Western University

Scholarship@Western

The Organizational Improvement Plan at Western University

Education Faculty

5-27-2020

Faculty Engagement in an Interior Design Program at a Canadian Higher Educational Institution: Toward Methodical Practice

Angela G. Antohi-Kominek Western University, aantohik@uwo.ca

Follow this and additional works at: https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/oip

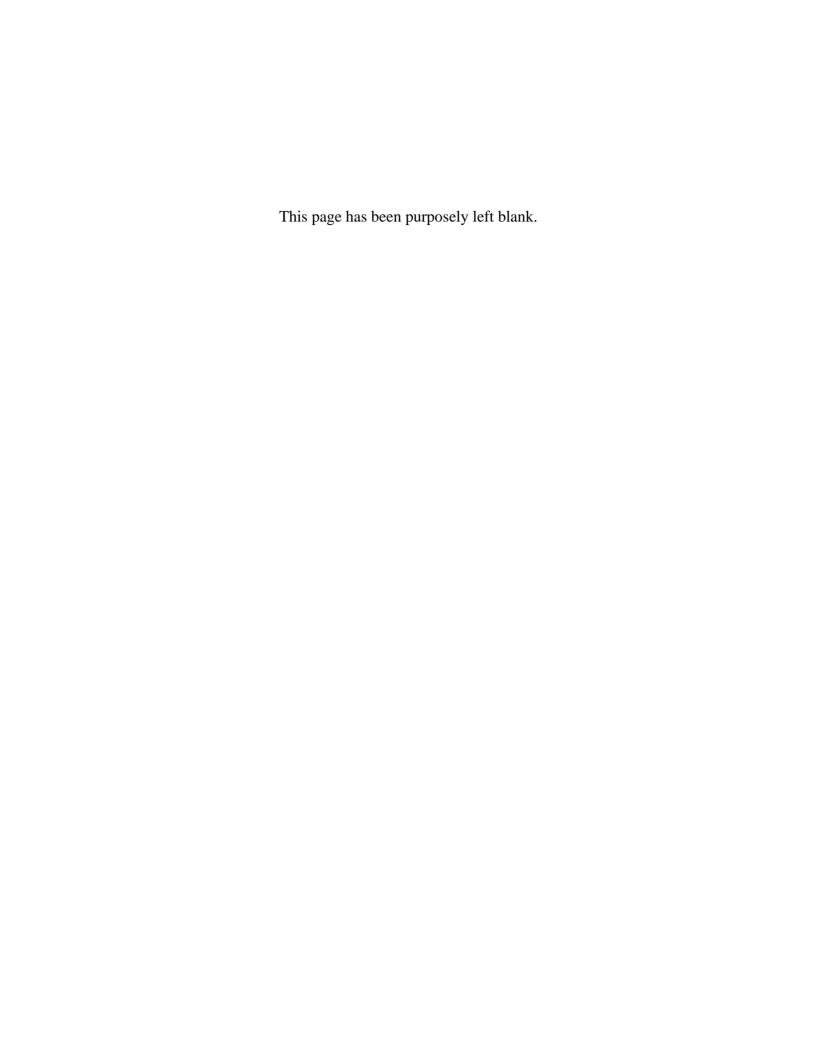


Part of the Educational Leadership Commons, and the Higher Education Commons

Recommended Citation

Antohi-Kominek, A. G. (2020). Faculty Engagement in an Interior Design Program at a Canadian Higher Educational Institution: Toward Methodical Practice. The Organizational Improvement Plan at Western University, 121. Retrieved from https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/oip/121

This OIP is brought to you for free and open access by the Education Faculty at Scholarship@Western. It has been accepted for inclusion in The Organizational Improvement Plan at Western University by an authorized administrator of Scholarship@Western. For more information, please contact wlswadmin@uwo.ca.



Abstract

There is an inherent assumption that faculty ought to know and practice sound andragogical techniques that result in quality teaching. This organizational improvement plan (OIP) develops a methodical approach to engage faculty in effective teaching practices in an interior design program at a private for-profit university in Canada. The ability to build such a group in this program is threatened by external and internal factors, the most notable of which is the small pool of qualified candidates for faculty positions. A dual theoretical lens consisting of organizational cultural theory and social cognitive theory bring the problem into sharper perspective. To inform the realization of the OIP, a distributed-transformational-servant (D-T-S) leadership model was developed. The critical organizational analysis revealed gaps that pointed to a series of possible solutions. The chosen solution for implementation is the launch a peer faculty mentoring model. Following the implementation plan, the first goal is for current faculty to act as mentors for new faculty during their first year with the university. The second goal of the plan details the peer-mentoring initiative for faculty who teach Term 1 courses both online and on-campus. Achieving these goals will help to create a faculty who are actively engaged in practices of teaching excellence, which will also improve student achievement metrics. A fully developed monitoring and evaluation plan, as well as a communication plan, support the OIP implementation plan. This work may inspire the expansion of the peer–faculty mentoring model across the campus and within the broader university community.

Keywords: faculty mentoring, distributed-transformational-servant leadership model, quality teaching practices, teaching excellence, student achievement metrics

Executive Summary

The purpose of an organizational improvement plan (OIP) is to interrogate a leadership problem of practice (PoP) by using a rigorous scholarly practitioner approach. The problem that requires examination is situated in an interior design undergraduate program of a national Canadian university.

Chapter 1 explains the organizational context and situates the problem within it. The leadership PoP to be addressed is the lack of a methodical approach to foster faculty engagement practices which involve new and current faculty of an interior design program at a Canadian private for-profit university. A dual theoretical lens consisting of Schein's (2017) organizational cultural theory and Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory is used to bring the problem into sharper perspective. To inform the realization of the OIP, a distributed-transformational-servant (D-T-S) leadership model was developed. There are obvious gaps between the current and the desired state. Change drivers are examined as the vision for change emerges, and a change readiness evaluation explores the organizational readiness for change.

A political, economic, social, technological, and environmental (PESTE) factor analysis reveals internal and external pressures for change, with internal pressure being the dominant driver of change. Change is needed to ensure the program remains viable and contributes to the university. A main barrier in approaching this problem is the lack of faculty participation within the program and the university at large. Senior administrators express concern that because of these behaviours, student achievement data are slipping. These concerns are underpinned by cultural theories; namely, the evolution of subcultures and their intersection with the organizational culture, and social cognitive theories of self-efficacy and motivation. To work

through this leadership problem, the D-T-S leadership model developed for this OIP will be used when interacting with various stakeholder groups.

Chapter 2 focuses on the planning and development of the OIP. In this chapter, the triphasic D-T-S leadership approach to change is examined in greater detail, as is the dual lens proposed framework of Bandura's (1977, 1997) social cognitive theory and Schein's (2017) organizational cultural model. A critical organizational analysis was conducted using seven policy levers developed by Hénard and Roseveare (2012) to assess policies and practices of quality teaching. Several gaps were revealed, which aided in making evident certain solutions. Of the proposed solutions, developing a faculty mentorship program was chosen as the solution to advocate and further develop as it addresses most of the identified policy lever gaps from the critical analysis. Mentorship as a form of scholarship also aligns with the university's concept of scholarship as expounded by Boyer (1990). An examination of leadership ethics, is necessary to understand how the D-T-S leadership model may be challenged during change implementation, rounds out this chapter.

Chapter 3 outlines a strategy for change in the form of a change implementation plan, describes the monitoring and evaluation methods for the proposed change, and presents a plan to communicate the need for change and the change process. The implementation plan identifies stakeholders, limitations, resources required, and timelines. It addresses two key goals for both online and on-campus personnel: Goal A focuses on experienced program faculty mentoring new members, and Goal B focuses on mentoring faculty who teach Term 1 courses, as student success in term one is a significant retention indicator. Though a normative re-educative change strategy (Janicijevic, 2017), it is hoped that new mental schemas emerge and a cultural shift occurs. To this end, and to ensure the plan is executed, dual approaches to monitoring and

evaluation have been considered. These include an interpretive approach (Stockdale & Standing, 2006) and a results-based approach focused on outcomes (Kusek & Rist, 2004). The monitoring and evaluation process is tailored to the Plan–Do–Study–Act iterative model. The communication plan focuses on internal and external stakeholders, drawing on the works of Kotter (2012) and Cawsey, Deszca, and Ingols (2016).

Looking to the future, findings from the OIP may be extended to other undergraduate programs on campus. A community of practice could potentially be developed where there is interdepartmental faculty collaboration and mentorship. Findings from this OIP may inform the practice of other interior design programs as they may present with similar challenges. The goal of the OIP is to establish a methodical process for faculty practice.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank my parents and my husband, who have recognized how important it is for me pursue my studies in completing my Doctor of Educational Leadership. You have all helped in different ways over the years so that I can free up my time to dedicate to my studies.

To my children, Abigail and Ethan, I hope my choice to continue my studies has shown you that through perseverance and dedication, seemingly insurmountable tasks can be achieved. Constant hard work and perseverance is key.

Table of Contents

Abstract	ii
Executive Summary	iii
Acknowledgments	vi
Table of Contents	vii
List of Tables	xi
List of Figures	xii
Acronyms	xiii
Chapter 1: Introduction and Problem	1
Organizational Context	1
Introduction and context.	1
Vision, mission, values, purpose, and goals.	5
Organizational structure, leadership approaches, and practices	6
History linked to mission and organizational strategy.	8
Leadership Position and Theoretical Lens	9
Transformational leadership.	9
Servant leadership.	11
Distributed leadership.	13
Theoretical framework	15
Leadership Problem of Practice	20
Framing the Problem of Practice	22
Historical overview.	23
PESTE factor analysis.	25

Guiding Questions Emerging From the Problem of Practice
Leadership-Focused Vision for Change
The gap between the present and the future
Priorities for change
Change drivers
Organizational Change Readiness
Chapter Summary
Chapter 2: Planning and Development
Leadership Approaches to Change
Servant leadership
Transformational leadership
Distributed leadership
Distributed-transformational-servant leadership 44
Framework for Leading the Change Process
Critical Organizational Analysis
Possible Solutions to Address the Problem of Practice
Possible Solution 1: Faculty mentorship program
Possible Solution 2: Faculty away-day—program retreat. 62
Possible Solution 3: Faculty review (yearly)—renewal process
Implementation of solutions. 67
Leadership Ethics and Organizational Change
Chapter Summary73
Chapter 3: Implementation, Evaluation, and Communication

Change Implementation Plan	74
Strategy for change.	77
Understanding stakeholder reactions to change.	79
Select personnel to engage in the process	79
Other supports and resources.	80
Implementation issues.	82
Building momentum.	82
Limitations.	82
Change Process Monitoring and Evaluation	83
The PDSA Cycle	87
Planning.	87
Doing.	87
Studying	88
Acting.	88
Plan to Communicate the Need for Change and the Change Process	89
Internal stakeholders	91
External stakeholders	93
Other communication tools	95
Chapter Summary	95
Next Steps and Future Considerations	96
References	100
Appendices	116
Appendix A: SMART Goal Principles	116

Appendix B: Proposed Change Implementation Plan	117
Appendix C: Interpretive Framework	121
Appendix D: Communication Plan	123

List of Tables

Γable 1 Gaps as Identified by the Critical Organizational Analysis	57
Table 2 Proposed Solutions Related to the OIP Framework, Leadership Style, and Identified	1
Gaps	68
Table A1 Goals A and B Summarized Using SMART Goal Principles to Achieve the Propo	sed
Solution	116
Table B1 Proposed Change Implementation Plan for Goal A	117
Table B2 Proposed Change Implementation Plan for Goal B	119
Γable C1 Monitoring and Evaluation Interpretive Framework	121
Table D1 Proposed Communication Plan Summary: Internal Stakeholders	123
Γable D2 Proposed Communication Plan Summary: External Stakeholders	124

List of Figures

Figure 1. Three overlapping leadership approaches in the OIP	.15
Figure 2. The conceptual framework of the OIP.	.19
Figure 3. The distributed-transformational-servant leadership (D-T-S) model	.45
Figure 4. The relationship of the OIP conceptual framework to the D-T-S leadership model as	
adapted from the triadic reciprocal determination.	.48
Figure 5. Proposed updated program organizational chart for OIP implementation	.78

Acronyms

CIDA (Council for Interior Design Accreditation)

CoP (Community of practice)

FTW (Faculty training workshop)

M&E (Monitoring and evaluation)

OECD (The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development)

OIP (Organizational improvement plan)

PDSA (Plan, do, study, act)

PESTE (Political, economic, social, technical, and environmental)

PEQAB (Postsecondary Education Quality Assessment Board)

PoP (Problem of practice)

SEOCS (Student end of course survey)

SMART (Specific, measurable, attainable, realistic, time bound)

Chapter 1: Introduction and Problem

An organizational improvement plan (OIP) seeks to interrogate a leadership problem of practice (PoP) by using a rigorous scholarly practitioner approach. The problem that requires examination is situated in an interior design undergraduate program of a national university. This chapter examines the organizational context and situates the problem within it. The theoretical underpinnings draw on a dual perspective of social cultural theory (Schein, 2017) and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997, 1999) which scaffold around the DistributiveTransformational-Servant (D-T-S) leadership model developed to for this OIP. Obvious gaps exist between the current and the desired state. Internal and external change drivers are examined as the vision for change emerges, of which the internal drivers are the main thrusting force. A change readiness evaluation reveals a tenuous organizational readiness for change. In this midst, the goal of the OIP is to establish a methodical process for faculty practice.

Organizational Context

Introduction and context. Organizations exist in a complex milieu and are shaped by multiple political, economic, social, and cultural factors. The organizational PoP to examine is situated in a private Canadian for-profit or proprietary university, which I refer to as University X. The higher educational landscape is not a friendly one to such organizations, as publicly funded colleges and universities dominate the current landscape. However, when universities first started in Canada, the converse was true (Li & Jones, 2015). Most of the oldest universities in Canada had their origins as private colleges or university colleges (Li & Jones, 2015). Nationwide, there are 233 public universities and only 19 private universities, of which the majority are theological based (Li & Jones, 2015).

2

Proprietary universities are more of an accepted norm in the United States, where many of the Ivy League schools are in this category (Mandernach, Radda, Greenberger, & Forrest, 2015). The mission of a proprietary university is to serve a market niche not addressed by public universities and at the same time operate as a viable business. Mandernach et al. (2015) challenged the dichotomy of private and proprietary universities by explaining that the fundamental mission of both types of universities is to educate learners in a financially responsible manner. The difference between the two types of universities lies in "how the organizational and financial model of each influences choices and philosophies within that mission. In a proprietary model, financial and academic decisions are integrated due to their interdependence" (Mandernach et al., 2015, p. 112). Although this slight difference may be understood by administrators, fledgling faculty may not understand the operational nuances and can experience dissonance and disappointment between their perceptions of the way things ought to be and reality. The disconnect experienced by faculty may be due to their novel experience in a neoliberal academic setting where the focus is result driven outcomes (Busch, 2017).

As a fledgling university, University X has been seeking to establish presence locally as well as internationally. This important brand awareness and recognition takes time, and increased recognition will assist in securing political leverage to ensure faster new program approvals. The metaphor of small fish in a large pond is apt to describe the university among the competition (Gladwell, 2008). Because of this positioning, the university is still relatively obscure, and many in the general public are not even aware of its existence. Through active recruitment strategies, in 2019, the interior design program increased its student population by 50% in the span of one year. This data is taken from internal communications and for reasons of confidentiality, have not been cited. Despite the relative obscurity of the university from the public, the interior design

program is accredited by the international accrediting body. Students from the program are competitive in national and local design competitions, and many gain admittance to Master's level programs.

Strategically, the university endeayours to position itself as a route to accessible education to those who may not gain admittance to public universities or for whom public universities are not an option given their busy lifestyles (Mandernach et al., 2015). Given that proprietary universities are heavily focused on nontraditional students, this has allowed them to become leaders in nontraditional delivery methods such as online or hybrid course options (Mandernach et al., 2015). University X is a good example of this trend, as all the Master's level programs are offered online for the nontraditional learner, and the interior design program was first launched online. To date, it is the only accredited fully online interior design program with no residency requirement in Canada. Proprietary universities have a unique understanding that the product of the business aspect of the institution is the students—or at least, the knowledge and skills students acquire through their education—and at the same time, the students are the customers. Thus, student choice, flexibility of course offerings, and responding to student preferences are important considerations (Busch, 2017). The student as consumer or customer is evident, and education is a product to serve the private good. This further reinforces the strength of the neoliberal rationality present at University X.

Not unlike public universities, the administrative engine of the for-profit university is hierarchical. Most of the faculty body are adjunct and contract workers (Brownlee, 2015). Many universities turn to adjunct faculty to staff classes and administrators assign them as needed. Ginsberg (2011) called this segment of faculty the *phantom professoriate*. The reliance on adjunct faculty is a worldwide practice which has benefited universities in uncertain times of

rapid growth and fluctuating enrollment (Wardale, Richardson, & Suseno, 2019). The pervasive reality of neoliberalism in universities, University X included, has resulted in the dichotomization of faculty; adjunct, temporary positions and permanent, full-time faculty positions (Busch, 2017). The transient, impermanent arrangement of faculty assignment may work for departments where there is an oversupply of prospective personnel. However, in the context of University X, the faculty who teach in the interior design program, where the leadership problem is situated, are required not only to be academically credentialed faculty but also to hold a professional industry designation (Council for Interior Design Accreditation [CIDA], 2020). Many faculty members do not meet both criteria; thus, the program risks deficiency with provincial regulators and/or the accrediting body.

