implementation of leadership in educational institutions involves rhetoric. It should also be stated that when rhetoric is used appropriately, it establishes a leader's worth and vision to his followers.

Figure 2. Five important qualities of effective leadership



Leaders’ rhetoric should create a visionary and ideal context in which each employee desires to participate and acquire its general identity. According to Sergiovanni (2003), the sentiment of being a member and appertain to a common community holds fundamental ground in people’s lives. Bennett (2003) adds that this participation to the common context should be decided with liberty. This mutual community is correlated with Jackson’s and Parry’s (2008) quality of *connection*. When leaders have the ability to communicate their objectives, employees are triggered to follow them and practice directions efficiently towards change.

Further to the previous perspectives, leadership has also been classified according to leaders’ approach towards employees. According to Gill (2006) and Jackson and Parry (2008), *transactional leadership* is linked to guideline approaches, where leaders are concerned with performance strategies and utilize rewards to award compliance. On the other hand, they note that *transformational leadership* motivates employees to outreach their own limits for the general benefit of the organization. Gill (2006) and Jackson and Parry (2008) comment that *transformational leaders* are characterized by four attributes. In *the individual consideration*, leaders are active listeners to employees’ concerns and identify the individuals’ capacities. In *the intellectual stimulation*, they promote creativity and they challenge employees to reconsider new outlooks. In *the inspirational motivation*, leaders relate individuals’ goals to organizational goals and challenge employees to contemplate obstacles as opportunities to expand their learning range. In *the idealized influence*, leaders take personal responsibility for their practice exhibiting trust and insistence. It can be argued that both leadership models promote effective change in the organizational context but *transformational leadership* maybe more effective from *transactional leadership*, as the former rely on the employees’ personal motivation. Gill (2006:51) supports this, recognizing that “while this can result in short-term achievement, it runs the risk of stifling human development, with consequential loss of competitive advantage”. In other words, *transactional leadership* promotes rapid results because the employees’ response to rewards is quicker but it is hazardous in terms of discouraging people’s personal development and creativity.

The analysis of leadership models and perspectives guide us to suggest that there is a distinct difference between managers’ and leaders’ role. Gill (2006) states that managers distribute, utilize and control organizational resources whereas leaders inspire, motivate and communicate these resources to employees. It is desirable but not always feasible for a manager to be also a leader. One main argument

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is that employees follow managers because they have specific orders to do it but they follow leaders because they are stimulated by their free will. Crawford (2003) emphasizes that “inventive management” and “wise leadership” should be conceptualized as a mutual entity and not considered as distinct aspects. She supplements that management and leadership should be distinguished where appropriate because leadership represents only one point of view of management. Some years later, English (2008) supported this, noting that management and leadership cohabit in the organizational context as in order for someone to be able to lead an organization, he first has to manage it. However, it is not always the case that people in managerial positions hold also a leaders’ role. Managers and leaders may be two different persons and sometimes the leader may be somebody in a lower hierarchical position from the manager.

Having discussed the general theoretical framework of management and leadership of change in educational organizations, there is a need to analyze further and with more details the concept of organizational change and discuss the similarities and differences between academic and corporate organizations.

The Concept of Organizational Change in Education

There are many definitions that exist for organizational change or organizational development. Cummings (2005) defined organizational development as: “a system-wide process of applying behavioral-science knowledge to the planned change and development of the strategies, design components, and processes that enable organizations to be effective” (p. 5). Some years later, Juma (2014) further defined organizational change as: “both the process in which an organization changes its structure, strategies, operational methods, technologies, or organizational culture to affect change within the organization and the effects of these changes on the organization. Organizational change can be continuous or occur for distinct periods of time” (p. 2).

The major areas of changes in a company’s internal environment include (Cliffsnotes, 2014):

- **Strategic Changes:** They may involve changing company’s fundamental approach to doing business: the markets it will target, the kinds of products it will sell, how they will be sold, its overall strategic orientation, the level of global activity, and its various partnerships and other joint-business arrangements.
- **Structural Changes:** They may involve the hierarchy of authority, goals, structural characteristics, administrative procedures, and management systems.
- **Process-Oriented Changes:** They may involve changes in organization’s production process or how the organization assembles products or delivers services. The adoption of robotics in a manufacturing plant or of laser-scanning checkout systems at supermarkets are examples of process-oriented changes.
- **People-Centered Changes:** They may involve changes in attitudes, behaviors, skills, or performance of employees in the company. More specifically they may involve changes in communicating, motivating, leading, and interacting within groups. They may involve changing how problems are solved, the way employees learn new skills, and even the very nature of how employees perceive themselves, their jobs, and the organization.