As a business, the organization is mainly a top-down, hierarchical structure. Likewise, because of the semi-transient and non-permanent nature of faculty assignments, a collegial atmosphere as described by Manning (2018) is almost nonexistent. It is not uncommon for senior administrators to shape or restructure a program with little input from those who deliver it. These actions are quite common for academic administrators who increasingly wield more authority as it is conferred to them by regulatory agencies (Busch, 2017). However, faculty desire a positive, emotionally safe environment, and Booton (2016) has maintained that this type of atmosphere would help improve student satisfaction. Yet, when the actions of administrators are not consistent with providing faculty with safety, then stress, anxiety, and lack of productivity can be outcomes.

These internal and external influences create a cacophony of competing interests all clamoring for attention and action. In this situation, the goals and interests of various stakeholder groups may be at odds, and participation from the more loosely coupled segments of the

organization, the faculty, may be too fluid to connect effectively with the rest of the organization (Manning, 2018). Leadership in this chaotic, multiple-reality environment is only as effective as the tools, information, mission, vision, and plans the leaders are equipped with.

Vision, mission, values, purpose, and goals. The basic premise of the mission of University X is to offer relevant, career focused degrees that enhance the livelihood of its learners and contribute to building the community. Achievement of the mission is based on three core principles of accessibility, flexibility, and rigour. Admission to this program is more accessible than to similar programs at competitor institutions. Seven similar programs are accredited in Ontario, many within driving range of the university, and their admission requirements include a portfolio; however, no such requirement is needed for admission into the program at University X (CIDA, 2020). Program admission is accessible because of multiple pathways of entry, which include direct from high school, as a mature student, or with previous academic experience. Consistent with the accessibility and flexibility principles, students can take courses to complete the interior design program either on campus or online. The nature of course offerings and a quarterly system of delivery allow students the flexibility to integrate career advancement studies with their personal and professional lives. There are two weeks of downtime between terms, and one project week in the middle of each quarter term.

The curriculum of the program is interesting yet rigorous and made relevant by the professional industry experience the faculty bring to the classroom. A concern emerges when the principle of rigour is examined more closely, especially when looking at interior design faculty credentials, their practice in the field, and their commitment to excellence in teaching. The university's goal for this program is threefold: to grow the program, to remain an accredited

program, and to update course offerings by reducing the number of courses to make the program more financially attractive to potential students as well as align with similar programs.

The purpose of a private for-profit institution is, of course, profit. One way to maximize profits is by maximizing retention or minimizing attrition. Such results focused behaviours are consistent with neoliberal goals (Busch, 2017). Thus, the espoused values (Schein, 2017) of the university need to include student-centric ideologies. Recently, focus has been on the student experience, with planned initiatives to meet these goals. As explained by senior university administrators, at the core of supporting the student experience, and thereby improving retention, are three fundamental pillars: academic integrity (Fass-Holmes, 2017), faculty (Roberts, 2009), and student life (Roberts, 2009). This OIP focuses on how the faculty pillar can be improved, and contribution increased, to support the student experience and thereby positively impact retention. Efforts to improve retention should not be one-sided, with responsibility placed solely on faculty. Rather, the approach needs to include administrators and owners, who need to be visible and acquainted with their students/customers (Booton, 2016).

Perhaps because of the university's nascent origins, its strategic plans and mission, vision, and values have not been made transparent or clearly defined to all employees. This lack of communication can make navigating priorities or working across a loosely coupled structure a challenge. The poorly understood nature of artifacts such as strategic plans, or the espoused values, mission, and vision, make it a challenge to tease out the organizational culture or share it effectively (Schein, 2017).

Organizational structure, leadership approaches, and practices. The PoP is situated in a private for-profit university with campuses located in three provincial jurisdictions. Program offerings include undergraduate and graduate level studies. The organization's view is that

business practices are primary and academic concerns are adaptable to suit the primary business mandate. The university is relatively young, and it is still trying to build its processes, infrastructure, and reputation, as well as its market niche.

At this campus, I have decanal duties with oversight for two undergraduate programs, including the general studies segment of course programming. Since the interior design program launched in 2012, six Program Chairs have held the position. The program is supported by a Head of Studio and two coordinators. The administrative load is in addition to the teaching load for these faculty. The program has one additional full-time faculty member. All other faculty are employed on an adjunct basis. Some faculty who teach online are remote to the campus and have never visited the university. Recent senior administrator decisions include a reshuffling of this structure to create the role of an Associate Chair and eliminate the coordinator roles, as well as the approval of several more full-time faculty positions. The elimination of the coordinator roles is due to the expanded duties now assigned to Program Advisors.

I consider my leadership style as eclectic and adaptive, drawing on various leadership styles to suit the situation. Similarly, a multidimensional style and approach will be needed to articulate the change vision. The approaches to consider need to be congruent and scaffold with each other. The three main leadership theories under consideration are transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006), servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977), and distributed leadership (Gronn, 2008). These leadership theories and their relationship to the problem are expanded on in the next section, as well as in the Leadership Approach to Change section of Chapter 2.

The program has lacked consistent leadership with the turnover of Program Chairs. Due to this, as the Academic Dean of this program, I have spent a lot of time nurturing new members

as well as making sure program operations are not affected by transitions. At times, to keep term deliverables such scheduling and course redevelopment, I have had to opt for a task-directed approach over relationship-building tasks (Nahavandi, 2015).

History linked to mission and organizational strategy. The university is relatively young and rapidly growing, with a strong profit focus. To maintain quality and rigour, certain departments of the university are centralized and have broad oversight, such as academic services, library services, student success, faculty development, and instructional design. Such centralization may have brought economies of scale when the university was founded, when there were few jurisdictions and organizational expertise was limited (Tovar, Rossett, & Carter, 1989). This type of tight coupling is still the current practice.

I discuss faculty development and instructional design in more detail as these groups have the most interaction with faculty. The faculty development group offers faculty on-boarding in an online format, and it provides different opportunities for faculty development by hosting webinars presented by faculty from various departments. Even though these practices are supported by the literature (Rowbotham, 2015; Sorcinelli & Yun, 2007), individual provinces have recently expressed the desire for more local, on-the-ground services that may be more program specific. The instructional design team creates the online component of courses each term for faculty. In this way, rigour and quality are maintained, and the university ensures an approved course is presented consistently term after term.

As University X is a private university, there is a lack of transparency, which has led to a lack of understanding, by some, of the overall organizational strategy. Strategic plans, if they do exist, are not made public as in public universities. This practice is consistent with a hierarchical governance structure, where power and control are limited to the hegemonic group (Austin &

Jones, 2016). The hierarchical design makes it difficult for the organization to act with a unified vision and to mobilize the loosely coupled faculty group, which would welcome a more collegial form of governance (Austin & Jones, 2016). As profits are a main driver, the university's organizational strategies will be consistent with the pursuit of opportunities for program development and student recruitment strategies that will maximize profits. Generally, faculty perceptions of administrator influence on academic quality in for-profit higher education reveal that faculty believe that owners and administrators are primarily focused on profit and not necessarily on faculty well-being (Booton, 2016). The next section reviews the leadership position as it pertains to this OIP and identifies the theoretical lenses used for analysis.

Leadership Position and Theoretical Lens

The problem to be addressed is complex and multilayered; thus, the leadership approaches used need to draw on diverse leadership theories. The leadership approaches will vary depending on where in the implementation timeline the project is and the stakeholder group to be addressed. For this PoP, I draw on the three mainstream leadership theories introduced in the previous section, which I now explore in detail.

Transformational leadership. Transformational leadership has its origins in the seminal work of James MacGregor Burns. According to Burns (1978), in transformational leadership the leader "looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs and engages the full potential of followers" (p. 4). Transformational leadership seeks to elevate others to do and achieve more than basic expectations. This aim is achieved by setting challenging expectations and empowering others to develop their leadership potential. Given my role, I set expectations and deliverables, yet at the same time look to the team to come up with ways to solve problems. This approach is expanded upon in Chapter 2.

Burns (1978) remarked that transformational leadership "raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspirations of both leader and led" (p. 20), thus affecting both in the process. Northouse (2016) cited Gandhi as an example of such reciprocal engagement with others in transformation. In a similar way, I have found myself reflecting on daily interactions, sometimes at the oddest times; reflecting on how a situation could have been addressed better; or considering new insights I may have gleaned from a problem when engaging with the team. Transformational approaches should elevate the individual's social consciousness, which will lead to change, create new realties, and, one hopes, an improved state of being (Kezar, 2014).

Since Burns (1978), much work has been published in the field of transformational leadership by the likes of Bernard Bass, Bruce Avolio, and Kenneth Leithwood (Stewart, 2006). According to Bass and Riggio (2006), there are four components to transformational leadership known as the four I's: idealized influence, where leaders act as role models; inspirational motivation, where leaders are expected to motivate by communicating a unified vision; intellectual stimulation, which includes fostering the creativity and problem-solving of followers; and idealized consideration, or the requirement of the leaders to pay attention to followers' individual needs and to be responsive with coaching and mentoring supports. Sometimes charisma is replaced for idealized influence (Bass & Riggio, 2006). I find it difficult to relate to charisma as charisma or charm can be manipulative and self-serving. I prefer to view idealized influence as an opportunity to lead by example. I engage in individualized consideration as I walk around on a regular basis to connect informally with all members in my immediate environment, as well as more remote members of the team (Bass & Riggio, 2006). I find inspirational motivation is an area that needs improvement in the program, and its lack may have

contributed to the problem at hand. Working on this leadership problem in a systematic approach will identify ways to communicate the change vision effectively.

Critics of transformational leadership cite that it places too much emphasis on the transformational skills of the leader (Stewart, 2006). It is suggested that individuals in an organization ought to develop feedback loops and learn from their mistakes; in this way, the organization becomes less bureaucratic and becomes a transforming agent, where members are empowered as a collective (Stewart, 2006). This consideration seems plausible as leaders alone cannot transform an organization, and neither can one leadership style be effective to solve a complicated problem. Thus, the servant leadership style is another approach to lead in this situation.

Servant leadership. Greenleaf's (1977) servant leadership theory is concerned with making sure that followers' needs are met and that they are of highest priority. In doing so, followers become self-actualized, reach their highest levels as people, and in turn can perform at the highest levels. Attributes of servant leadership include listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, and commitment to the growth of people (Greenleaf, 1977; Northouse, 2016; Spears, 2010). Greenleaf (1977) stated that "everything begins with the initiative of the individual" (p. 28); to me, this advice includes the conscious choice of the individual leader to be the type of leader that is necessary for the organization. Listening as one of the elements of servant leadership includes not only what others say and do not say, but also listening to one's own voice as leader, especially in reflection (Greenleaf, 1997). Healing is a force for transformation and integration (Greenleaf, 1977; Spears 2010) and is applicable to oneself and others.

In the interior design program at University X, the faculty group has been through many departmental changes and is in the process of a major restructure that has been imposed with minimal departmental consultation. With a servant leadership approach, I can begin to rebuild trust, which will be important to bridge the gap between the way faculty and administration view each other. After a healing process, both groups can begin to work collaboratively going forward.

As a leader in the middle, given my role as an Academic Dean, I believe I can precipitate trust building to help in healing and new bond formation. I, too, need to heal, as I have been close to the major changes on both the administration and the academic side. Activating the change zone, Figure 3, will facilitate my healing process. Persuading even one person at a time, according to Greenleaf (1977), is far more beneficial than coercion; this aspect will be important to consider in the implementation plan. Engaging in dialogue and continuing my open-door policy are steps to consider in the change implementation. As a leader in this circumstance, my focus is to commit to the growth and development of the faculty to help shape a learning community.

As much as servant leadership seeks to be altruistic, critics contend that servant leadership is deficient of empirical evidence (Russel & Stone, 2002). The attributes assigned to servant leadership are leadership behaviours that can be taught or coached. The ultimate servant leaders put the needs of followers so far ahead of their own that they even put themselves in positions where they risk high loses, such as being terminated (Russel & Stone, 2002). This principle is altruistic and noble, but not always realistic. Servant leadership is therefore one approach to use with faculty during the implementation plan, but not the sole approach. The next leadership position to contemplate for this PoP is distributed leadership.

Distributed leadership. Distributed leadership is a social process which emerges through the interaction of various actors (Bolden, 2011). Bolden (2011) explained that distributed leadership can coexist in hierarchical top-down situations. This clarification is important to the PoP as University X functions as a top-down hierarchical system. Compared to transformational and servant leadership, which may be more trait focused, distributed leadership is action focused. The theorists of distributed leadership include Gronn (2008) and Spillane (2006). A framework grounded in distributed cognition and activity theory is central to leadership practices over time as leaders and followers interact in various situations (Spillane, 2006). I expand upon the connection of this leadership theory to the theoretical framework in Chapter 2. Shared leadership, or collective leadership, are terms that are sometimes used interchangeably with distributed leadership (Bolden, 2011), but others have cautioned that these areas can be viewed as different streams of research (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009).

Distributed leadership is uniquely suited to both the academic environment and a hierarchical environment (Gronn, 2008; Harris, Jones, & Baba, 2013; Jones, Lefoe, Harvey, & Ryland, 2012), such as at University X. In the decoupled nature of universities (Kezar, 2014), it is possible to make distributed leadership effective, where the academic groups can be empowered, within reason, and carry out some autonomous tasks. In this way, heterarchical and hierarchical strategies can coalesce to form hybrid models where groups can engage in new ways and create different ontologies (Gronn, 2008). The application of distributed leadership in relation to the leadership problem is examined further in the Leadership Approaches to Change section of Chapter 2.

Jones et al. (2012) described that to develop a faculty of scholars, the group needs to "adopt a praxis approach and focus on the operationalization of distributed leadership to build

leadership capacity in learning and teaching" (p. 70). There are five dimensions of distributed leadership to consider, which include context, both internal and external; culture; change; relationships; and activity (Jones et al., 2012). These dimensions can be achieved by involving people, across departments, and establishing systematic processes, which I discuss in the Possible Solutions section of Chapter 2 and consider in the change implementation plan and communication plan of Chapter 3. Layering the other leadership approaches discussed with the distributed leadership approach will strengthen trust and build a respectful, collaborative, reflective practice (Jones et al., 2012).

In short, to address the PoP, a multiperspectival leadership approach will be used that includes transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1978), servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977) and distributed leadership (Gronn, 2008; Spillane, 2006). Transformational leadership comprises a mix of attributes, servant leadership addresses a leader's attributes and behaviours, and distributed leadership speaks mostly to process. Used in combination or as the situation requires, all three leadership styles will be useful. Depending on the lifecycle of the change improvement implementation plan, and the various stakeholders I will interact with to see the project through, I will need to adapt the leadership approach to be able to articulate the change vision, to gain buy-in for the project, and to secure resources. Figure 1 shows the identified approaches as overlapping and merging with one another to illustrate their adaptability depending on circumstances as the plan progresses from concept to implementation. Chapter 2 examines how the proposed leadership approaches intersect with theory.

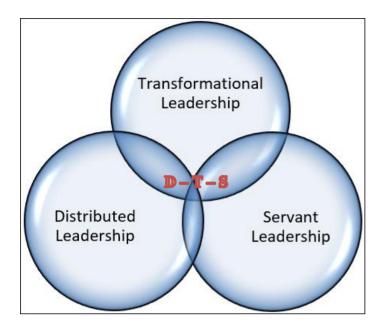


Figure 1. Three overlapping leadership approaches in the OIP.

The next section examines the theoretical frameworks I will use to examine the PoP and scaffold the OIP. These identified theories anchor the plan to existing literature and provide a scholarly, evidence-based approach to address the problem.

Theoretical framework. To analyze this PoP, I used a dual lens approach. Similar to, Galileo adding lenses to his telescope for better viewing, the dual lens approach allows for a crisper and more detailed analysis of the PoP (Bolman & Deal, 2017). To address a complex organizational problem, a multiple-congruent-lens perspective is better suited to ensure the scope is not too narrow and important factors are not overlooked (Bolman & Deal, 2017; Kezar & Eckel, 2000). The lenses of this OIP include Schein's (2017) organizational cultural theory and Bandura's (1997, 1999) cognitive theory as it relates to self-efficacy. This section examines these theories and their relationship to the PoP.

Albert Bandura is known as the father of social cognitive theory. According to Bandura (1999), social cognitive theory "is a model of interactive agency" (p. 22). Agency is defined as "the acts done intentionally" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3) and the ability to make things happen of one's

own actions (Bandura, 2001). Agency interacts with the environment, of which there are three types: imposed environment, over which the individual has little or no control; the selected environment, where the individual has choice with whom to associate; and the constructed environment which does not exist yet but is waiting to be selected and activated (Bandura, 1999). Elements affecting the person include cognitive, personal, and biological factors (Bandura, 1997). Human agency operates as the interdependence of a triadic reciprocal causation between the person, the environment, and behaviour (Bandura, 1997). The relationship is bidirectional, and the force of influence on each factor can vary (Bandura, 1997). This relational aspect of the model is important to the OIP because individual agency and the environments people construct have been shaped by the environment that is already around them. If people are to make changes, they need a shift in the status quo.