Comparing the different kinds of organizations with a focus on change, it can be argued there are some common areas among them but there are also some significant points of difference.

Focusing on academic and corporate organization, it is obvious that there are many similarities between them. Organizations need to incorporate some degree of change in order to thrive, mainly due to changes in technology. An organization can be defined as an administration and functional structure. It can be inferred that both higher learning institutions and companies both fall under this definition (Bernard, 2012). Both universities and factories are systems that focus on production, which have similar mechanisms. These mechanisms are machines procedures, raw resources, processing, production control systems with different roles and experience levels. Linking these arguments to a practical example, a factory can produce different styles, qualities and colors of various materials and students can registered to different courses, modules, labs which can be comparable to a machine process that results to different programs of study, degrees and the quality of students is defined by their grades. It can be argued that, as Bernard (2012) claims, these similarities can be translated that the methods that are used in the management of change in corporation can also be found in a university.

On the other had there are also some differences between these two organizations. The major difference between an academic and a corporate organization has to do with the type of employees and their hierarchy (Bernard, 2012). In the case of a university, the employees are academic or administrative staff like adjunct and visiting professors or lecturers, instructors, assistant professors, associate professors, professors, researchers and registry officers. However, in the case or corporations there is a defined and clear hierarchy of management, which enables the management team to address changes and await to be put to practice.

Focusing further on academic institutions, it is obvious that examples of organizational changes could be seen in changes on curriculum. These might be to focus more around principles such as bridging theory with practice and use more project-based undergraduate curriculum. Projects like Interactive Qualifying Project (IQP) and Major Qualifying Project (MQP) could be added as graduation requirements for all undergraduate students and are some practical examples in organizational change in universities. Discussing the practical outcomes of such actions, it is a fact that their purpose is to supplement the academic knowledge with practical skills and enable students to gain experience and insights in real situations that could encounter as professionals.

Proceeding with these arguments, according to Ferlie et al. (1996) and McNulty and Ferlie (2004), in a public service organization, such as a public educational institution, there are certain criteria that have to be fulfilled in order to formulate a completed organizational transformation. These criteria are:

- Interrelated change on the system level;
- The creation of new organizational forms;
- The creation of a new organizational culture and ideology;
- Interrelated changes that have an impact on the organizational and individual level;
- The reconfiguration of power relationships within the organization;
- Changes in the services provided; and
- The models of delivering.

In an example derived from the literature regarding Dutch higher education, de Boer et al. (2007), formulated a set of indicators taken from Brunsson and Sahlin-Andersson (2000), who propose a number of indicators for organizational transformation in Higher education. They consisted of 3 main concepts identity, hierarchy and rationality. Under:

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1. **Identity:**
 - a. **Constructing Boundaries:** Defining own activities, environments and organizational boundaries, Defining relations with other organizations (competitors, partners) and government (sponsor, customer), Establishing contracts between upper and lower levels, Having legal 'independency'
 - b. **Controlling Collective Resources:** Commanding entry and exit, Having financial discretion (e.g. block grants and diversification of funding base), Employing your own staff and setting labor conditions, Defining cost-benefit centers as owners of resources, Having a special task, purpose, competence, resources, structure, way of working, or representing special ideas.
 - c. **Being Special as an Organization:** Marketing profiles through logos and (new) brand names, Emphasizing differences between your organization and others.
2. **Hierarchy:**
 - a. **Central Coordination and Control:** Organizing hierarchies in layers of 'leaders and led', Authoritative center directs action, Planned action guided by organizational policies, and Attributing achievements to the whole
 - b. **Allocating Responsibility:** Identifying units/individuals as being in control and bearing responsibility, Assigning more responsibility to leaders and Accounting to superior (hierarchy) or external stakeholders
 - c. **Constructing Management (Control-Oriented):** Chief executives are not professional bureaucrats (civil servants) but managers, Creating managerial discretion (freeing managers to manage) and strong organizational leadership, Establishing management teams, Creating new middle management positions and Management as a career qualification and career path.
3. **Rationality:**
 - a. **Setting Objectives:** Setting single or limited number of goals, Separating services in units and Management-by-objectives (internal and external)
 - b. **Measuring Results:** Registration of results, Accounting for actions (systematic connection between goals and actions), Expectations to be efficient, Benchmarking, Support by management accounting techniques (financial as well as performance related), Assigning numerical values (detailed performance indicators) and Performance agreements and, consequently, frequently monitoring.

Having discussed the general theoretical framework of management and leadership of change in educational organizations and further discuss the concept of change in organization, a clear need is raised to specify their role towards the construct of power. What we need now is to discuss in detail the theoretical and research literature relating to this construct within the organizational context.

The Construct of Power within Management and Leadership of Change

Power is a vital element which enables people with authority to implement their ideas. Gill (2006) suggests that managers can stimulate employees by utilizing multiple types of power. With this power, managers have the capacity to change employees' performance and perspectives towards organizational tasks. To achieve this influence, the issue of communicating ideas is extremely important. Coombs *et al.* (1992) emphasize that information is strongly related to power. Further to this, Knights and Willmott (1999) demonstrate that when employees understand deeply given information, they participate actively

in organizational activities. This communication provides managers and leaders the desirable power to practice their outlooks and accomplish organizational change (Wenger, 2004).

In contrast with this communicative perspective, power has been perceived with a more controlling attribute. Luke (cited in Knight and Willmott, 1999) endorses a traditional aspect of power, by defining it as the way people determine reality in order to control meaning in people without power. He proposes a three-dimensional model of power. In *dimension 1*, power is being practiced to safeguard organizational resolutions and avoid disagreement; in *dimension 2*, power is being used to include or exclude decisions and make controversies unnoticed and in *dimension 3*, people in positions of authority define reality towards employees. It can be argued that Luke's thoughts of power are a pivotal tool to overcome obstacles and keep safe organizational objectives when managers and leaders want to implement change. However, it is not linked to Habermas's (see section 2.1) suggestions relating to *lifeworld*, as it represents a mechanistic way of exercising and enacting decisions and thus, does not result in effective management and leadership processes of change.

A further categorization of power has been formed according to managers' and leaders' attitude. Raven and French (1958) demonstrate five different types of power. *Legitimate power* is correlated with authority and with the view that managers or leaders have a legitimate right to force employees to act in specific ways. *Coercive power* is associated with authority and managers or leaders use penalties when employees are not conformed to organizational objectives. *Reward power* is practiced when managers or leaders award employees who complied with organizational directions. *Referent power* is linked to managers' or leaders' recognition from employees, based on their personal characteristics. *Expert power* is related to managers' and leaders' mastery over a specific knowledge or ability. People with positions of authority should be very careful in the type of power they use as according to the situation they might have different outcomes from those they expect. Gill (2006) recognizes that when managers or leaders utilize power based on authority, like legitimate and coercive power, they tend to generate conformation and unwillingness rather than engagement. He supplements that effective leaders rarely use coercive power, as it has provisional outcomes and creates negative emotions.

The construct of power has been further examined by researchers within institutions as a very important parameter in the organizational change. French and Raven (*see below*) have been two of the very early and basic researchers that examined this construct concluding that when managers or leaders use power that is based on authority do not always achieve their goals successfully.

The work of French and Raven (1958) verifies the important contribution of power to management and leadership of change. They investigated the effects of different forms of power on employees' attitude and hypothesized that people with higher group support and higher perceived legitimate position will better implement organizational change. They included 56 female undergraduates, who were categorized into small teams of five to eight people for a two-hour task. In these groups, two participants were hired and behaved like the others. Each group participated in a team activity, where the participants were allocated an individual part of the team activity and worked in separate rooms. In order to coordinate their work, participants elected anonymously a supervisor. In half of the groups, the supervisor visited the participants and supported them, by concerning about their performance and possible difficulties. The rest of the groups received a visit from a person that was not the elected supervisor. After the completion of the task, each participant completed a questionnaire and participated in an interview. The results indicated that group support was associated positively with perceived legitimacy of the supervisor's position. The researchers concluded that compliance is likely the proper way to communicate disagreement when communication is impeded.

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It has to be acknowledged that this paper has some strengths in its methods. The researchers operationalized legitimate power and group support, manipulating skillfully the participants and leaving tiny possibilities to understand the experimenters' true intentions. The researchers also used triangulating techniques to investigate the effects of different forms of power. It can be argued that the number of the participants was limited because the initial sample was divided in further groups. However, the intervention time was adequate to reveal the true reactions and feelings of the participants and thus, to support the findings. This study could be benefitted if there were also male participants in the sample in order to compare the possible different effects of power on genders. French's and Raven's (1958) study gives us important information about the effects of power on people's behavior, which is useful to managers and leaders who want to implement change successfully.