Given that people engage with agency in a reciprocal interplay with their environment, it is important to look at the drivers of such agency. Self-efficacy is defined as "the capacity to exercise self-influence by personal challenge through goal setting and evaluative reaction to one's own performances" (Bandura, 1999, p. 28). Self-efficacy becomes represented as one's personal beliefs, perceptions, motivations, and self-directedness (Bandura, 1997, 1999). One's self-efficacy or lack thereof defines how one sees the environment and interacts with it. It is not enough to look at the self, as the self does not exist in isolation, and that is why social cultural theory adopts a broader view of agency and extends it to include collective agency (Bandura, 1997). Collective agency is the shared belief of people's capabilities to produce effects as a group; it is not a sum of their personal agencies, but rather the product of interaction and collaboration (Bandura, 1997). How collective agency impacts the PoP is explored in the Framing the Problem of Practice section. To this end, the current state has shaped the self- and

collective efficacy leading to the problem, but through leadership actions, change can be leveraged into new opportunities.

The second lens used to examine the PoP is an organizational cultural lens. The previous lens looks more at the individual level, but the fact that people exist in organizational communities that give rise to their own unique cultures cannot be overlooked. Examination of culture can take a corporate cultural approach or an anthropological one (Manning, 2018). This OIP leans on Schein's (2017) organizational cultural theory. Schein (2017) defines culture as "the accumulated shared learning of a group as it solves problems of external adaptation and internal integration" (p. 6). Learned experiences that have worked well to solve problems become considered as the "correct way" (Schein, 2017, p. 6) of doing things and are passed onto new members. Furthermore, Schein (2017, p. 6) states, "This accumulated learning is a pattern or systems of beliefs, values, and norms, that come together to be taken for granted as basic assumptions and drop out of awareness" (2017, p. 6). Culture becomes woven into who people are, and it can subconsciously affect them as individuals. Depending on the culture, it can foster or hinder self-efficacy.

The three levels of culture Schein (2017) identified include artifacts, espoused beliefs and values, and basic underlying assumptions. At the artifact level are the behaviours observed in an organization, as well as rituals, language, and customs (Schein, 2017). The 'self' people present to the world is the most discernable aspect of culture. Espoused beliefs and values represent their ideals, goals, values, and aspirations (Schein, 2017). Schein stated that to figure out espoused beliefs, one should simply ask the question of a group's members. I think that just asking stakeholders of the interior design group would be difficult for me as a leader as I may receive

disingenuous answers. Other tools such as an arm's length survey or focus group may be more appropriate.

At this level of culture, people are still within the conscious domain, yet espoused beliefs do not account for all observable behaviours, thus revealing people's basic underlying assumptions (Schein, 2017). Underlying assumptions are the cultural DNA that take root with organizational founding members and are embedded so deep it may be hard to discern what they are. According to Schein, to discern basic assumptions one needs to look at incongruences between the observed behaviour and the basic assumptions. People's basic assumptions will betray them and be apparent in their behaviours, as it is their basic assumptions that define for them what they pay attention to and react to. Given the turnover in the interior design department, it is conceivable that the faculty group's basic assumptions are no longer in line with those of the organization, and these differences could be contributing to the dissonance between the faculty and administration.

Schein (2017) offered a lily pond metaphor for culture. This analogy resonates as it depicts the organic nature of an organization. The lily may not be as beautiful or healthy without the farmer (leadership), and the farmer may not be a farmer without the lilies in the pond. In the metaphor, the lilies represent the artifacts or culture, the espoused beliefs are the farmer's beliefs about the state of his lily pond, and the root and water system represent the basic assumptions, out of sight and unconscious, only to be considered when the blooms are no longer optimal. This analogy makes evident that leadership is relational, just as with Bandura's (1997) reciprocal determination. Thus, to bring about change at University X, the scope of improvement through altered processes must lead to cultural and personal change so that the change initiative becomes permanent.

For ease of representation to show how the organizational cultural framework of Schein (2017) intersects with Bandura's (1997, 1999) social cognitive theory, I have chosen to depict the cultural framework as a pyramid; this is consistent with other depictions of the model (see Figure 2).

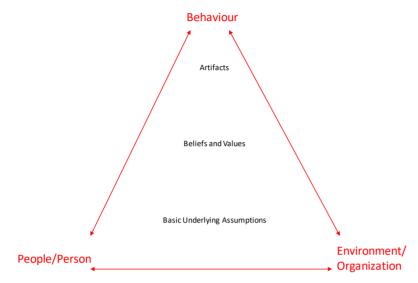


Figure 2. The conceptual framework of the OIP.

Adapted from "Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control," by A. Bandura, 1997, p. 6, and *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, 5th ed., by E. Schein, 2017, p. 18. Copyright 1997 by W. H. Freeman and Company and 2017 by Wiley, respectively.

Figure 2 represents the link between the two lenses. Schein's (2017) theory examining the macro context and Bandura's (1997) theory examining the micro aspects of the problem, which I discuss in subsequent sections. The two theories complement each other: the cultural theory was used to look at the organizational and departmental culture, and the social cognitive theory was used to examine individual agency, as well as the department as an individual component of the university; i.e., to examine its collective efficacy. As leader, I need to understand both the macro and micro contexts to plan and lead an effective change process.

This section has examined the three leadership approaches of transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1978), servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977), and distributed

leadership (Gronn, 2008; Spillane, 2006). Further sections in Chapter 2 explore how the leadership approaches will propel the plan to address the PoP forward. The dual-lens perspective anchors the PoP to organizational cultural theory (Schein, 2017) and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997, 1999). This dual approach is necessary to examine the problem from the macro view of the university and the micro view of the individual and group. The next section explores the leadership PoP.

Leadership Problem of Practice

Obviously, a gap exists between the current practices that have precipitated the organizational problem and the altered practices that will bring about a more desirable organizational state. The leadership PoP to be addressed is the lack of a methodical approach to foster faculty engagement practices which involve new and current faculty of an interior design program at a Canadian private for-profit university. Involvement, as it pertains to this PoP, refers to faculty participating in on-boarding orienteering and continuous improvement activities that will make them more engaged and committed to teaching excellence. Methodical approaches refer to organized and purposeful ways of interacting that are relevant to the growth of the department and the change initiative. University X believes that through this commitment to teaching, student achievement data, attrition rates, graduation rates, and student satisfaction rates will significantly improve.

The Program Chair and Academic Dean endeavour to work collaboratively with groups responsible for faculty on-boarding such as human resources and the faculty development team. Gaps exist between the current state and the expectations of senior administrators with respect to the quality of teaching and service levels to students. University X hires faculty for their credentials, industry, and teaching experience, yet faculty can be unprepared for teaching

(Hénard & Roseveare, 2012) and sometimes resistant (Gaubatz & Ensminger, 2017; Thian, Alam, & Idris, 2016) to align with university expectations of teaching excellence. Many new faculty members, especially those newly recruited from the industry, have little teaching experience or no North American teaching experience. The lack of experience creates a dissonance between what faculty believe to be sound teaching approaches and the university expectations for teaching excellence that go beyond subject matter expertise and the sage-on-the-stage approach (Stabile, 2014). The university appreciates a humanistic-centered approach to education as espoused by its pillars of flexibility, accessibility, and rigour. Humanistic education is concerned with students' choice and control over their studies, which values each student as a whole person, and the role of the teacher is that of a facilitator (Aloni, as cited in Veugelers, 2011). These may be new ways of engaging for an educator or faculty with little experience.

The credentials required to teach in this program are specific (CIDA, 2020), and the candidate pool is small. Thus, University X has little choice when recruiting faculty. Faculty members are hired on part-time, adjunct contracts and are not compensated for extra-curricular activities such as attending meetings or holding office hours; this practice is consistent with other universities and colleges in the province (Brownlee, 2015). This precarious nature of engagement may contribute to faculty's lack of best practices when engaged in teaching (Stupinsky, Brckalorenz, Yuhas, & Guay, 2018), thus affecting teaching excellence and student achievement data. Yet, through a top-down, managerial style (A. Taylor, 2017), senior administrators expect faculty to engage in optimal teaching practices. However, Booton (2016) has pointed out that influencing academic quality is not a one-sided approach on the part of the faculty, but rather a joint venture including university administrators.

Dissonance of expectations exists between the way faculty see themselves in the organization and how they relate to the organization, compared to the expectations that administrators have of how faculty ought to engage with administration, one another, and students. This dichotomy leads to real or perceived ontologies that may or may not be accurate. Regardless of accuracy, the lack of harmony can lead to contention. Hence, the dual-theoretical lens is useful to analyze the PoP in greater depth in the next section. Looking through Bandura's (1997) reciprocal determination lens, it can be discerned that an ever-changing work environment, the fast-paced quarter nature of the term, and limited governance opportunities have led to car-to-class and class-to-car behaviours from this faculty group. Contributing to the problem has been the absence of consistent leadership in the form of a Program Chair. In the last six years, the program has cycled through five Program Chairs, and now, working with the sixth. As an Academic Dean, I am somewhat removed from the day-to-day operations to be able to interact with faculty on a regular basis. Looking through the cultural lens of Schein (2017), it is conceivable that a program subculture may have evolved that is not consistent with that of University X, and it is conceivable it is not even a collegial culture (Manning, 2018) because many new faculty have little teaching experience and are new to university practices.

The identified problem is multifaceted and precipitated by internal and external pressures. The next section frames the problem and the forces that have shaped it. The dual organizational cultural and social cognitive lenses (Bandura, 1997; Schein, 2017) inform this framing.

Framing the Problem of Practice

This section provides a historical overview of the problem and examines some of the underlying concerns by applying the dual lens theory of organizational cultures (Schein, 2017) and aspects of social cognitive theory, namely self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Also, the results

from a political, economic, social, technological, and environmental (PESTE) analysis are discussed relative to the proposed framework.

Historical overview. Pivotal for the improvement plan is the leadership PoP and understanding its context. The problem is the lack of a methodical approach to foster faculty engagement practices which involve new and current faculty of an interior design program at a Canadian private for-profit university. Faculty are either inexperienced with modern pedagogical practices or are resistant to change their ways to align with university expectations. This problem is further confounded by the small pool of eligible candidates because faculty credential requirements are specified by both the accreditation body and the provincial regulator; although the requirements between the two sources differ, both need to be met. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) has recognized that such skill gaps exist and has produced documents to foster teaching quality in education (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012). Bridging the skills gap is difficult when most universities, University X included, contract academic labour from term to term (Brownlee, 2015). The casualization of faculty reduces opportunities for commitment building and creates poor organizational relations. Other than a full-time Program Chair, the program has only one other full-time faculty. Faculty can teach online, on campus, or a combination of deliveries per term. By and large, remotely located online faculty have the least interaction with the main campus and receive the least attention (Luna, 2018).

Known as the ability to believe in one's efforts to be successful, self-efficacy shapes how a person functions in a collective group or an organization. The four main components of self-efficacy include experience, social modeling, social persuasion, and emotional or physical reaction (Bandura, 1997; Rowbotham, 2015). According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is

cultivated through perseverance and the overcoming of obstacles in adversity. Thus, faculty selfefficacy would increase the more proficient they become with the subject matter and the teaching process. When opportunities to develop effective teaching practices are insufficient, then selfefficacy is diminished, which in turn affects behaviours or the artifacts of the organizational culture (Bandura, 1997; Schein, 2017). Social modeling is the act of emulating behaviours one sees as productive in others to improve one's own productivity (Bandura, 1997). Modeling can be a strategy to influence self-efficacy which manifests the artifacts, espoused beliefs, and values. The cheerleading element of social persuasion makes others believe they can be successful (Rowbotham, 2015). However, without formal networks or processes where such appraisals can be made, it is difficult to foster positive self-efficacy. Culture is multilayered, like the layers of an onion, and closer examination of the layers in action reveals that some underlying assumptions in the interior design department may not be congruent with the university's espoused beliefs (Schein, 2017); that is, administrators say they want faculty to be successful, but they do not provide the most organized processes by which to gain appraisal and feedback. Lastly, the perception of emotional and physical reactions affects the self-efficacy outlook (Bandura, 1997). These four elements shape personal and collective self-efficacy, which are key determinants in the triadic reciprocal causation path of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997).

The individual or the collective self-efficacy of the interior design program in turn affects the organizational culture on all three levels, as described by Schein (2017). The various elements of self-efficacy have a root in either artifacts, espoused values, or underlying values, as explained above. When left without a strong organizational support base to foster faculty involvement and channel interest towards teaching excellence, it is of no surprise that a

counterculture or subculture could emerge (Schein, 2017). This subculture not only would share the specialized knowledge and language of the discipline, but also the history of its perceived sidelining from the organization; it would create its own saga of perceived powerlessness and give rise to its own values and assumptions (Manning, 2018). Thus, the faculty group would distance itself more and more from the organizational culture.

The way forward is through the application of the dual yet congruent theories explained so far, for which both social cognitive theory and organizational cultural theory have learning at their centre (Bandura, 1997; Schein, 2017). In Chapter 2, the Leadership Approaches to Change section examines how the three leadership styles discussed thus far also contribute to learning. This OIP aims to create second-order change, that is permanent and lasting change. In addition to implementing new processes, it also aspires to build a networked learning community and create cultural shifts (Kezar, 2014). Though leadership, learning, and collective-efficacy, it will challenge existing faculty to consider new ontologies and create new schemas. Some will embrace this new world, some may emerge as leaders in mentorship initiatives, some may be resistant but willing to be persuaded, and some may never change.

PESTE factor analysis. This section examines the PoP in the political, economic, social, technological, and environmental (PESTE) milieu. The PESTE factor analysis examines a macro perspective, such as external influencers on the institution and the problem; meso concerns that are organizationally centered issues; and micro concerns that are programmatic issues. Thus, the meso and micro perspectives are considered the internal influencers.

Political. From a macro perspective, program administrators need to be aware of and compliant with legislation and accreditation requirements. Failure to comply may lead to the end of the program. At the meso level, they need to be concerned with program competitiveness

among other programs in the university and make sure it is a positive contributor. Quarterly, reports have indicated that the retention rate for this program, especially for online delivery, is down by 10 percent compared to the other undergraduate program; citation for this has been withheld for reasons of confidentiality. Political considerations at the micro level include resistance from individual faculty and a lack of desire to participate in new initiatives. Faculty may find safety in the status quo (Padree, 1990; Maslow, 1954), and new initiatives require changes to personal agency (Bandura, 1999).

Economic. At the macro level, program leaders need to consider the value being offered for the cost of program tuition. As a private for-profit university, there is no governmental subsidy to tuition; thus, tuition fees are higher than for comparable programs. At the same time, students have expectations in return for these fees. These expectations include having concerned and approachable faculty who value students and approach their classes with humanistic traits and less authoritarian ones. At the meso level, economically, the program must be a positive contributor to the university's bottom line. This outcome can only be achieved with improved retention and completion rates, factors that are believed to be mitigated by a change in faculty engagement. At the micro level, faculty compensation and positions, such as full-time or adjunct, may affect the social cognitive underpinnings, possibly as extrinsic motivators (Herzberg, 1987).

Social. At the macro level, socially, faculty may compare themselves with colleagues in similar programs at other institutions. There are several other similar accredited programs within driving distance (CIDA, 2020). This comparison may lead faculty to believe the grass is greener on the other side. However, comparison is not equivalent, as there are some fundamental differences. At University X, the curriculum development process is different from the competition, and there are fewer weeks of instruction per term. Course compensation may be less

than for competing programs; however, faculty may teach more courses per year due to the continuous enrollment model, thereby having the potential to earn the same or more as those in competing programs.

At the meso level, socially, the faculty group used to be the dominant group on campus, but it has now become second to the fast-growing Bachelor of Business Administration program, as evidenced by confidential weekly enrollment reports. A social factor to consider at the meso level is leveraging the two faculty groups to work in collaborative ways to enhance each other and create synergy. Socially, at the micro level, it is important to consider how to make the online faculty feel connected to the campus faculty and part of the university community (Luna, 2018).

Technological. The technological components are driven by meso influencers. The organization keenly seeks to research and develop a program reboot that will decrease the number of courses in the program to make it more attractive and competitive with respect to the macro level of the market. However, without the required credentialed faculty, corresponding level of engagement, and commitment from faculty, the current state may well be the program's death knell.

Environmental. Lastly, environmentally, at the macro level the program has the potential to leverage its online offerings, but complaints about online faculty being rigid and not understanding may preclude this growth (Luna, 2018). At the meso level, the campus student population is increasingly more international. The change in student demographics compounds the PoP further as faculty need to learn culturally sensitive techniques and approaches (LaFleche, Keung, & Teotonio, 2019). At the micro level, the program has had unstable program leadership with over five chairs in six years. This turnover has contributed to an uncertain work

environment and lack of a concerted vision. Given that a Program Chair is considered the lead teacher of the faculty, this individual will be a key change agent and driver of desired changes (Gaubatz & Ensminger, 2017; 2015).

The theoretical underpinnings of this OIP are grounded in the social cognitive (Bandura, 2001; 1999; 1997) and organizational cultural theories (Schein, 2017). The lack of a methodical approach to foster faculty engagement faculty in teaching and learning practices that are aligned with university mission and vision is the concern to be addressed through these dual lenses.

Leadership and suggested improvements from Chapter 2 will be important to foster agency within the interior design faculty, resulting in growth and change emerging at the grassroots level, rather than having it be imposed by the hegemonic group.

Guiding Questions Emerging From the Problem of Practice

The leadership PoP focuses on the lack of a methodical approach to foster faculty engagement practices which involve new and current faculty of an interior design program in onboarding and continuous improvement activities that will increase their commitment to teaching excellence. Faculty are hired on a contract, term-by-term basis, and the program runs continually on the quarter system. There is little downtime between terms to recharge, engage in new developments, or foster community; additionally, one third of the faculty is remote because they only teach online.

University leadership has taken note of this situation and would like to see initiatives that would improve student achievement data, including retention, attrition, and graduation rates, and improve student satisfaction. Improved class attendance would be another indicator to measure the effect of planned improvements.

University X has nascent origins and is still working to establish market niche and brand recognition. The interior design program has competition from other programs (CIDA, 2020). The program's main draws include tutorial-like small classes and flexibility to complete the program online. This edge is diminishing as online retention rates are lower than the on-campus course equivalents.

Recruiting qualified faculty for this program has both accreditation and ministry constraints. From the ministry perspective, faculty need to have one degree higher in a related discipline; that is, a Master's degree. From an accreditation perspective, faculty who teach studios need to be credentialed with the required industry licensing examination (CIDA, 2020). Likewise, it is not recommended to have too many faculty purely with architectural backgrounds as this is an interior-focused program, and architects focus primarily on the building envelope. Against this backdrop of the leadership PoP, guiding questions emerge. As the university strives to grow and more than double its student body (the current university population is about 7,000 and the program population is about 450 students) citation withheld for confidentiality, the following guiding questions need to be considered in the OIP:

- How can faculty integrate into the wider organizational tapestry to learn about expectations such as operational goals?
- How can it be ensured that faculty become active participants in the change process and not merely silenced actors?

Proposed solutions, implementation and communication plans, and measurement of outcomes need to consider all actors, faculty and administration alike. To address the PoP and these guiding questions, the dual organizational cultural and social cognitive lenses (Bandura, 1997, 2001; Schein, 2017) will help guide stakeholders to suitable outcomes. Leaders and change

agents need to understand how the faculty see themselves in the organizational context and how the organization affects the faculty in a symbiotic relationship.

Power is relational, and it becomes realized through the various actors' subjective realties (Bacchi & Goodwin, 2016). It is important to consider the power imbalance and how it has maintained the hegemonic status quo and perhaps contributed to the micro-aggressions of the subjectified faculty. Changing the status quo requires faculty to become active participants in their program and governance activities, and contribute to the university community. As the problem is acted on via an improvement plan and guiding questions are considered, it is important to be mindful of possible new problems, consider the faculty's readiness for change, and address other possible limitations.

Leadership-Focused Vision for Change

This section addresses the gap between the present and future state, identifies priorities for change, and examines the PoP change drivers.

The gap between the present and the future. The leadership problem has identified gaps between the present, problematic state and the desired future condition. The evident gap is the dissonance between the expectations of senior administrators, with respect to the quality of teaching and learning, and service levels to students, as delivered by faculty. There is no formalized process of communicating student achievement data with faculty, nor is there a formalized or consistent faculty review process. Faculty reviews that have taken place have not been tied to any performance measures and are more of a formality. Thus, faculty have had no real reason to believe they are lacking in delivering quality teaching and learning. However, without the requisite data and in the absence of a formalized processes to measure such activities, how can faculty possibility manage to meet expectations? The faculty group, once the dominant

faculty on campus, feels marginalized due to the rapid growth of the other undergraduate program. This situation exacerbates the gap and further erodes faculty's sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) and self-confidence.

The future state seeks to create a more engaged faculty group, connected with the rest of the university community. The faculty may understand the university's purpose, but without clearly defined goals, as explained above, they are not anchored to the espoused beliefs of the main organizational culture (Schein, 2017). Due to this gap, faculty have created their own mental models or schema of their perceived environment and interact with it accordingly (Zimmerman, 2006). If mindsets become rigid, then growth and acceptance of change will be difficult as a deterministic worldview grips the faculty mental models (Dweck, 2008). The desired outcome is the creation of new mental models through leadership initiatives and planned improvements. When faculty interact with the wider university community and are active in diverse activities, from course redevelopment to governance roles, these activities will bring about changes in their cognitive schema, individual self-efficacy, and internal motivation (Stupinsky et al., 2018). The renewed energy will be channeled to engage with students in ways that are relationship building compared to transactional faculty-student relations. Enhanced faculty efficacy will in turn motivate students, increase their self-efficacy, and positively affect student achievement data (Zimmerman, 2006).

Priorities for change. The scope of the problem to be solved will be accomplished through planned, incremental change, where leaders and followers make conscious efforts to respond and work collaboratively (Nahavandi, 2015). Chapter 2 expands on how the establishment of networks relying on distributed leadership will aid in this process. To achieve results, a change vision is needed to convey the general direction of change, to motivate all

stakeholders, and to coordinate the actions of different groups (Kotter, 2012). The change vision needs to be situated in the organizational context and address why the organization is embarking on this change, why it is necessary, and why it needs to happen now. A sense of critical urgency needs to drive the vision for change (Kotter, 2012). Together with the Program Chair, I will be instrumental in this process.

The vision for change needs to be connected to the theoretical underpinnings of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997) and organizational culture theory (Schein, 2017). Using the leadership theories identified for this OIP will help frame the actions for change and the process. Looking at the human resources frame of Bolman and Deal (2017) may be a beneficial adjunct to examine the human resource needs of the problem.

Stakeholders to consider include investors, administrative staff, faculty, and students. Stakeholders may have competing priorities, and due to the lack of organizational transparency, strategic plans and financial statements are not widely available to inform change decisions. Investors and select senior administrators are aware of organizational interests, and information is shared only with Deans and Program Chairs on an as-needed basis as it pertains to their programs and campus. The full picture of how proposed changes to this leadership problem will impact financials will be known only if senior administrators see that the changes could improve student achievement data, which improve revenue. Modeling the cost of proposed changes will not be immediately available and will be conducted outside of my purview of influence.

Faculty may initially be resistant of the change (Nahavandi, 2015; Zimmerman, 2006). Tucker (as cited in Mumby, 2005) explained that resistance is a "social-control directed upwards" (p. 30); essentially, it is a counter-hegemonic action. Through the various acts of resistance, faculty seek freedom from subjectification. Unfortunately, this narrative leads to the

creation of a subculture out of alignment with the university community and fails to effectively address the creation of a teaching and learning community where new faculty are mentored to be engaging and compassionate to student needs. Students as stakeholders are a unique group as they are both the consumers of the educational product and at the same time the product of the educational process. Feedback from this unique group will be key and will be further developed in the coming chapters.

The faculty group and administration may have various priorities but can be rallied together by articulating a cohesive vision for change (Cawsey, Deszca, & Ingols, 2016). The vision for change should be aligned with the mission, vision, and strategic direction of the organization. The vision for change will need to be articulated through dialogue as part of the relationship building and healing strategy, consistent with servant leadership initiatives (Greenleaf, 1977). The priorities for change include the establishment of a faculty preparedness model to develop effective and engaging teaching practices, and the establishment of a community of practice (CoP; Enerson, Plank, & Johnson, 1996; Kezar, 2014). Transformational leadership pushes the boundaries of the status quo. Hence, applying this leadership style to the problem by articulating goals and a clear change vision will motivate stakeholders to want to achieve something greater than their own self-interests, increase faculty satisfaction with their roles, and foster their commitment and motivation (Eliophotou-Menon & Ioannou, 2016).

Change drivers. The drivers of change are internal and external (Nahavandi, 2015).

Regulatory requirements mandate faculty credentials. The supply and demand of available faculty make recruiting difficult. Competition with other schools for students is a change driver. Improved metrics, such as graduation rates (Chan, 2015), will help inform student choice and in turn attract more students. Favourable metrics compared to the competition can be leveraged by

marketing, especially given that the program is more expensive than the competition's programs.

Remaining financially viable as a program, contributing to the bottom line, and staying competitive enough in the marketplace to continually attract students are external forces to consider.

Internal change drivers include low performance, new leadership, low satisfaction, and conflict (Nahavandi, 2015). There is conflict between the prevailing organizational culture of growth and development, and the departmental subculture of industry gate-keepers. As interior design is a regulated profession, faculty view it their responsibility to ensure they uphold the standards and rigor of the profession (Grady & Mr. S., 2009). The gate-keeper effect creates resistance to the growth of the student body, especially of students of international origin (LaFleche et al., 2019), who faculty believe are not prepared for the academic rigour of a preprofessional program.

Leadership, most notably senior leaders, are key drivers. Senior leaders work as change agents and influencers to improve deliverables (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012). As a leader from the middle, I can work as a change agent to influence in both directions of the organization. By applying a distributed leadership approach, leaders can effectively leverage vertical hierarchies and horizontal relationships (Manning, 2018). Gaubatz and Ensminger (2015) explained how departmental chairs are uniquely positioned between the administrators who create the policies and the faculty who transform them. A skilled leader in this position should balance the needs and expectations of both groups through distributed leadership (Gaubatz & Ensminger, 2015). A new Program Chair has recently been appointed for this program who has the drive, desire, and understanding of university life to create momentum and move the problem to action. I will need to use social persuasion to maximize the Program Chair's self-efficacy (Rowbotham, 2015) to

ensure goal motivation is maintained. Together, we can create a change coalition to develop a guiding vision and disseminate it to the faculty group (Kotter, 212).

These leadership approaches are supported by Allen et al. (2016), who noted that distributed and transformational leadership approaches are suitable for change initiation in specialized, pre-professional programs. At the intersection of these two leadership styles, synergies are created and will be able to effect change. A change initiative needs not only a vision, but also an assessment of change readiness. This element is explored in the next section.

Organizational Change Readiness

Change readiness is a measure of confidence, backed by data but also subject to perception and judgment (Combe, 2014). Key drivers to consider are culture, commitment, and capacity readiness (Combe, 2014). It need not be that all drivers are present at the start of the implementation, but rather that a process is in place to keep these drivers in the foreground and measure against them as change progresses. Cawsey et al. (2016) defined change readiness as the organization's perceived need for change and acceptance that change is necessary. The degree of change readiness between stakeholders can vary and depends on past experiences with organizational change.

Schein (2017) explained that to understand change culture, people need to understand how the change process works in humans. Social cognitive theory is concerned with the personal aspects of change, whereas efficacy beliefs determine if individuals are even considering change, have the motivation and perseverance to succeed, and can recover from setbacks and sustain the new changes (Bandura, 1997).

According to Cawsey et al. (2016), the mere dissatisfaction with the status quo on the part of administrators is not enough to create and drive change. The faculty group needs to have

similar desires for change to create lasting second-order change. Schein's (2017) general change theory is based on the famous work of Lewin, who postulated that behaviour is dependent on the person and the environmental context (as cited in Spector, 2013). These are the same three factors of Bandura's (1997) triadic reciprocal determination concept, indicating the close connection between the individual and the organization.

The first step of Schein's (2017) general change theory speaks to creating the motivation for change, or "unfreezing" (p. 323). Sharing the declining student achievement data that is publicly reported to the accreditation body is a step in the disconfirmation process—the means of demonstrating that goals are not being met or processes are not working as they should (Schein, 2017). Making these data known to the faculty may promote what Schein called survival and learning anxiety. Recently, senior administrators have decided to reshuffle the department administrative positions in hopes of bringing about changes. These changes are certainly causing faculty angst. As faculty endeavor to balance their professional ethics, with what is fair for the student and administrative changes, no doubt a level of anxiety prevails (Grady & Mr. S., 2009). Learning anxiety needs to be reduced (Schein, 2017) to create psychological safety and to not diminish the collective efficacy further. Even though the new Program Chair has been provided mandates to achieve, change agents need to ensure there is sufficient physiological safety to overcome anxieties.

Weiner's (2009) work on organizational change readiness also draws on social cognitive theory, which suggests that when organizational change readiness is high, members are willing to engage with the changes. When members demonstrate motivation and self-efficacy, then readiness for change is also high (Weiner, 2019). A barrier to this leadership problem is that most of the faculty are not aware of the leadership problem to be addressed. Through

disconfirmation practice, the sharing of information with faculty that does not align with their current knowledge of the organization (Schein, 2017), and crisis creation (Kotter, 2012), the resulting discomfort needs to be sufficiently high to hook the change process. However, Weiner has cautioned that there is "ambiguity over the meaning of organizational readiness for change and there is little theoretical grounded discussion of the determinants or outcomes of organizational readiness" (2009, p. 67). Thus, each organization needs to assess its change readiness in its own context and determine what "ready" means in each circumstance.

According to Cawsey et al. (2016), members of an organization are at different stages of change readiness, and this includes me as an agent of change. In this process, I will need to be reflective of my own behaviours and biases and make sure that what I project outwards is consistent with the changes required and the desired outcomes. It will be important to check doubts or frustrations so that these emotions will not creep out to affect the faculty group. I need to use leadership qualities and engage stakeholders with intentionality and mindfulness, which will allow me to build trusting relationships to create safety and engage in dialogue for change. This outcome can be achieved by using nurturing, listening, and coaching techniques from the transformational (Bass & Riggio, 2006) and servant (Greenleaf, 1977) leadership styles.

My selected leadership approaches to change will help with the tools selected to assess change readiness. One such tool would be the use of focus groups (Backer, David, & Saucy, 1995), specifically one led by an external specialist as recommended by Schein (2017). Using an external specialist will allow the faculty the safety to open up and share freely. As trust between administration and faculty needs to be strengthened, faculty may not be comfortable to share directly with administrators. Creating dialogue will help tease out historical origins of resistance and begin to build new values, create new rituals, and establish new ontologies (Kezar, 2014).

Second, a campus climate and morale survey (Buller, 2015), or some similar type of survey tool, could be used to determine what may be missing or what can be added from the faculty perspective. Such a proposed survey tool would be anonymous and voluntary. University X is currently engaged in such a survey; findings from this survey may be available soon and could inform other aspects of the OIP development. However, Schein (2017) counseled on the judicious use of surveys. According to him, surveys may make faculty think about areas they have never thought about before, and when asked to provide opinions, if feedback provided is not acted upon, then faculty morale will suffer further. This may be a risk worth taking as some data is better than no data, and findings may reveal if there is a subculture difference and establish a profile of the organization at this present time (Schein, 2017).

Lastly, each of the policy levers developed by Hénard and Roseveare (2012) to assist in fostering quality teaching in higher education could be presented with a self-assessment survey, in which participants rank the current situation and its relative importance. To assess change readiness, faculty could be asked to complete these surveys, followed by summarizing the findings and sharing with stakeholders.

In addition to considering the person or group, and the new desired behaviours, consideration of the environment is equally important. The environment can be shaped by internal as well as external forces; these were examined in the PESTE analysis section. A tally of the internal and external forces reveals that this PoP is mainly driven by internal factors.

Readiness for organizational change is subjective; however, the strength of the readiness indicators are good predictors for successful change implementation (Weiner, 2009). Schein's (2017) three-part general change theory informs the change process. The first stage of unfreezing, or creating the motivation for change, aids in the readiness for change stage. The

second stage, learning new concepts, and the third, internalizing new concepts (Schein, 2017), are explored in coming chapters. Tools for assessment of change readiness include surveys and focus groups, preferably with the aid of a third party. The PESTE analysis confirms the forces of change are predominately internal. Senior administration has recognized the need for change and is prepared to support change initiatives. The interior design faculty group is experiencing several simultaneous confouding events, which will tip the balance in favour of change or at least the recognized need to embrace change.

Chapter Summary

A leadership problem is evident in the undergraduate program at a Canadian for-profit university. A methodical approach to engage the faculty in quality teaching and learning practices is lacking. The PESTE analysis reveals internal and external pressures for change. Change is needed to ensure the program remains viable and contributes to the university. A main barrier in approaching this problem is the lack of faculty participation within their program and the university at large. Senior administrators express concern that because of these behaviours, student achievement data are slipping. These concerns are underpinned by cultural theories, namely the evolution of subcultures and their intersection with the organizational culture, and social cognitive theories of self-efficacy and motivation. In this situation, leadership practices will include transformational leadership, servant leadership, and distributed leadership, forged into a distributed-trans-servant style developed for this OIP.

The next chapter explores leadership approaches to change, the framework for the change process, and a critical organizational analysis. The chapter further investigates possible solutions to the leadership problem and reflects on ethical implications to organizational change.

Chapter 2: Planning and Development

This chapter of the OIP covers planning and development as they relate to the identified problem. First, the Leadership Approaches to Change section examines more closely the triphasic leadership model consisting of servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977), transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Russell & Stone, 2002), and distributive leadership (Gronn, 2008; Spillane, 2006) styles. Leadership approaches are then examined as they intersect with the proposed OIP framework. The critical organizational analysis section identifies gaps, which inform the development of three appropriate solutions. Lastly, the chapter looks at organizational ethics and any challenges they may present for the OIP process.

Leadership Approaches to Change

This section examines how the chosen leadership approaches will propel change forward in relation to the lack of a systematic approach to foster faculty engagement practices for new and existing faculty of an interior design undergraduate program. The leadership approaches to inform the PoP include servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977), transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006), and distributed leadership (Gronn, 2008). One leadership approach is not sufficient; thus, using a triphasic approach will help mobilize different stages of the change. Servant leadership will mitigate resistance, distributed leadership will empower diverse group members with authority and tasks, and, through transformational leadership, group members will be motivated to achieve goals greater than their own immediate needs.

Servant leadership. Strained faculty–administration relationships need to be mended to move forward with the change process and implement the new vision, thus I have chosen to consider servant leadership approaches (Greenleaf, 1977) first. The new vision is that of a faculty prepared to engage with students using effective teaching practices and interact in collegial ways

to sustain one another, grow the program, contribute to student success, and actively participate in university events.