Raven and French (1958) supplemented their previous study (French and Raven, 1958), also supporting Gill's (2006) suggestions of the effects of certain forms of power. Raven and French (1958) explored the impact of legitimate power towards group support on an election procedure. Their purpose was to compare the effects of legitimate power with the effects of coercive power. They hypothesized that legitimate power will promote positive feelings towards the supervisor while the individual who implements coercive power will be less accepted. They included 114 female undergraduates and classified them in groups of five to eleven people. In these groups, three participants were hired and behaved like the others. Each group was allocated a team task and members were assigned a part of the final task, working in separate rooms. Speed and accuracy of their work was extremely important. Participants voted for a supervisor to coordinate their work and the experimenter presented the one paid participant as the elected supervisor. In half of the groups, the supervisor supported the group members whereas in the rest of the groups she did not support the group members. The supervisor evaluated the members' speed and accuracy in a nine-point scale. Participants also rated their performance without disclosing their perceptions to their supervisor. In half of the groups, the supervisor had the right to apply fines when participants did not comply with the task directions. At the end of the experiment each member participated in an interview and completed a questionnaire. Like their previous study (see French and Raven, 1958), the data analysis indicated that the legitimacy of supervisor's position was related strongly to group support. The supervisor's legitimate right to request specific outcomes was correlated positively with participants who believed they had the appropriate supervisor. Coercive power was associated negatively with private acceptance of influence and personal attraction.

This study has a great strength in terms of its research procedure. The researchers investigated multiple aspects of their hypothesis and utilized both quantitative and qualitative measures to compare their findings. The initial sample was divided in four different groups and thus, it can be argued that the final number of the subgroups was limited. However, the research procedure was adequate to provide the real attitudes of the participants towards the several stimuli, as they had enough time to be familiar with the different forms of power. Raven's and French's (1958) study confirms the negative impact of coercive power on organizational change and employees' attitude.

Having analyzed the concept of power within management and leadership of change, in the next section we will focus this concept on educational institutions.

The Construct of Power in Educational Institutions

The issue of power could concern many aspects of their operation and impact on many levels of hierarchy especially in higher level educational activities. It may concern e.g. the power exerted by the owner of a private educational institution upon its academic leaders, the power used by the latter upon the program

leaders responsibilities, the power of program leaders exerted upon lecturers' teaching and learning activities and the power exerted by lecturers and tutors upon students learning effort. Finally, the power exerted by the various levels of hierarchy to their lower levels of the administrative personnel. It can be crucial for the normal operation of the educational activities the way that the power on all these levels is used. The owner of the institution or even the academic leader could either discuss and formulate together with program leaders the constructive alignment of teaching methods and assessments of the programs to the intended learning outcomes or let them apply already the decided curriculums. The program leaders could take into consideration the style and the potentials of the teaching staff as well as the learning style of the cohort of the students in deciding the methods of delivering learning and the assessments involved. Their use of power could take into consideration what will be the consequences for the achievement of the learning outcomes the correct balance between formative and summative assessments and between assignments and exams and these should be discussed with those employees who know better the people who are to learn and the people who are to provide learning.

There are also various concepts of powers which a manager or a leader in an educational institution can exert. According to Hoy and Tarter (2011) the following concepts can be cited

- “The power of perception” which consists of the way a problem is framed. A manager leader can broaden the context, can use multiple perspectives, and can reframe the problem in novel contexts.
- “The power of simplification” can be considered as providing decision makers a good way of solving complex problems by identifying the core ideas of complex events.
- “The power of decisiveness” consists of the ability to take action. The golden edge should be found between decisive action and reflective analysis in favor of action.
- “The power of deadlines” is closely related to the power of decisiveness by imposing structure and deadlines for teachers and administrators.
- “The power of norms” which “tap into and use the social norms of the group and avoid market norms”.
- “The power of ownership” which make teaching staff owners of innovative ideas.
- “The power of emotional expectation” i.e. the way do we handle others and ourselves under intense emotional stress in the event of a crisis.

To summarize briefly, in the previous sections, there was an analysis of the theoretical background relating to management and leadership of change with the focus on the issue of power and examples were given for educational institutions. In the following section, we will link theory to everyday practice, describing an example of a change event from a case study in a school in Greece. It should not be neglected that this is not evidence of systematic research but just an example of a case study in order to illustrate the theoretical framework.

ILLUMINATING THE THEORY WITH AN EXAMPLE OF A CHANGE EVENT

This section illustrates the literature relating to management and leadership of change with an example of a change event in a school in Greece which is highly linked with the theoretical framework that was discussed in the previous sections. Incidents of management and leadership of change can be found in this case study and also the concept of power and power misuse within the described educational

institution and case study. This example mirrors how a newly *assigned manager* failed to accomplish organizational change effectively due to her misuse of power and how a *teacher* in a lower hierarchical position became a leader.