According to Greenleaf (1977), the servant leader serves both the person and the institution. However, primary concern is for the person, which sometimes stands in conflict with the organization; these actions of advocating for faculty build trust. Applying Sergiovanni's (2005) four leadership virtues of hope, trust, piety, and civility, I could shore up faculty needs. Hope would provide the agency needed to meet the change goal. Trust needs to be nurtured with members who are skeptical of change. According to Tierney (2008), trust is a complex construct that can be conditional, evolving from shared experiences and prior learning. The lack of trust among faculty and administrators may be a contributing factor to the PoP. The virtue of piety asks that as a leader, I look inward, consult with faculty, and involve them as active participants (Sergiovanni, 2005). Finally, civility speaks to honouring diversity and the possibility of alternate approaches not foreseen.

Rounding out the approaches of servant leadership includes the selfless, intrinsic interests of putting group members' needs forward, advocating for their needs, having foresight, and cultivating inner strength (Ragnarsson, Kristjánsdóttir, & Gunnarstottir, 2018). As a leader in the middle, and having been with the organization for over a decade, I am fortunate to have the foresight (Greenleaf, 1977; Northouse, 2016), to know the group's history, understand the current problem, and work with both faculty and administrators to bridge the relationship gap. Through my consistent, respectful approach of relating to faculty over the years, I have been able to foster a high level of trust (Stone et al., 2004). Through my actions, I hope to model effective communication patterns and engagement so that together faculty and leaders are part of the change (Stone et al., 2004). For me, practices that I need to improve on include being even more

accessible to faculty beyond my open-door policy, especially to those who are remote and online; this could include calling at regular intervals during the term.

Ragnarsson et al. (2018) described inner strength as recognizing strengths, weaknesses, goals, ideals, and the effect of one's words and actions. That is why, as a leader, I need to pause, reflect on my own actions, and ask myself if I am serving to the best of my abilities and for the best interests of faculty. Through renewed communication practices, such as meetings and e-bulletins, faculty self-reflection should be encouraged as well. In this way, a process of continuous improvement emerges. Faculty efficacy is strengthened though collective commitments (Sergiovanni, 2005), and empowered faculty will act as confident agents and be servant leaders themselves for their students (Greenleaf, 1977).

Although Russell and Stone (2002) critiqued servant leadership as being somewhat undefined and not supported by substantial empirical research, the mostly attributional model is still a beneficial approach to the OIP because of its follower-centered underpinnings. It is important to listen and empower followers in the change so that the change has a higher probability of success.

Transformational leadership. Compared to servant leadership, which is follower centric, transformational leadership is focused on the organization (Stone et al., 2004).

Techniques of transformational leadership are appropriate the PoP because they speak of transformation and change (Bass & Riggio, 2006), and departmental practices need to change to address the lack of a systematic approach to engage faculty in effective teaching and learning practices. Transformational leadership is attribution based, and its systems focus on the four I's: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and idealized consideration (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Through strategic use of the Four I's (Bass & Riggio, 2006), as the

leader, I can inspire or create the buzz of the vision and enhance team spirit and motivation by stimulating the group to problem-solve together, as well as adapt my approaches to the needs of individuals. As a transformational leader leading this OIP, I would be the public relations person of the organization campaigning for change. Through intellectual stimulation and collaboration for something greater, faculty would become part of the problem-solving process, which is much more effective than relying on charismatic rhetoric.

A main difference between transformational leadership and servant leadership is risk-taking (Stone et al., 2004). Risk-taking behaviour will need to be more prominent as the new vision for change is articulated. This shift is likely to bring about feelings of anxiety and resistance (Schein, 2017) as the faculty group have not really engaged in large-scale collaborations and changes before. I elaborate on this idea in the next section. At the heart of change is learning; as explained by the second stage of Schein's (2017) general change theory. Burns (1978) stated, "The force that may be most important in shaping most leaders is learning" (p. 63); this includes learning from experience, from others, and from successes and failures. Given that learning is important in change, it is not just the leaders who should be engaged in it. With effective coaching and teaching from the servant leadership approach, and effective mentoring and individualized consideration from transformational leadership (Stone et al., 2004), faculty will be primed to learn and ready to participate, such as by using the next approach, distributed leadership. Distributed leadership is inclusive of faculty participation and important for the implementation of the change.

Distributed leadership. There is no specific model to explain distributed leadership, and the form it takes is context dependent, which is most effective when fundamental principles of trust and truth have been established (McKenzie & Locke, 2014; Woods, Bennet, Harvey, &

Wise, 2004). Critics of distributed leadership theory view it as a management theory with a cultural shift (Hartley, 2007). According to Hartley (2007), the theory can be appealing as it gives the air of democracy even in top-down style organizations.

The key difference between distributed leadership and transformational or servant leadership is that the attributes of leadership are evident in the group, not the leader; leadership is stretched among members (Spillane, 2006). The attributes of distributed leadership include experience and expertise as distributed among many, where the boundary of leadership is not set and can be large, and where leadership is a property of the group or a network of individuals (Woods et al., 2004). Thus, distributed leadership will be a method to leverage and establish the proposed changes to achieve the change vision. Once basic needs, such as faculty safety (Maslow, 1954), have been met, faculty will display increased self-efficacy traits, including confidence and motivation. With increased agency (Woods et al., 2004), faculty will be ready for distributed leadership activities such as communities of practice (Woods et al., 2004). I chose to discuss this leadership approach last because to bring about change, the group first needs to mobilize its core beliefs, values, and even basic assumptions away from the status quo and then move to use its distributed powers (Schein, 2017).

Distributed-transformational-servant leadership. As shown in Figure 3, I have chosen to depict the proposed distributed-transformational-servant (D-T-S) leadership approach as interlocking rings: Leadership is not one entity but rather a process occurring when people come together to work towards a goal. The various approaches overlap as circumstances require, and some approaches may be more dominant in certain situations or when interacting with different organizational actors; hence the overlapping of circles. At the heart of the overlapping circles is what I call the change zone, which is characterized by self-reflection, learning, and leadership.

When enacting all three zones, one can be most transformational, energized, and ready for action.

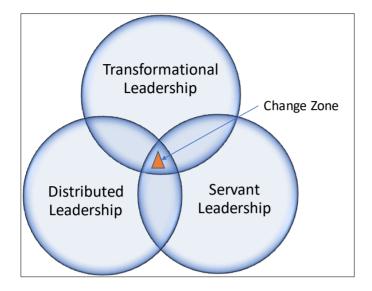


Figure 3. The distributed-transformational-servant leadership (D-T-S) model.

Each leadership approach outlined in Figure 3, addresses different group needs in the change process: the individual using servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977), the organization using transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1978), and the group influenced by distributed leadership (Gronn, 2008). Leveraging all three approaches creates the change zone, where people and processes are aligned and ready for action, as shown in Figure 3. The next section examines the framework for leading the change process, looking at how the D-T-S model supports the process of organizational change in relation to the PoP. Significant in Figure 3 is the change zone that is important to me as a leader to be able to heal from the experiences of the past with the program and to be able to move to the future. I will leverage the change zone and teach other change agents the power of the change zone so that they can become effective in mobilizing the change vision.

Framework for Leading the Change Process

This section explores how change will take place using the framework discussed in Chapter 1. A dual lens approach combining social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1997) and Schein's (2017) organizational cultural model was explained in Chapter 1 as the proposed framework to inform the PoP and support the D-T-S leadership model discussed above.

First, I examine the framework of the dual lenses. Figure 2, p. 19, illustrates how the reciprocal determinism aspect of Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory encircles and interacts with Schein's (2017) classic organizational cultural model. Over time, the classical organizational cultural model evolved from an iceberg metaphor to a lily pond (Schein, 2017), which depicts the organic nature of an organization better than the static or possibly melting condition of an iceberg. Schein informed that one way to go about change is to work on the beliefs and values of the team, and in turn new artifacts and behaviours will be generated. This approach may not be one to achieve results, as it is difficult to clearly connect beliefs and behaviours with the employees of University X. Schein advised that a better approach is to focus on changing behaviours by clearly articulating expected outcomes and putting training and supports in place to reinforce the initiative.

Thus, if behaviour is the target to affect change within the organization, then Bandura's (1977) reciprocal determinism addresses this component. Bandura (1977) explained reciprocal determinism as a bidirectional force between the three elements of the person, the environment, and the behaviour, where the sources of pressure need not be equal. The personal factor elements consist of the cognitive, affective, and biological events (Bandura, 1977). Because of this interplay, processing and interpreting these elements are unique to an individual. Thus, individuals are affected in different ways by the environmental element of the equation, interpret

organizational culture in different ways, and ultimately display various behaviours than other members even of the same team.

The triphasic D-T-S model will help me, as a change agent, to lead change and improve the PoP through the lenses of the proposed frameworks. The servant leadership approach (Greenleaf, 1977; Stone et al., 2004) focuses on the follower. Besides building trust, this approach helps to build the efficacy of faculty. Through coaching and mentoring practices (Stone et al., 2004), faculty initiative and motivation will be renewed. Transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Stone et al., 2004) is an approach to address changes in the environment, such as practices, policies, and processes. This approach focuses on both the people and the organization. Organizational attention needs to be maintained so that the reason for change is kept front and focused: improving faculty practices to ultimately impact student metrics positively. Eliophotou-Menon and Ioannouz's (2016) work has identified positive effects on faculty outcomes such as motivation, commitment, and even job satisfaction when transformational leadership is practiced. On the other hand, distributed leadership is more concerned with the practice of leadership (Spillane, 2006) among a group and making members active participants in the initiative. Identifying leaders within the group, delegating tasks, and empowering faculty is necessary not only to get through the proposed changes, but to develop internal champions to sustain the momentum of new initiatives. This factor is especially important given that each academic cycle is short and there is little downtime between terms. Figure 4 depicts the relationship between the OIP framework and the D-T-S leadership model developed for this OIP.

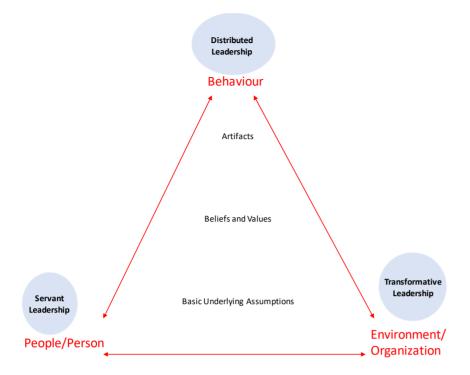


Figure 4. The relationship of the OIP conceptual framework to the D-T-S leadership model as adapted from the triadic reciprocal determination.

Adapted from "Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control," by A. Bandura, 1997, p. 6, and *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, 5th ed., by E. Schein, 2017, p. 18. Copyright 1997 by W. H. Freeman and Company and 2017 by Wiley, respectively.

Figure 4 diagrammatically explains how my framework for leading change intersects with the proposed D-T-S leadership model. The individual styles of the D-T-S leadership model are extrapolated to identify which aspect of the reciprocal determinism model the leadership elements are associated with. The people/person and environment/organization elements are in close relation to the base of the pyramid, basic underlying assumptions, because these factors are the most difficult to change. They are each associated with the servant leadership and transformational leadership approaches, respectively. By empowering and creating opportunities for distributed leadership, behaviours may change and lead to changes in artifacts. In time, there may be a trickle down to the lower level of the pyramid of beliefs and values. These would be

incremental changes, especially for a faculty with a low level of change readiness and low urgency to change (Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder, 1993).

Schein's (2017) general change theory, adapted from Lewin's original model, was first discussed in Chapter 1. The first stage, or unfreezing, is suitable to mobilize the momentum for change. The next two stages of the model help inform how to apply change in this OIP. The second stage of Schein's general change theory is a learning stage where new concepts are generated, old concepts are reconfigured, and new standards are formed. This stage is achieved through imitation and identification of role models, and fostering opportunities to learn and find answers together even by trial and error (Schein, 2017). This type of practice aligns with the reciprocal determinism elements depicted in Figure 4. Learning in new ways, the cognitive processes at the personal level are affected (Bandura, 1997, 2001), and this type of "cognitive redefinition" (Schein, 2017, p. 334) is needed to work on the core of learners' assumptions because altering behaviour alone is not enough to bring about lasting change.

As discussed in Chapter 1, according to Kotter (2012), a sense of crisis and a powerful change vision are needed to mobilize change. But confidence building is also necessary to overcome the created crisis (Armenakis et al., 1993). Creating discomfort is not enough to create change; efficacy of team members needs to be bolstered in consideration of the proposed changes (Armenakis et al., 1993; Bandura, 1997, 2001). This outcome can be achieved through persuasive communication (Armenakis et al.,1993; Bandura, 1997; Rowbotham, 2015). Faculty training initiatives need to be directed such that faculty efficacy is evident and the acquisition of occupational experiences is facilitated (Bandura, 1997). These characteristics can be fostered through active participation and faculty involvement (Armenakis et al., 1993; Bolman & Deal,

2017), and it can also be a way of learning, which is supported by Bandura's (1997, 2001) social cognitive theory.

The dual lens of the theoretical framework brings the leadership problem into perspective and, together with the D-T-S model of leadership, will help enact leadership to bring about change. However, what exactly needs to change? The critical organizational analysis in the next section helps to identify the needed changes.

Critical Organizational Analysis

The purpose of a critical organizational analysis is to examine an organization and identify its strengths, as well as areas in need of improvement, and make action plans accordingly. This section looks at the self-assessment tool designed by Hénard and Roseveare (2012), as sponsored by the OECD, in their work on quality teaching practices and policies in higher education. Hénard and Roseveare's self-assessment includes seven policy levers. This section examines the PoP considering each lever, looks through the dual theoretical lenses which underpin the OIP, and identifies needed changes. The section also considers the change readiness findings and PESTE analysis that was previously interrogated in Chapter 1. The interrogation in this section reflects on how internal and external factors act on the PoP.

An organizational analysis is unique, and even in the same organization findings may differ given temporal fluctuations of capacity and resources. The current problem is the lack of a methodical approach to involve new and current faculty of the interior design program in a private Canadian university in orientation, continuous improvement practices, and university services. This lack of engagement negatively impacts teaching excellence (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012; Rowbotham, 2015), thereby negatively affecting student achievement data.

The first policy lever, L1, is raising an awareness of quality teaching (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012). Even though new faculty partake in a three-session modular online faculty training workshop (FTW), there are hardly any on-the-ground orientations or connections with current faculty and current leadership. The FTW is conducted by the Associate Dean of Faculty Development, and the sessions are for all new faculty in a term regardless of delivery model or program affiliation. Of late, more customization of the FTW has been attempted, but it is still not tailored to specific departmental needs. Beyond the FTW, there is little departmental review or reinforcement of teaching and learning practices during the term, and these components become addressed only when a complaint arises. Faculty have minimal opportunities to engage in social learning or vicarious modelling interactions (Rowbotham, 2015). This deficiency leads to lower self-efficacy beliefs, thus affecting the reciprocal determinism relationship (Bandura, 1977, 1997, 2001). Change actions need to target on-boarding practices that are continuous over a longer period and facilitate collaborative opportunities. To address this change, new procedures and practices need to be created at the environmental and organizational levels of the framework.

The second lever, according to Hénard and Roseveare (2012), is developing excellent teachers (L2). Although the institution has defined policies for professional development and communicated them to the department over the years, no faculty has yet availed themselves of these opportunities. According to Stabile (2014), the actions—or lack of actions, in this case—are rooted in unconscious assumptions of teaching and learning excellence. As a change leader, I need to uncover these assumptions through coaching, mentoring, and role-modelling activities so that I can learn what faculty are thinking, share the beliefs and values of the organization (Schein, 2017), and develop faculty's sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997, 2001).

Hénard and Roseveare's (2012) third policy lever is engaging students (L3). Student feedback is obtained through student end-of-course surveys (SEOCS) each term, and results are distributed early in the next term. Given that the SEOCS response rate is very low, there are few meaningful data to extract and improve teaching practices. In the coming terms, the university will be retaining a third-party provider to administer the SEOCS using a unique platform. This approach is hoped to improve the response rate, as per pilot study results. Given that the SEOCS results will still be provided in the following term, the program needs to look at ways to obtain student feedback during the term and aim to make immediate adjustments. A quick feedback tool such as the Start-Stop-Continue exercise could be one way to rapidly obtain student feedback on what is working and not working, and adapt accordingly. As data from past SEOCS have been relatively unenlightening, corresponding values and beliefs have evolved to deem surveys as something that is done but not of terrible importance. These values and beliefs feed into the laissez-faire attitude towards the SEOCS (Schein, 2017). The areas of the OIP leadership framework relating to the environment/organization dimension need bolstering to ensure proper processes are in place to engage with students. Also, the people/person dimension of the framework needs attention to establish new values and beliefs with respect to the value of student input.

The fourth lever, L4, focuses on building the organization for change and teaching leadership (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012). This lever looks at teaching leadership capacity and an effective, integrated Quality Teaching Unit. The program has lacked consistent leadership, especially as it pertains to teaching. It has experienced significant Program Chair turnover, all whom have had diverse teaching experiences themselves. Thus far, there are no curricular stream leads or go-to lead faculty for the various subdisciplines of the program, except for studio

courses. Moreover, because there is no formal teaching leadership structure in place, there are no corresponding compensatory mechanisms. Thus, there would be little motivation for faculty to spontaneously create these activities as they have had no opportunity to observe social modelling in this context (Rowbotham, 2015). This situation points to a gap in the organizational/environmental segments of the framework, and because the gap has been present for some time, it affects the people/person segment of the fragment work.

The Quality Teaching Unit is a centralized university resource that supports delivery modalities and programs in all three provinces, yet it is staffed with one individual. This unit is remote to the campus, so making use of this resource seldom occurs, and the individual's visions do not align with departmental needs. When the individual attempts to collaborate with program personnel, interaction and response are suboptimal because they are consistently engaged in course delivery and have little downtime to pause, partake of suggested activities, or provide input and ideas on how the Quality Teaching Unit could help serve the program better. Closer examination of this phenomenon may not be the lack of time due to the quick pace of the term but a form of faculty resistance (Schein, 2017): The faculty have cocooned themselves in the program's subculture, and examination or input from an external source creates feelings of disconfirmation and anxiety. Thus, the faculty have created for themselves a psychological safety net by keeping other departments at arm's length. In this way, faculty remain frozen and unable to engage with change. Both the people aspect and the environment element of the OIP framework need to be addressed to close this gap. Using persuasive messaging consistent with servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1997), faculty can be reassured that the support from other groups is not outsiders looking in to find fault, but rather a means of investing in faculty and creating opportunities for development consistent with the human resource frame (Bolman & Deal,

2017). However, organizational practices need renewal to facilitate collaboration between faculty and the Quality Teaching Unit.

The fifth lever Hénard and Roseveare (2012) identified is the alignment of institutional policies to foster quality teaching (L5). Some key aspects to consider from this policy lever as they relate to the PoP are human resource policies of remuneration and technology policies as they support teaching. First, the majority of the interior design faculty are adjunct instructors, and there are no extra stipends to cover teaching and learning activities outside the classroom. Even faculty meetings are not compensated; hence, only about 50% of faculty attend departmental meetings. The visible artifacts are those of a class-to-car and car-to-class work approach (Schein, 2017).

External motivation with financial recognition may be an incentive for faculty to participate. However, Herzberg (1987) cautioned that just because a hygiene adjustment such as compensation takes place, it does not necessarily mean it will affect motivation. In addition to compensation, using the OIP framework with a focus on people, applying servant leadership techniques by explaining and modelling the expected behaviours of collaboration, and stressing that participation is part of professional development may eventually alter behaviours and may even reshape the group's values and beliefs as they relate to culture (Schein, 2017).

The second aspect of this lever is technology to support teaching. Again, in a centralized fashion, the university controls the course content through an instructional design team. This approach has its pros and cons. The course curriculum is designed in association with a subject matter expert, and the contents are consolidated in a master course syllabus. Contents are regenerated each term by the instructional design team. Courses are locked down in such a manner that faculty cannot make edits or changes without approval from the curriculum

committee. The pros of this method include accreditor approval of the program and confirmation of program consistency between the online and on-campus delivery models. The cons of this centralization result in a rigid process where even the smallest edits seem impossible, and the system is not nimble enough to make improvements. This prescription can be viewed as an encroachment on academic freedom as well. The required changes include university policies and practices that support greater liberty for faculty or the program to keep and maintain their own courses. Here, work is needed to change the artifacts, the master course syllabus, administration, and eventually the organizational belief in such command and control practices (Schein, 2017).

The penultimate lever, L6, is highlighting innovation as a driver for change (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012). This lever speaks to thinking outside the box not only about ideas but also in practice. As the on-campus student demographic is shifting to mostly international students (LaFleche et al., 2019), this program is not equipped for the accompanying challenges, as most of the student body has been mature, second-degree or second-career students. To address this lever, the program could collaborate across departments with the other undergraduate program on campus and work together to find ways to engage students and create common student retention strategies, as the student demographic is similar (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012). Policies and practices need to be aimed at the organizational level of the OIP framework to create the spirit of interdepartmental collaboration.

The last lever, L7, is the assessment of impacts (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012). Assessment of teaching quality has been sporadic due to frequent program leadership change. Assessments have been mainly limited to SEOCS results. Revival of yearly faculty appraisal practices is one way to address this gap. This practice could change organizational practices and at the same time

address the person segment because it is an opportunity to give explicit feedback on behaviour and explain desired values and beliefs (Schein, 2017). The absence of consistent feedback practices has allowed for laissez-faire attitudes to take root within the faculty. Renewed accountability practices could create survival anxiety or guilt, as explained by Schein (2017), but using the D-T-S leadership model should help mitigate this concern and reassure faculty that the priority is on psychological safety, and new practices are meant to help elevate the level of teaching quality. By focusing on renewed organizational practices, reciprocal determinism will influence change on the personal and behavioural elements of the framework.

Table 1 summarizes Hénard and Roseveare's (2012) suggested policy levers to assess the policies and practices of quality teaching, which I have used to assess the gaps of the PoP. Table 1 identifies the perceived gap associated with each lever and identifies needed changes; it also identifies where change needs to start in accordance with the OIP leadership framework developed in the previous section. Focusing on the environmental/organizational and person/people segments of the reciprocal determinism part of the OIP framework will lead to behavioural changes, and because of the bidirectionality of the model, renewed, repeated, and reinforced behaviours will in turn lead to changes in values and beliefs, and eventually basic assumptions.

Table 1

Gaps as Identified by the Critical Organizational Analysis

Policy lever	Gap	What to change	OIP leadership framework area to focus on
L1: Raising awareness of quality teaching	On-boarding of new faculty not tailored to departmental needs but rather organizational needs	Longer periods of on-boarding; more collaborative opportunities to connect with existing faculty of the interior design department	Environmental/ organizational people/person
L2: Developing excellent teachers	Tools to measure teaching effectiveness; no peer mentoring or collaboration	Coaching and mentoring	People/person
L3: Engaging students	Low response/ participation from students in SEOCS	Methods and frequency of obtaining student input on the teaching excellence	Environmental/or ganizational; people/person
L4: Building organization for change and teaching leadership	Inconsistent faculty leadership and interaction with the Quality Teaching Unit	Opportunities for faculty leadership; integration of university resources to support faculty	Environmental/ organizational; people/person
L5: Aligning institutional policies to foster quality teaching	Activities outside classroom instruction are not compensated; restricted access to course design	Work to change policies to address this or examine alternate means of rewards; work to change policies to allow for greater flexibility to aid in better teaching	People/person; environmental/ organizational
L6: Highlighting innovation as a driver for change	Minimal interaction with faculty from other programs	Establish practices to foster interdepartmental collaboration	Environmental/ organizational
L7: Assessing impacts	Limited assessment of faculty teaching	Renewal of a diverse assessments of teaching	Environmental/ organizational

Note. Gaps as identified by the critical organizational analysis adapted from Fostering Quality Teaching in Higher Education: Policies and Practices by F. Hénard and D. Roseveare, 2012, pp. 42–48. Copyright 2012 by Institutional Management in Higher Education, OECD.

Both internal and external factors are affecting the PoP. The PESTE analysis outlined in Chapter 1 revealed that the pressures for change are mainly internal. The program has poor student achievement data compared to other undergraduate programs, and it struggles to remain a contributing program. It has specific needs for dedicated computer, studio, and drafting rooms. It is an accredited program, and it needs to meet not only accreditors' requirements but also provincial regulatory requirements. One of the discrepancies between the two bodies is the faculty credential requirements. This makes faculty recruitment difficult because of the small pool of candidates who can meet both hiring requirements. Most faculty do not have teaching experience and are faced with scattered support from the program and the organization on teaching effectiveness. This lack of faculty preparedness affects individual and collective efficacy (Bandura, 1997, 2001). It leaves faculty feeling disconnected and unaligned with the organizational culture of the university, and as a collection of misfits they have created their own beliefs and assumptions about quality teaching that are incongruent with the rest of the university.

Changes are needed to bring the interior design faculty into alignment with the university mission. The leadership approaches identified in the OIP framework will need to focus on increasing self- and group efficacy so that the faculty can be better prepared to adapt to change (Lehman, Greener, & Simpson, 2002). University X is rapidly growing, and senior administration has articulated support to solve the problem as they would like to see improved student achievement data. Senior administrators believe the performance gap is due to a gap in teaching quality; however, faculty cannot engage in change-specific efficacy (Holt, Armenakis, Field, & Harris, 2007) if they do not understand there is a crisis at hand (Kotter, 2012). Thus,

some of the suggested solutions in the next section address the creation of crisis and aim to motivate faculty to be active participants of the change.

Possible Solutions to Address the Problem of Practice

This section explores three possible solutions to address the PoP. The leadership PoP to be addressed is the lack of a methodical approach to foster faculty engagement practices which involve new and current faculty of an interior design program at a Canadian private for-profit university.

- 1. Possible Solution 1: Faculty mentorship program;
- 2. Possible Solution 2: Faculty away-day—program retreat; and
- 3. Possible Solution 3: Faculty review (yearly)—renewal process.

I evaluate the resource needs of each solution, compare their viability, and propose the suggested solution for implementation. For each solution, resource needs are fivefold: time, human, fiscal, information, and technology.

Possible Solution 1: Faculty mentorship program. One possible solution to address the PoP is the implementation of a faculty mentorship program. According to Washburn (2017), mentorship programs can include grooming, networking, or strategic collaboration. A unique mentorship program is needed to address the PoP, mainly because the needs to be addressed are diverse: it has both online and on-campus faculty, some faculty are full-time but most are adjunct, and most faculty have little experience teaching. Canala, Herdklotz, and Wilde (2019) pointed out that university faculty are typically at different stages of their careers and have different mentoring needs, so University X needs to be flexible with its mentoring plan.

The goal is a network-type of mentorship where both procedural knowledge and tacit knowledge are exchanged, and trusting peer-to-peer relations develop (Stephenson, 2005).

Adjunct faculty are time crunched, juggle multiple priorities, and need many preprepared resources to go through the mentoring process (Canala et al., 2019). Luna (2018) suggested that mentoring online faculty needs a dynamic 24/7 structure. In addition to the learning management system, where such virtual mentoring spaces can be created, social media channels can be utilized to make mentoring essentially on demand. Faculty are more effective when they connect with one another, and it is important to socialize adjunct faculty to the same instructional standards as full-time faculty and have similar expectations of both groups (Brannagan & Oriol, 2014). Brannagan and Oriol (2014) explained that as adjunct faculty achieve mastery in acquiring information, facilitating learning, and responding to students, their level of self-efficacy rises. At the same time, the engagement and morale of students are indirectly impacted because these desirable behaviours have been modelled in a nurturing, mentoring environment.

Luna (2018) outlined the benefits of mentoring to include a more confident, connected faculty with the university as well as the creation of a sense of belonging and satisfaction. When all the benefits are rolled together, they translate into productive ways of engaging, relating, being, and understanding students' needs, which in turn motivates students to achieve more and commit more deeply to the completion of their studies. The act of teaching is a process (Enerson, Plank, & Johnson, 1996); thus, it becomes evident that the short, asynchronous, modular FTW used to orient faculty regardless of delivery model is just the tip of the spear. Through the extension of a mentoring network, the program could acclimatize new faculty as well as existing faculty who may need mentoring to improve aspects of their teaching practices.

The benefits to the mentee are evident, but what about the mentor? As most of the new faculty are from the interior design industry, one mentor benefit is that of reverse mentoring, where the mentee can share with the mentor current industry knowledge (Goerisch et al., 2018).

However, not all mentor—mentee relationships are positive encounters, so careful consideration or selection from a pool of available mentors may need to be facilitated (Troisi, Leder-Elder, Stiegler-Balfour, Fleck, & Good, 2015). Some faculty may be reluctant to engage in mentoring because they may feel inadequately prepared to mentor, or they lack time (Troisi et al., 2015). In addition, most universities do not consider mentorship as a portfolio item for tenure (Goerisch et al., 2018). To address the first concern, a mentor preparatory training module needs to be developed. Given that the university's focus is teaching, University X has adopted the expanded definition of scholarship as put forth by Ernst Boyer (1990). Boyer's extended the definition of scholarship consists of four pillars which include discovery, integration, application, and teaching. This is more expanded than the traditional pillars of teaching, research, and service (Kern, Mettetal, Dixson, & Morgan, 2015; Atkinson, 2001).

Reframing faculty mentorship though Boyer's (1990) expanded definition of scholarship creates emergent opportunities for faculty to contribute to the university community as well as engage in scholarly endeavours. Mentor faculty can be active participants in shaping the mentorship program, consistent with social learning theory practices (Bandura, 1977, 1997). Through active participation in the university community, new beliefs and values can take hold as faculty work through the second stage of Schein's (2017) general change theory.

As noted above, resources to meet this solution are required in five key areas. First, adequate time is needed to develop a mentoring workshop for mentors, as well as time to complete the workshop. At this time, it is difficult to estimate the development time for a mentoring workshop. The suggestion is an asynchronous, self-paced module of a minimum of three to four hours to complete. The suggested time for completion is during the downtime of the faculty office hours. Second, human resources are needed to generate an adequate pool of mentor

candidates. An open call to current faculty needs to be issued. If there are no volunteers, key faculty may be called upon. Third, fiscal negotiation with senior management needs to take place to obtain approval as to whether faculty will be compensated for mentoring. A stipend of \$500 is suggested, or, if the mentors are full-time faculty, they should be eligible for release time from teaching (Brannagan & Oriol, 2014). Alternatively, mentoring could count toward the stipulated weekly time dedicated to research or administrative duties. To start, a team of five mentors is suggested, one for each stream of the program. Thus, the cost would five faculty members x \$500 = \$2,500 per term. Support from the Associate Dean of Faculty Development will be needed. The cost associated with this role and any instructional design support is hidden, as at present I do not have access to financial data from those teams. These costs could be worked out by senior management when the request for such funds is put forth.

A fourth need is for information resources. Mentor preparedness will be key, necessitating a train-the-mentor module. This module would be designed by the program in consultation with the faculty development resource person. Approval of content for this module would come to the Program Chair and me as Academic Dean. Lastly, the use of technology beyond the learning management system needs consideration and examination. There may be university policies preventing the use of social media for mentoring as an on-demand service.

Possible Solution 2: Faculty away-day—program retreat. Another possible solution is the organization of a faculty retreat day or away-day, conducted off campus. This day would allow for formal and informal opportunities for faculty to interact one another, professionally and socially; participate in program visioning exercises; undertake program renewal initiatives; and share best teaching practices. Such away-day experiences can boost faculty morale (Kang & Miller, 2001), and the collegiality and community-building opportunities highly increase

motivation (Girardeau, Rud, & Trevisan, 2014). The social exposure and interaction with peers can produce cognitive and affective changes in individual faculty, resulting in social learning (Bandura, 2001; Tudge & Winterhoff, 1993). The social—cognitive benefits of an away-day further reinforce Bandura's (1997) reciprocal determinism model, where changes at this level will influence changes in behaviours and in the environment. The coming together of an away-day strengthens the group's collective efficacy though partaking in empowering activities and building up the group's capacity to believe in themselves (Zimmerman, 2006).

Such retreats are usually planned away from the campus for faculty to be able to work and focus without interruption from the daily campus activities (Ginsberg, 2011). The majority are two-day overnight retreats (Lane & Mitchell, 2015). It may not be probable to receive approval for the launch of faculty retreats, but it would certainly be a goal to work towards. One challenge is including the online faculty and ensuring their participation and contribution to the event. Two options are possible. First, because the university has updated its professional development fund policy to include adjunct faculty, administrators could be convinced of the professional development nature of the suggested retreats and approve air fare and lodging for at least some faculty. Funding could be approved on a rotating basis so that different faculty could have the opportunity to participate in such retreats. Being able to participate in person would create stronger bonds with the university community and increase the faculty's sense of belonging. A second option, albeit not ideal, would be for those not able to travel to the event to link with the group via Zoom, a video conferencing platform (https://zoom.us/), at strategic times in the agenda where collaboration is possible.

The goal of such a retreat day for faculty development activity would be to kickstart the change and ignite the spark of things to come with faculty. The first session would aim to

address the first and second stages of Schein's (2017) general change theory. Subsequent sessions would reach into the third stage of internalizing new concepts and meanings. The inaugural retreat should highlight the vision for change (Kotter, 2012) and empower faculty by providing information and fostering participation (Bolman & Deal, 2017).

Possible solution 2 would require resources in the same five areas as Solution 1: time, human, fiscal, information, and technology. Given that there is minimal downtime in this program, the suggested time would be to host the retreat during the break weeks between terms. However, faculty really look forward to the downtime. The other suggested time is during the mid-term project week. Although most such retreats are two-day events, a day or a day and a half could be a suitable start. The recommended frequency for such a retreat is biannual. In terms of human resources, faculty teach so many courses that during the term there is little time for other activities, and their downtime at the end of term is minimal. Because of this constraint, there would be little incentive for faculty to make themselves available for such an event. Thus, fiscal resources, such as some sort of stipend for participation, would need to be approved for adjunct faculty. A recommended amount would be \$200 per workshop per faculty member; thus, for the approximately 20 faculty to attend, the cost would be \$4,000. Facility rental and lunch catering would add about \$2,000. Travel expenses may be incurred if faculty are approved to use the professional development fund for this activity, as well as the travel expense for the Associate Dean of Faculty Development. Each retreat may therefore cost close to \$10,000. Funds for this proposed solution will be obtained through a purchase order requisition.

For information resources, significant work with the assistance of the Program Chair would need to be completed prior to the retreat so that the desired outcomes are clearly identified. Significant work would need also to be done post-retreat with follow-ups and action

items to capitalize on the progress made. Finally, in terms of technological resources, those faculty not able to join in person may avail themselves to join virtually through Zoom; a smaller stipend is recommended for them as well.