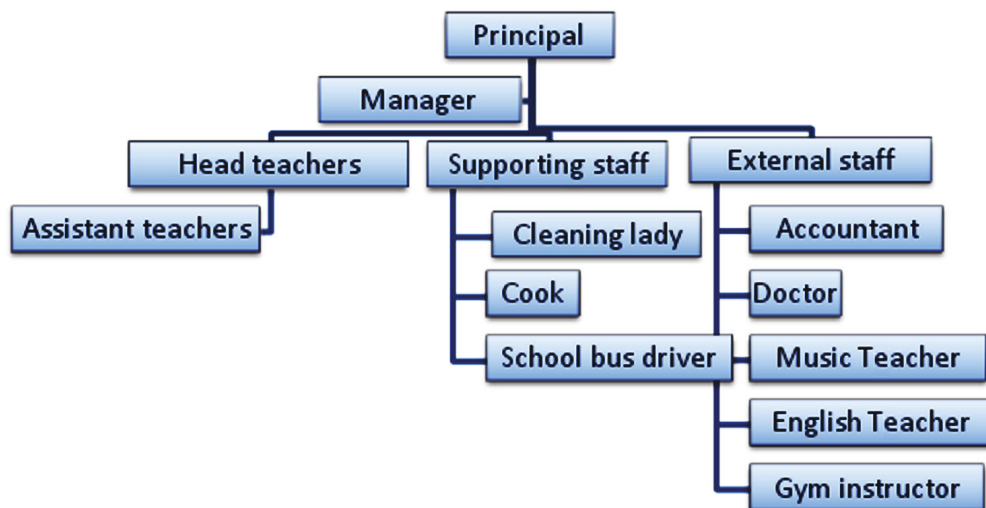
The Case Study

The case study is from a private school in the Early Years settings in Attica in Greece, in which parents should pay monthly tuition fees. This school is in a middle class area and offers a lot of extra curriculum activities to its students such as music lessons, English lessons, gymnastics and swimming lessons. It accommodates approximately 100 2-year-old to 6-year-old children and offers breakfast and lunch as well as school bus for students' transportation from their home to the school and vice versa. It has 5 classrooms with one head teacher and one assistant teacher in each class and age group. All assistant teachers held an IVT diploma in Infant and Child Care and Education and all head teachers held a Bachelor degree in Early Childhood Studies and most of them also held a Master's degree in Social Sciences.

Regarding the school's ethos and procedures, all assistant teachers reported directly to the head teachers of each class and all head teachers reported directly to the owner of the school who was also the principal of the school. There was weekly and monthly meetings among the team and with the principal of the school in order to discuss all matters arising regarding the everyday curriculum, activities and school development. Apart from the teaching staff, there is also a cleaning lady, a cook and a school bus driver as supporting staff and external staff such as an accountant, a doctor, a music teacher, an English teacher and a gym instructor who also reported directly to the principal of the school (see Figure 3). Most of the staff was working there for the last 5 years and there were extremely satisfied with their working environment, conditions and job responsibilities.

After 50 years of successful operation, this school gained a very good reputation about its proper organizational environment, its excellent teaching techniques, its outstanding students' performance, its high standards of quality and its continuous development. The students' numbers enrolling every

Figure 3. School hierarchy



year were increased as an outcome of its good reputation. As a development procedure, the principal of the school decided that the school needs a manager who could support the teaching and external staff in their everyday practice, give advice about Early Years curriculum and assist teachers with children with learning difficulties or challenging behavior. This manager could also supervise the supporting staff and be responsible for the smooth operation of the school. As part of the development process, all employees would report directly to the newly appointed manager and the manager would report directly to the principal. In practice this meant that the procedures of the school changed as the teaching, supporting and external staff would not have the opportunity to discuss with the principal of the school, a person who trust and felt comfortable to discuss the matters arising in everyday practice but this would be only through the newly appointed manager. The principal of the school decided to hire an external manager instead of promoting one the existing teaching staff, who knew better the school philosophy and procedures. The principal took this decision because he wanted to avoid discrimination among the teaching team.

This newly appointed manager was very welcome from the personnel of the school at the beginning and it was a point of celebration. However, in a short period of time because of her misuse of her role she managed to reverse this and establish a not effective and efficient collaboration with the team of the school. Being more specific she did not try to know personally the school's staff, their needs, their abilities and their ideas. She forces the staff to implement her ideas without first discussing them and listen to their views, which was a practice that was implement by the principal of the school. Her ultimate goal was to implement organizational success and continue the good reputation of the school. However, in order to implement this she did not consider first the existing procedures and the group formation of the school. She tried to implement her ideas about change and development of the school procedures in general without trying to convince the staff about their importance and beneficial outcomes. As a result of this, a head teacher in a lower hierarchical position was set as the role model for all the existing school's staff and implemented organizational change in contrast with the newly appointed manager.