Possible Solution 3: Faculty review (yearly)—renewal process. The third possible solution is the revival of the faculty review process. Due to the turnover of Program Chairs, a systematic faculty review process has not taken place in some time. Likewise, a revival of this process is necessary as the previous review process documentation was inherited from another faculty group, and there has been no link between the review and any reward or acknowledgement. To the latter point, it is not that specific monetary adjustments need to take place, but in the absence of any such recognition, most faculty have been less than diligent in participating in such reviews, even though the literature indicates the main purpose of faculty reviews is to improve the quality of teaching (Channing, 2017).

According to Hornstein (2017), student evaluations of faculty are inadequate to give an accurate assessment of faculty performance. Even though these measures are sought after in regulatory reports, there is known to be a high correlation between students' grade expectations and their survey responses (Kumar, Bostwick, & Klein, 2018). Thus, as part of the revival of the faculty review process, I suggest a layered approach of peer–faculty classroom observation visits to assess classroom practices in conjunction with a more formalized yearly review practice that would take SEOCS, the classroom, peer–faculty observations, and other initiatives into account. Both these actions are consistent with the first, second, and last policy levers (raising awareness of quality teaching, developing excellent teachers, and assessing impacts, respectively) outlined in the previous section (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012). Kumar et al. (2018) described such a peer-evaluation pilot study created in a professional program. Yearly faculty reviews mostly take

place in the context of building a portfolio package for tenure and promotion (Channing, 2017). It seems the primary goal of such documentation for administrators is the evaluation of teacher effectiveness, whereas the goal for faculty is to encourage growth and development (Channing, 2017). However, a common purpose needs to be found, and usually such reviews are a requirement for accreditation purposes.

Given that the university has adopted Boyer's (1990) model of scholarship, one way to create such a portfolio is with the four pillars of discovery, integration, application, and teaching in mind, and to assess faculty activity and contribution to them. One such example is the use of Boyer's model and scholarship evaluation at the Universal Business School Sydney (Whateley, Roopram, & West, 2019). Adaptations would need to be made to consider program-specific needs and a weighted scale or a points system of allowable points from each of the pillars so that activities are varied among them. To aid faculty in selecting appropriate activities, comprehensive lists would need to be generated, identifying acceptable activities in each pillar. Faculty assessment focuses at the personal level of the proposed framework and addresses changes individuals need to make to improve. It is an opportunity to highlight how individuals need to relate and interact within the expectations of their environment—the organization. Individuals should adopt behaviours consistent with the improvement expectations and in time espouse revised values and beliefs, and even new assumptions of teaching.

Time is the first of the five resource needs. To roll out and implement the two faculty assessment instruments (peer–faculty observation and faculty review documents) may take a calendar year. As no formal yearly reviews have been done in some time, it will take time to establish a cycle for review; it would not be possible to conduct all reviews in a single term. For human resources, a task group will need to be created to determine what these evaluation tools

will look like and establish best practices. To acquire needed fiscal resources, consultations with senior administrators will need to take place to begin a dialogue to consider some sort of reward associated with successful yearly reviews. Currently, adjunct faculty are on a set contract amount that does not change regardless of performance or the acquisition of new skills or education. Information resources include the need for significantly more research and collaboration with faculty and administrators to determine the detailed contents of these measurement tools. Finally, in terms of technology, it would be advantageous to investigate the creation of a digital portfolio that would assemble SEOCS, classroom observations, and yearly portfolios in one place (Erstad, Oxnam, Miller, & Draugalis, 2018). Technology use should be encouraged as much possible to make these suggestions more adaptable, efficient, and fun to use.

Implementation of solutions. It would be ideal if all three solutions could be implemented, with the launch of a faculty retreat day, the development of faculty mentoring, and a renewal of yearly reviews. Each solution highlights a different area of the proposed OIP framework, and each call for a different aspect of the proposed leadership styles, as exemplified in Table 2. Being able to implement all three solutions would allow for a holistic approach that includes structure, process, and attitude change (Kezar, 2014). However, Kezar (2014) has also pointed out that focusing on multiple prongs of a change effort may be a challenge, and instead efforts should be directed to one aspect of change at a time. Table 2 maps the levers identified in the critical organizational analysis section to each of the proposed solutions. It is evident that Solution 1 would work towards addressing most of the identified gaps and levers. Thus, moving forward, Solution 1 should be the initial focus. Schein (2017) cautioned that attitudes and values are much more difficult to change than processes or structures. Thus, through planned changes in

process and structure, such as the development of a faculty mentorship program, faculty will come to espouse new ideologies, values, and aspirations for the program and the university.

Table 2 Proposed Solutions Related to the OIP Framework, Leadership Style, and Identified Gaps

Proposed solution	Segment of the OIP framework impacted	Leadership approach for the OIP	Lever (Gap) being addressed
Solution 1: Peer–faculty mentorship	Behaviours, goals and values	Distributed leadership	L1, L2, L3, L4, L6, L7
Solution 2: Retreat day	Environment/ organization	Transformational leadership	L4, L5, L6
Solution 3: Yearly faculty portfolio review	People/person	Servant leadership	L1, L2, L7

Note. L1 = Raising awareness of quality teaching; L2 = Developing excellent teachers; L3 = Engaging students; L4 = Building organization for change and teaching leadership; L5 = Aligning institutional policies to foster quality teaching; L6 = Highlighting innovation as a driver for change; L7 = Assessing impacts.

Given the above, it is applicable to examine the chosen solution using the Plan-Do-Study-Act (PDSA) model as developed by Deming (as cited in Moen, 2009). The PDSA cycle is grounded in the scientific method and is a representation of quality assurance. Its four-phase, cyclical nature is used to continually reassess a plan with major uses in health care and industry. The process consists of a planning stage in which goals are set and the who, what, where, and when of the project are identified (Moen, 2009). The do stage of the cycle focuses on implementation of the desired action, preferably on a smaller scale; the study stage consists of reviewing data collected from the do stage; and lastly, the act component entails acting on learning from the previous stages and adjusting the process as needed (Moen, 2009). The PDSA cycle can be applied effectively to educational improvements (Soto & Walsh, 2019; Tang & Choi, 2005) in similar contexts of mentorship or the establishment of peer networks.

In terms of implementing the proposed solutions to address the PoP, during the planning stage, a call for mentors would be needed, as well as selection of mentors who would exemplify the ethos of the program and university. A mentor orientation and clear expectations of the goals of the mentoring program would need to be created. The doing stage would involve carrying out the mentoring plan. Important in this step would be the documentation of experience, interactions, and lessons learned in a reflective journal by both mentor and mentee. Once the action phase is complete, the study phase serves to analyze collected data. This can include selfassessments and focus groups (Tang & Choi, 2005); it may even look to seek feedback from students as per lever 3, engaging students, identified in the Critical Organizational Analysis section. In the act stage, the process is fine-tuned, and another cycle starts. In Chapter 3, I elaborate on the PDSA model's relationship to the selected solution and its monitoring and evaluation. Applying a regimented, systematic, step-by-step process to the mentoring initiative could be expanded to include many facets of faculty development. Faculty would come to understand how critical their contributions are to the organization, giving them a sense of pride, ownership, and empowerment (Cleary, 1995). In this way, distributed leadership is the method by which faculty become active members and create learning communities (Tang & Choi, 2005) and, by extension, reshape individual and program values. The next section examines leadership ethics and their influence on organizational change and leadership practices.

Leadership Ethics and Organizational Change

This section explores leadership ethics and related challenges which may be encountered in implementation of the OIP. It examines the ethical commitments of the various organizational actors as well as the ethical responsibilities of the organization. Ethical leadership is defined as the demonstration of appropriate actions and interpersonal relationships with others and the

promotion of such actions to followers through communication, reinforcement, and decision-making (Nyukorong, 2014). These actions stem from the underlying assumptions, principles, and values that align with a moral way of life (Bown, Bessestte, & Chan, 2006). But ethical leadership is more than that, according to Lawton and Gabriunas (2014); it is a way of being. This consideration is what resonates with me most among all the descriptions of ethics and ethical leadership, because being ethical is part of who I am; it is not a skill to be turned on in the workplace. Embodying ethical qualities and engaging in ethically sound and just approaches is how I approach all circumstances. In this way, my genuineness and sincerity permeate in all I do.

Authors of ethical leadership research have listed qualities, traits, and behaviours from survey studies of successful leaders, and the trait cited most often among all studies is integrity (Hegarty & Moccia, 2018; Lawton & Gabriunas, 2014; Mihelic, Lipicnik, & Tekavcic, 2010; Nyukorong, 2014). For me, integrity includes the concept of fair play in transactions (Hegarty & Moccia, 2018), a conscientious work ethic, consistency (Lawton & Gabriunas, 2014), and honesty (Nyukorong, 2014). I aim to be consistent, fair, and open-minded in my daily interactions. I hope my predictability and dependability give organizational actors the ability and confidence to trust me and my leadership, and by extension the vision of proposed changes.

Change actions bring about disconfirmation and anxiety (Schein, 2017). These feelings and fear of the unknown cause discomfort and may trigger reactions from the faculty group affected by the proposed change. Reactions can include resistance, exemplified by passive-aggressive actions and cynicism. Mete (2013) has explained that cynicism brings with it negative emotions of anger, shame, pessimism, suspiciousness, and disbelief. The above feelings may arise early from the communication of the change plan, and persist during implementation as well.

The ethical challenge for me will be to remain consistent in resolve and action. Through self-reflection and reflexive practice (Eriksen & Cunliffe, 2010), I will be able to engage in effective leadership. I have become more self-aware that my actions and decisions are being watched by others; thus, it is critical to model the desired ethical behaviours and promote ethical actions (Nyukorong, 2014). The modelling of desired behaviours is consistent with Bandura's (1997) social learning theory as well as the transformational leadership approach selected for this OIP. Thus, as an ethical leader and role model, it is important for me to self-reflect when some of the above challenges arise and not allow the negativity to permeate and affect me. I need to be unwayering and true to the vision, stay focused on the positive aspects of transformational leadership, and not allow myself to slip into ineffectual pseudo-transformational actions (Ciulla & Forsyth, 2001). Figure 3 points out that the change zone of the D-T-S model proposed for this OIP is located at the intersection of the three leadership approaches, meaning that all three can be happening at the same time, with some styles more prominent than others. To determine which style is required at a given time, one needs to self-reflect to determine what resources are needed, by or for whom, and what actions need to be taken at a given time.

To combat ethical slippage, I intend to engage in positive self-talk, focus on the desired goal, and remember that my ultimate responsibility in my role and as a leader is to think about the welfare of others (Mihelic et al., 2010). My focus as a leader is to aid the faculty by building relationships of trust, respect, and dignity. According to Lawton and Gabriunas (2014), this approach will increase self-efficacy, commitment, and loyalty. The self-efficacy construct of Bandura's (1977) reciprocal determinism model is part of the proposed conceptual framework to bring about the desired changes. The compassion of the servant leadership approaches (Greenleaf, 1977) of caring and even potential sacrifice by advocating on behalf of faculty will

be reciprocated as followers model observed behaviour and realize they have a champion (Mihelic et al., 2010).

Through my ethical actions as a leader, I can influence not only individuals but also the organization by setting expectations, projecting values and beliefs, and realigning the desired culture to meet the university mission and desired improvement outcomes. This intention could be challenged by the fact that not all organizational actors behave in congruent ways. It can be challenging for faculty to hear mixed messages (e.g., that teaching excellence is valued yet at the same time students are valued over faculty). This dissonance can be confusing and frustrating for faculty and affect the fulfillment of the university's mission, vision, and goals (Mihelic et al., 2010). To bridge or heal this type of confusion, servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977) approaches of acceptance and reaffirmation will be necessary to rebuild faculty confidence and self-efficacy (Lawton & Gabriunas, 2014). As a leader hearing this mixed message, I want to advocate even more strongly for faculty and their needs for equity, fairness, and social justice (Bown et al., 2006). Sometimes it is difficult to find opportunities to advocate as the organization is still young. Formalized organizational ethics programs, as suggested by Mihelic et al. (2010), are not yet in place. In this way, I believe I have always been a champion of faculty. They are the most silenced actors of the organization, yet at the same time they are the linchpins of student and organizational success.

Patience and persistence are among the qualities of ethical leaders, as listed by Mihelic et al. (2010), that will be important to ensure leadership ethics are maintained. Patience will be important to overcome resistance barriers such as reluctance to participate, lack of commitment, and cynicism. Persisting and striving continually for the goal are key, especially when there may be faculty resistance and rapid term cycles make it a challenge to maintain a change momentum.

To address this organizational change, I could use the positional power of my role. However, a more effective and ethical approach would be the use of the legitimate power that I have been able to cultivate over my long tenure with the university and the relationships that I have nurtured over time. The D-T-S leadership model and my strong sense of ethics, grounded in a strong personal ethos of compassion for others, honesty, and integrity, will allow me to effectively address ethical considerations as they arise from the communication of change to the implementation of the plan.

Chapter Summary

This chapter focused on the planning and development of the OIP. The triphasic D-T-S leadership model was examined in greater detail, as was the dual lens proposed framework of Bandura's (1977, 1997) social cognitive theory and Schein's (2017) organizational cultural model. The critical organizational analysis was conducted using the policy levers used to assess policies and practices of quality teaching (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012); it revealed several gaps, which aided in making evident proposed solutions. Of the proposed solutions, developing a faculty mentorship program was chosen as the solution to advocate for first: It addresses most of the identified policy lever gaps from the critical analysis, and it aligns with the University X's concept of scholarship as expanded by Boyer (1990). Lastly, leadership ethics were considered, as they can potentially challenge change implementation efficiency.

The next chapter outlines a strategy for change in the form of a change implementation plan. It describes how to monitor and evaluate the proposed change and presents a plan to communicate the need for change and the change process. Chapter 3 is rounded out by possible next steps and future considerations.

Chapter 3: Implementation, Evaluation, and Communication

This OIP seeks to address the gap created by the lack of a methodical approach to foster faculty engagement practices which involve new and current faculty of an interior design program that would yield a group of individuals committed to the success of their students, the program, and the university. Chapter 1 proposed a conceptual framework using a combination of Schein's (2017) organizational cultural theory and Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory. Through the reciprocal interaction of people and organizations, culture is shaped and reconstituted, and the underlying assumptions of culture in turn shape people and organizations. The D-T-S leadership model developed in Chapter 2 is unique for this OIP and helps inform leadership practices. The critical organizational analysis aided in the selection of an implementable solution. As such, this chapter identifies realistic goals to work toward creating a methodical practice of faculty teaching excellence. The chapter elaborates on a change implementation plan and explains how progress will be monitored and evaluated. Likewise, a plan to communicate the need for change and the change process is considered, as well as next steps and future considerations.

Change Implementation Plan

Thus far, the theoretical underpinnings of the problem have been discussed (in Chapter 1), which are social cognitive theory and organizational cultural theory, as well as the D-T-S leadership model. The critical organizational analysis section of Chapter 2 used the self-assessment tool designed by Hénard and Roseveare (2012) for their OECD-sponsored work on fostering quality teaching in higher education. Seven policy levers were analyzed to identify gaps that have contributed to the problem and propose viable solutions. Table 2 summarized the three proposed solutions, and analysis revealed that faculty mentoring would address the most policy

lever gaps. Hence, the proposed solution is the implementation of a peer–faculty mentorship program. Elements from the other proposed solutions may be incorporated in some amended format to give the execution of the plan a proper beginning, middle, and end.

This chapter develops the change implementation plan. Such a plan seeks to devise specific goals that can be measured in terms of how well they address the problem. To be successful, the change implementation plan needs to be specific, yet flexible, to meet the needs of all stakeholders (Mento, Jones, & Dirndorfer, 2002). This change improvement plan will work toward addressing two goals that have been designed using SMART (specific, measurable, attainable, results oriented, and time bound) goal principles (Conzemius & O'Neill, 2002; Wang, 2017).

Goals are necessary to help define the ultimate purpose of a project and should be stated as explicitly as possible; a SMART goal is designed to do so. Originally developed for business project implementation, SMART goals are applicable to education as well (Conzemius & O'Neill, 2002). However, Pollack and Rossiter (2010) argue that the subjectification of professional development to SMART criteria devalues the complicated process of faculty development and undermines professional culture. However, given the neoliberal reality where universities run as businesses, especially University X, SMART goals are necessary to articulate outcomes in objective and measurable ways that administrative stakeholders will accept (Busch, 2017). Goals articulated in this way need to meet each of the five criteria. The first is to be specific: goals need to be clear with respect to the desired outcome. The measurability feature ensures that what gets done can be measured, and attainable means that the goal is achievable and realistic for the goal setter. Goals that are results oriented are motivational and lead to a

desired outcome. Finally, being time bound ensures the goal is worked on within a given deadline (Conzemius & O'Neill, 2002).

The SMART goals that have originated out of the solution for change identified for this OIP are as follows:

- Goal A: To create a networked community of online and on-campus faculty by connecting new faculty members with a senior mentor through the first four terms of their tenure.
- Goal B: To mentor online and on-campus faculty who teach Term 1 courses to deliver the Term 1 experience to students and thereby reduce the Term 1 attrition rate.

For Goal B, the Term 1 experience, as defined by the university and explained in Chapter 1, consists of three pillars: the faculty, academic integrity, and campus life. The role of the faculty in the Term 1 experience is to help students transition successfully into academic work, particularly given that many students have not been in school for some time or are international students who are unfamiliar with undergraduate expectations. Appendix A, Table A1, elaborates upon Goals A and B using the SMART goal principles.