Management: Illuminating the Literature

In line with the managerial theory of change (see section 2.1), this newly *appointed manager* in the school in Greece was responsible for the employees' performance and the general success of the organization. This *appointed manager* reflected English's (2008) suggestions of managerial roles, as she was employed in a high hierarchical position and implemented her outlooks about the effective change and progress of the school.

The employees had to report directly to her and discussed with her on a weekly and monthly basis any problem that had encounter. The manager though that it was her duty to give a solution immediately and as a result she did not discuss the problems but she just listened and mandated the staff to implement her thoughts. It seems that she utilized management guru guides in order to overcome obstacles in organizational change. This *appointed manager* used similar strategies for a majority of difficulties, without examining first the different parameters of each situation. The employees of this school perceived the *appointed manager* as ineffective, likewise Knights and Willmott (1999) and Fullan (2003) note that such a practice would result in undesirable conditions. This *appointed manager* did not adapt her suggestions to the context of each situation and as a result when employees implemented her ideas there was no difference from the initial condition.

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This tactic was not compatible with what Habermas (cited in Sergiovanni, 2003) suggests as an appropriate approach of the two different worlds within organizations. The employees considered that the *appointed manager* focused only on instrumental techniques for organizational change and that she disregarded their personal values. This *appointed manager* utilized thoroughly the organization's *systemworld*, focusing on strategies about improvement but she overlooked the organization's *lifeworld*. She was against the effective approach of *lifeworld*, as she did not draw the appropriate attention to employees' desires and individual culture. As Habermas (cited in Sergiovanni, 2003) states, there was a *colonization* in this organization because the *systemworld* and the *lifeworld* did not co-exist in a mutual way. Consequently, the *systemworld* ruled over the *lifeworld*.

With this approach of the *systemworld* and the *lifeworld*, this *appointed manager's* role was applicable to Taylor's (cited in Crawford, 2003) *scientific management*. This *appointed manager* was concerned with how the personnel of this school would practice her directions correctly without including in her techniques the different perspective of the staff. As Taylor (cited in Crawford, 2003) explains in *scientific management*, the employees of this school were treated like robots that should implement given information without first consider and understand them. This *appointed manager's* role was not applicable to Crawford's (2003) *humanistic approach* of management. These employees did not feel motivated to exercise the organizational activities because of the *appointed manager's* indirect threats of punishment.

Her attitude illustrates the opposite view of Crawford's (2003) suggestions towards the organizational frames. She did not use several strategies to overcome the complexity that surrounds the organizational context in order to accomplish change, as she mostly focused on organizational objectives. Highlighting Crawford's (2003) *structural frame*, this *appointed manager* was concerned with the ways that the staff should execute directions. This *appointed manager's* stance was not related to the rest of Crawford's (2003) organizational frames. She did not reveal aspects of the *human resource frame* because she did not incorporate the employees' relationships in her decisions. Neither did she contain angles of the *political frame*, as she did not strive to communicate her objectives among employees but she was just interested to see her suggestions be implemented. Similarly, she excluded the *symbolic frame*, as she did not use various symbols to connect the organizational aims with employees' attention and willingness. Consequently, she did not highlight Crawford's (2003) framework relating to the effective combination and communication of the different organizational frames.

In support with the previous arguments, after the appointment of the new manager, this organizational context did not reveal an atmosphere of trust that Snair (2003) indicates. As this *appointed manager* illustrates completely Taylor's (cited in Crawford, 2003) *scientific management*, there was no attempt to establish empathy among the professional team because she did not communicate her objectives. Therefore, she was not depended on Snair's (2003) approach of effective management of change. In this school, the outlooks were not shared from the *appointed manager* to the employees and thus, there were not enough opportunities to solve potential problems.

This example further illustrates that implementing managerial roles in real life is a challenging procedure. One main argument is that this *appointed manager* was striving for the organizational change and development and thus, she utilized some available managerial resources like guru guides. Believing that her perspectives would steer to organization's success, it seems that she practiced management approaches like Habermas's (cited in Sergiovanni, 2003) *systemworld*, Taylor's (cited in Crawford, 2003) *scientific management* and Crawford's (2003) *structural frame* of the organization. However, she did not

illuminate Knights and Willmott (1999) and Fullan (2003) theories of effective management of change as her stance was opposite from their perspectives. As a result, she did not manage to fulfill her role with success and at the end she was not welcome from the professional team.

Leadership: Illuminating the Literature

This *appointed manager's* attitude can illuminate both theories of leadership related to whether leaders are born or made. This *appointed manager* failed to complete effectively her role as a manager and thus, she also failed to further become a leader. One main argument is that people follow the manager because they have to do it but they follow the leader because they are stimulated by their free will. Therefore, she can be correlated with Horner's (2003) and Grint's (2003) perspectives, as she might fail to become a leader because she did not have the appropriate genetic attributes of a leader. Similarly, she can be linked to English's (2008) thoughts, as she might fail to become a leader because she did not received the appropriate stimuli to create a leader's attitude. However, as Jackson and Parry (2008) comment, such a definition does not facilitate us to define precisely the leader's qualities.

A *teacher* in this school, who was in a lower hierarchical position from this *appointed manager*, can illustrate Jackson's and Parry's (2008) suggestions of leaders' qualities. This *teacher* was employed before this *appointed manager* and became quickly a leader, as she possessed the five qualities that Jackson and Parry (2008) indicate. This *teacher-leader* acquired *confidence*, as she revealed great self-worth and self-efficacy characteristics, and placed herself in the leader's role. She had *integrity*, by confirming her values. This *teacher-leader* owned *connection*, as she communicated her values to the rest of the employees. She had *resilience*, because she met successfully overwhelming obstacles and she also had *aspiration*, as she inspired the employees to change their activities towards the direction she suggested. However, she never tried to overshadow the *newly appointed manager* but this was just an outcome of the personality, stance and attitude.

In contrast with the *appointed manager*, this *teacher-leader* established organizational change effectively. This *teacher-leader* sustained Horner's (2003) thoughts of effective leadership. She adjusted her strategies to the individual culture of employees and developed a different stance towards each person of the professional team, concerning about the singular features of their background. When her colleagues talk to her in order to find a solution to their problems, she listened them carefully, discussed with them and tried to find a solution that suits them according to their teaching techniques and professional experience. Supporting Grint (2003), this *teacher-leader* revealed an adequate scientific background that persuaded the employees of her remarkable past, present and promising future. She further confirmed English's (2008) rhetoric, as she utilized storytelling and established her worth and vision to her followers. In every discussion with her colleagues, she used examples of her personal experience in order to explain better her views and make them understand the benefits of the solution she suggested.

This *teacher-leader's* rhetoric created a perfect and visionary context in which each employee of this school wished to participate and follow her dream. It was an honor for every employee to be advised from her. This *teacher-leader* illuminated Sergiovanni's (2003) perspectives of people's need to belong in a common community. As her attitude was linked to Jackson's and Parry's (2008) quality of *connection*, she shed light on the perceptions of Bennett (2003) that each employee should decide with liberty to participate in this common context. By communicating her ideas, she let the employees choose freely if they will embrace or not her outlooks.

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This *teacher-leader* highlighted Gill's (2006) and Jackson's and Parry's (2008) category of *transformational leadership*. As this *teacher-leader* revealed the previous analyzed attributes of leadership, she succeeded to inspire and stimulate the rest of the professional team to surpass their limits for the general advantage of the school. She proposed various actions for the development of the existing procedures of the school and all members of the professional team were eager to implement them as she had first convince them about necessity and the positive outcomes. This *teacher-leader* further supported Gill's (2006) and Jackson's and Parry's (2008) comments of the four characteristic of *transformational leadership*. She revealed *individual consideration*, as she listened actively to employees' worries and strived to find the appropriate suggestion, considering their individuality. This *teacher-leader* had *intellectual stimulation*, by motivating the employees and challenging them to struggle for her dreams. She transferred *inspirational motivation*, by correlating the employees' personal goals with the organizational goals and motivating them to face bravely problems as an opportunity to gain knowledge. This *teacher-leader* had also *idealized influence*, as she took personal responsibility for her actions and presented trust and persistence for the organizational change.

On the contrary, this newly *appointed manager* highlighted Gill's (2006) and Jackson's and Parry's (2008) category of *transactional leadership*. She was concerned directly with employees' performance, using verbal rewards to award their conformity. She further illustrates Gill's (2006) suggestions that *transactional leadership* produces quicker but uncertain results. These employees implemented immediately her directions, because of the continuous threats, but they also created negative feelings towards this *appointed manager* as she inhibited their personal development by not focusing on their needs and as a result she did not suggest new and pioneering teaching techniques that could implement.

This case study further illustrates the discrete difference between manager's and leader's attributes. As Gill (2006) suggests, this *appointed manager* controlled and allocated the organizational resources whereas this *teacher-leader* stimulated, inspired and communicated these organizational resources among the professional team. Although it is highly desirable for a manager to be also a leader, real life experiences make this condition too demanding and sometimes unachievable. Therefore, this example highlights English's (2008) indications, as this *appointed manager* and this *teacher-leader* coexisted in the organizational context. It does not support Crawford's (2003) *inventive management and wise leadership*, as the manager and the leader in this school were two different persons and thus, there was no continuum among these perspectives.

The Construct of Power: Illuminating the Literature

Both *appointed manager* and *teacher-leader* in this school provided the appropriate information to employees to achieve organizational change but there is a distinct difference between them. This *appointed manager's* role was not transferable to Knights's and Willmott's (1999) theory, as she did not attempt to explain the given information and thus, supporting Coombs *et al.* (1992) she did not gain the desired power. On the contrary, this *teacher-leader's* stance is linked to Knights's and Willmott's (1999) theory, as she strived to make information meaningful to all employees and hence, illuminating Wenger (2004), she obtained the power to implement organizational change.

Luke's (cited in Knight and Willmott, 1999) theory about power is directly applicable to this *appointed manager's* behavior. She highlighted his three-dimensional model of power, by considering power as a means to control and define employees' reality. In particular, she mirrored *dimension 1*, as she applied

her power to protect organizational directions and avoid disagreements; *dimension 2*, as she utilized her power to maintain her suggestions to organizational procedures and make employees' disagreement unseen and *dimension 3*, as she attempted to define reality towards employees.

This *appointed manager* differed completely from this *teacher-leader* in the way they implemented power, illustrating different categories of power of Raven and French (1958). Specifically, this *appointed manager* was based on her legitimate authority to implement organizational change and indicate to employees the appropriate attitude to implement and thus, is linked to *legitimate power*. She supports *coercive power*, as she implied punishments when employees did not practice correctly her directions and she further illuminates *reward power*, by utilizing verbal rewards to award employees' compliance. On the contrary, this *teacher-leader* highlights *referent power*, as she gained the respect of the professional team due to her charming personality and *expert power* because the rest of the employees acknowledged her competency and professional excellence.

Both *appointed manager's* and *teacher-leader's* styles support Gill's (2006) thoughts of the effects of different types of power. This *appointed manager*, by practicing *legitimate* and *coercive power*, did not implement organizational change effectively. Although these employees complied with her directions, they did not engage actively in organizational activities and had negative sentiments towards this *appointed manager*. This *teacher-leader* accomplished organizational change successfully, as she avoided these forms of power and the employees implement her views with their free will.

Further to this, this *teacher-leader's* style is directly applicable to French's and Raven's (1958) study (*see section 2.4*). These employees perceived that this *teacher-leader* had a legitimate right to prescribe them behaviors, as she was equipped with the team's support, like the participants of the experimental group of French's and Raven's (1958) study. On the other hand, this *appointed manager's* style is directly transferable to Raven's and French's (1958) findings (*see section 2.4*). Utilizing *coercive power*, she was not accepted as an effective manager in the professional team, like the participants of the experimental group of Raven's and French's (1958) study. Although the employees followed her directions, they were not fully committed to such actions and as a result their problems were not solved.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

This chapter has discussed the theoretical framework of management and leadership of change, focusing on the construct of power. The main argument was that power plays a significant role in both management and leadership procedures of change. A case study describing a change event in a school in Greece was used to illuminate the literature and this argument and further link theory to everyday professional practice.

Discussing the theoretical and research literature and illustrating it with this change event, leads us to suggest that the issue of power holds a pivotal role in both management and leadership models of change. According to the form of power that managers and leaders practice, they may have a different impact on organizational procedures. Forms of power that are correlated with employees' free will, communication and recognition, like *referent* and *expert power*, enable managers and leaders to achieve a long-term and successful organizational change. On the contrary, forms of power that are linked to managers' legitimate right or employees' compliance, like *legitimate*, *coercive* and *reward power*, may have quick results but they are not contribute to a lasting effective organizational change. However, applying academic managerial knowledge of change to everyday practice in the social world is an extremely challenging and complex procedure.

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This chapter shows that when managers and leaders avoid using mechanistic approaches, they accomplish organizational change effectively. Managerial power should be underpinned with employees' support and it is better for managers to utilize their power to communicate, and not to impose, their ideas.

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