Goal A explicitly seeks to establish a peer–faculty mentorship program for new faculty through their first year of employment at the university, culminating in the development of a teaching portfolio. A key activity for the success of this goal will be regular journaling by both mentor and mentee. This reflective document will be important to the monitoring process. The mentor and mentee will use their journals to inform their progress meetings, and they may wish to exchange portions of reflection pieces as needed. The sharing of such personal reflections would be optional. Designers are used to keeping a professional notebook; thus, the suggestion of a journal would have acceptance among the stakeholders. It would be nice to gift such a

journal as part of the away-day activity or on-barding of new faculty. Optionally, depending on financial resources, this journal could be embossed with the university logo.

Goal B addresses the PoP by aiming to strengthen the preparedness of Term 1 faculty, both online and on campus. This goal will address the policy levers of Hénard and Roseveare (2012) as well as work to address specific metrics such as retention rate. Both goals suggest the need for release time or reduction of the teaching load when engaged in the mentorship program (see Appendix A); as I have final sign-off on the term faculty load assignment, I could ensure such time is allocated as needed.

Strategy for change. The strategy to engage with the change process is a normative reeducative approach whose aim is to change professional values and attitudes; this is a relational
technique explained by Janicijevic (2017). This approach fits into the context of the overall
organizational strategy because the aim is a cultural shift, where more cohesive practices develop
for faculty group interactions with the university. Achieving the desired outcomes of this OIP
will improve the situation for both social and organizational actors because there will be reduced
stress between the faculty and administrative teams when all are on board with a common vision
and goal, not operating as independent factions suspicious of each other.

An updated organizational chart for the interior design program is explained in Figure 5. The difference between this organizational chart and the existing one is the addition two support staff, who are needed to provide release time for the Program Chair and Associate Chair to tackle the change initiative. Request for approval of funds to recruit for these two positions is currently in progress with senior administration. The dotted lines and yellow line relationships of Figure 5 represent the new ways in which these groups are expected to interact and collaborate with each other to meet the goals and grow the program. Making this reorganization possible is a recent

development deeming that full-time faculty will be leads for certain streams of the program. As leads, the full-time faculty need to connect with the online and on-campus adjunct faculty to ensure consistency of course delivery and obtain feedback for possible course improvement. The new role of Associate Program Chair includes the additional responsibility of online faculty review; this is the result of departmental rearrangements at the end of 2019.

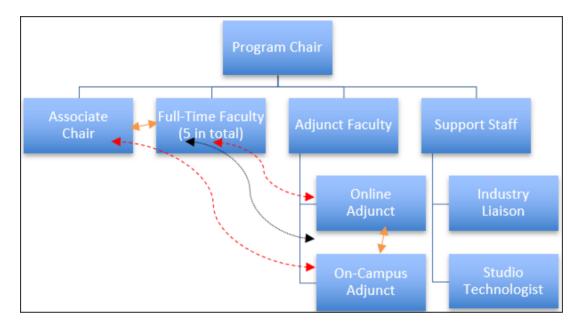


Figure 5. Proposed updated program organizational chart for OIP implementation.

To fully implement the OIP, support staff as identified in Figure 5 need to be hired to provide the release time necessary for the Program Chair and associate to focus on developing and launching the proposed mentorship initiative. The normative re-educative approach will help to meet the specific phases of the implementation plan and achieve Goals A and B. Appendix B outlines the change implementation plan, followed by a consideration of potential issues or limitations. Tables B1 and B2 highlight the proposed resources needed for successful implementation of Goals A and B, respectively, which I elaborate on below. The tables also identify key stakeholders and propose a timeline on how to manage the transition. The timeline represents one large PDSA cycle, where each term can be considered a miniature PDSA

execution. After four cycles, or one year, the plan calls for a longer period of evaluation. Furthermore, Appendix B includes implementation issues and limitations, which are also examined in more detail below.

Understanding stakeholder reactions to change. Using the D-T-S (distributed, transformational, and servant) leadership model developed for this OIP, as explained in Chapter 2, I hope to anticipate and understand the various stakeholder reactions to change. The normative re-educative change strategy seeks to work on the relational aspects with various stakeholders (Janicijevic, 2017). I will draw on concepts from Kotter (2012) to create a strong sense of urgency, which asserts the need for action to be taken for the well-being and continuation of the program. All stakeholders need to be active participants in the solution; it should not be a mandated, top-down directive. To achieve this outcome, I need to establish a guiding coalition (Kotter, 2012) with the Program Chair and Associate Program Chair. It will be important to recognize that the initial implementation plan is a guide to share with stakeholders, especially the faculty, and hear their perspectives and concerns. A revised version of the plan that includes their feedback and input would be ideal for implementation.

Select personnel to engage in the process. As identified in Appendix B, funds need to be approved for hiring the two suggested resource staff. This approval would be granted by senior administration. Request for approval of these positions has already been submitted because of the program's growth, and time has been allotted in the job descriptions of these positions to account for this work. It will be important to leverage the expertise of the Associate Dean of Faculty Development and communicate needs clearly so that this individual can support the initiative. The Associate Dean must understand that change is needed, that the role is supportive, and that the scope at present is limited to the interior design program. The

instructional design team will be another group whose assistance with the implementation process may be beneficial, especially in terms of how educational technologies could be leveraged in the faculty mentoring initiative.

Key to the change initiative will be the Program Chair and Associate Program Chair. Through the transformational and distributive leadership approaches of the D-T-S model, the chairs can be persuaded to understand how the initiative is much greater than individual needs. Distributed leadership practices would provide the chairs with many opportunities to contribute, as shown in Appendix B. The chairs are linchpins for the change success and, in addition to me, need to model the desired change behaviours (Kotter, 2012; Schein, 2017). The ultimate outcome, as the peer–faculty mentoring change initiative evolves through various PDSA cycles, is that a community of practice (CoP) will take root where faculty experience not only a sense of cohesion as a faculty group, but also of belonging (Gurbutt & Cragg, 2019). It is hoped that both online and on-campus faculty will be up for the challenge, as well as new faculty.

Other supports and resources. Time is a limited resource. Release time is needed for all parties to meet in a retreat-type event to communicate the change vision and gather input. Time needs to be allotted to the various meetings necessary to design and develop the mentoring workshops and toolboxes. Adequate time needs to be carved out to monitor and evaluate findings. Solving the problem of time leads to a request for human as well as financial resources. The plan will need financial approval to hire the two designated support personnel and staff the program with enough full-time faculty.

Before this OIP, it had been worked out in conjunction with senior administrators that in order for the program to have curricular leads for each of its subject streams, five full-time faculty are needed. Currently, the program has only three. The approval for these hires has been

obtained, and these faculty are already in the 2020 budget. Given that approval took place prior to this OIP, I have not added the salaries of the two full-time faculty to my financial resource calculations. Finding the right credentialed faculty for these roles will be difficult, as was explained in Chapter 1 in the Organizational Context section. The pool of credentialed and experienced faculty is limited, which is how the program finds itself in its current predicament. Therefore, a request for two new staff positions, the industry liaison officer and the studio technologist, have been made to offset this human resource burden. The financial request for both these roles is approximately \$100,000. In Chapter 2, I estimated \$10,000 for the retreat-type day. Some elements from this request could be removed if deemed nonessential, such as hosting the event off-site and providing customized journals, if the budget had to be negotiated.

Release time from course work for full-time faculty would also need approval. If full-time faculty have the release time equivalent to half of an on-campus course every other term, the yearly cost would be \$25,000. The overall implementation costs of the proposed solution would be approximately \$100,000 in new support staff, \$25,000 in mentoring release time, and \$10,000 in away-day activities, for a total of \$135,000 in the first year of the initiative. In subsequent years, the cost would be \$35,000 to \$45,000 assuming no new mentors and minimal new faculty are added.

In my role, I should have sufficient access to data to monitor and evaluate progress.

However, if the work from this change initiative becomes publishable, approval from the university ethics committee may be required. A final resource to consider is technology. All

¹ Five faculty x \$2,500 cost of course per term = \$12,500 every two terms, for a yearly cost of \$25,000.

technologies immediately available should be investigated to see how they could facilitate mentoring and faculty communities; these include Moodle, Zoom, and Microsoft Teams.

Implementation issues. The main potential implementation issue is faculty resistance to change, manifested either actively or covertly. Some resistance can be attributed to people's natural preference for the status quo or the result of disconfirmation, survival anxiety, or guilt as faculty begin to go through Stage 1 of Schein's (2017) general change theory. Resistance can be mitigated by leaders using the proposed D-T-S leadership model, being role models (Kotter, 2012), and generating small wins along the way to maintain momentum (Kotter, 2012).

Building momentum. Realistic milestones are built into the plan to keep stakeholders motivated. The goals identified in Appendix B provide intervals to evaluate against baseline data and allow for adjustments based on a PDSA cycle. In this case, operating on a quarter system allows for natural built-in touch points to monitor and evaluate to the PDSA cycle; there would be four such opportunities in a year to pause, reflect, and adjust. This approach has advantages and disadvantages. Each PDSA cycle lasts for one quarter, yielding multiple opportunities in a year to evaluate, but at the same time, the speed of the term cycle allows for little downtime to pause and reflect. Thus, at the end of four quarters, I propose a longer time for pause, reflection, and regrouping in the form of another mini-faculty retreat. The regimented process of the PDSA will keep the change momentum going, from which learning and successes will emerge that can be celebrated.

Limitations. Fiscal, human, and temporal resources need to be reconciled and accounted for to allow for smooth implementation and mitigate any faculty resistance. When all required resources fall into place, faculty resistance should also be mitigated as they will observe the level of organizational commitment invested into the success of the change initiative. Through a

normative re-educative change strategy (Janicijevic, 2017) and a reduction of learning anxiety (Schein, 2017), it is hoped that limitations can be overcome.

This section has identified two goals instrumental in achieving the change plan. The proposed change plan has identified stakeholders of the change process, required resources, and limitations. The plan needs to be adaptive, not prescriptive. It needs to allow for growth and feedback from stakeholders, and insight gleaned from the Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) process needs to loop back into the implementation plan via the PDSA model so that improvements can be made. The next section develops the M&E plan that will support the implementation plan.

Change Process Monitoring and Evaluation

This section connects to the PDSA cycle described in Chapter 2 and draws on the D-T-S leadership model developed for this OIP. It elaborates on how the goals identified in the previous section will be monitored and evaluated through the lifespan of the proposed change. Monitoring is the systematic collection of data, on an ongoing basis, of set indicators designed to provide managers and stakeholders with information on progress (Hobson, Maye, & Hamilton, 2014). Evaluation is a systematic and objective process that can take place during the project as well as at the end (Kusek & Rist, 2004). Evaluation analyzes whether the intended results were achieved, explores unintended outcomes, examines the implementation process, and offers recommendations for improvement (Kusek & Rist, 2004). Even though there is some overlap between the two concepts, monitoring answers the question of where a project or plan is at with respect to given targets. Evaluation, on the other hand, seeks to answer why outcomes are successful or not.

According to Cawsey et al. (2016), measuring initiatives helps not only to monitor the environment or track the change process to make adjustments, but also to frame the need for change and gauge when the process has reached a conclusion. Stakeholders need to accept M&E because it will ultimately define how stakeholders carry out their work (Cawsey et al., 2016; Schein, 2017). When an initiative may be ambiguous, such as in this case, where faculty are unaccustomed to transitions into new ways of being, and the proposed change implementation plan is over a year in length for full implementation, Cawsey et al. (2016) stressed the need for sound M&E.

Improving the lack of a methodical approach to foster effective faculty practices which involve new and current faculty of an interior design program at a Canadian private for-profit university is a complex organizational problem. It requires a dual theoretical lens for examination, as explained in previous chapters, and a dual approach to M&E. The first approach is an interpretive one adapted from the framework of Stockdale and Standing (2006). The other is a results-based M&E approach that focuses on outcomes and inputs, rather than the traditional implementation-focused M&E (Kusek & Rist, 2004). The reason for the duality is similar to the need to use a dual theoretical framework: to bring M&E into sharper focus and ensure ambiguity is minimized as the plan is enacted, especially because the faculty group has not experienced major changes in the past.

Stockdale and Standing (2006) described an interpretive framework of evaluation that addresses content, context, and process, answering questions of what, who, how, and when. Examination of these areas helps to focus on specific elements of M&E, interrogate their validity to the process, and contribute to solving the problem. Content addresses what is to be measured and is significantly influenced by stakeholders (Stockdale & Standing, 2006). The spirit of

context seeks to address the reason why evaluation is needed, as well as who affects the evaluation process. Who is involved is closely related to how the evaluation is carried out, which is an element of the process part of the evaluative framework. The period of evaluation, or the when, is included in process (Stockdale & Standing, 2006). Presenting such an M&E plan will allow stakeholders to visualize how the tools of measurement will be used and help solidify their understanding and acceptance of the process. Appendix C, Table C1, represents the M&E for the OIP considering this framework. Furthermore, Table C1 connects the M&E plan to the seven policy levers (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012) examined in the Critical Organizational Analysis section of Chapter 2.

The content element analyzed in Appendix C are the policy levers identified by Hénard and Roseveare (2012). These levers are key to what is being measured. I used them in the Critical Organizational Analysis section to help bring to the surface solutions for implementation, and they are thus important in M&E. Each of the policy levers created by Hénard and Roseveare contain a self-assessment questionnaire; these can be used at the start of the change initiative to establish a baseline, during the change process to monitor progress, and at the end to evaluate the change outcome. The responses can be plotted to track the degree of change in any of the seven levers. These questionnaires can be completed anonymously by participants to ensure sincerity of responses.

Table C1, Appendix C, includes two context columns that clarify why the actions are being taken and who is affected (which stakeholders), and two process columns identifying how and when M&E will take place. I have aligned the timelines of Appendices B and C. A long-range evaluation timeline would be four years from the launch of the initiative to determine any impact on graduation rates; these rates are another metric desired to be improved. Stockdale and

Standing's (2006) interpretive evaluation framework allows for multiple opportunities of sensemaking, which is important to a project that has underpinnings in social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997). However, senior administrators are concerned with outcomes, thus the need for the duality presented in this section by examining a results-based M&E (Kusek & Rist, 2004).

According to Kusek and Rist (2004), results-based M&E focuses on outcomes and inputs versus the traditional implementation-focused M&E focused on inputs and outputs. Results obtained from this type of M&E system feed back into an ongoing process of decision-making. Results-based monitoring builds on traditional monitoring but there is a greater focus on involving stakeholders and strategic partners. Kusek and Rist proposed a 10-step model to implement results-based M&E.

Noteworthy steps as they pertain to the M&E include selecting outcomes or goals, identifying indicators to measure said outcomes, collecting baseline data, setting specific targets, regularly collecting data to measure said targets, and analyzing and reporting data (Kusek & Rist, 2004). Implementation Goals A and B were identified in the previous section of this chapter. Indictors to measure the suggested outcomes need to be clear and specific. They include SEOCS results, student satisfaction results, and student achievement data (attrition rates, class pass rates for Goal B, and class averages). As the university is updating its platform to administer surveys, it will be difficult to benchmark SEOCS and student satisfaction results. In my role as change agent, I can extract student achievement data, assist the Program Chair and Associate Program Chair, and aid with analysis and reporting. As the current baselines for the above outcomes are relatively unclear, except for student achievement data, the first three quarters will be used to establish baselines. Thereafter, more specific targets can be identified. The establishment of targets needs to be realistic and agreed to by stakeholders. The results-based M&E is similar to

the PDSA model because setting targets, collecting data, and analyzing results are similar iterative activities.

The PDSA Cycle

The PDSA (planning, doing, studying, and acting) cycle described in Chapter 2 underpins the success of the implementation plan as well as the M&E plan. Given that the university calendar operates on a quarter system, there are many more opportunities to run iterative cycles of the PDSA model (M. J. Taylor et al., 2014) than in a semester program. The repeatable nature of the PDSA cycle is project focused, helps to meet time-bound deliverables, and is considered an effective and equitable mechanism of quality assurance (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015).

Planning. Thus far, a problem of practice has been considered and an implementation plan identified in the previous section. Built into the plan is its communication and roll-out at the first away-day meeting. Sharing the OIP roll-out at the away-day meeting will allow for those affected by the plan to provide insights, especially on M&E methods, and allow for further refinement of the plan before implementation.

Doing. Doing is the dynamic execution of the plan. M. J. Taylor et al. (2014) advised small scale testing. A consideration in the doing part of the cycle can be a staggered launch between Goal A and Goal B. In this way, a smaller pilot is conducted, and tweaks to the implementation plan of Goal B can be made from lessons learned during the pilot of Goal A. Documentation is key during this stage, and these documents help to inform the next stages (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015). Mentor and mentee self-reflection journals will be used to monitor progress. Journaling will be a qualitative source of data for the study portion as well as a formative means of evaluation (Gallego, 2014). Self-reflection journals can be maintained by both campus and online faculty, creating a standardized collection of information.

Studying. In the previous section, I identified that lack of time, given the two weeks between terms, would be a major constraint to allow for the proper study of data and the launch of another PDSA cycle. The monitoring throughout the term of mentors and mentees may reduce the studying burden at the end of each term, especially if adjustments to stay on course are made periodically. The end of each term cycle allows for a natural pause to collect quantitative data as well as conduct summative evaluations.

Acting. This stage of the cycle allows for refinement to the plan based on findings. It also allows for a larger roll-out of the plan, such as Goal B, because initial implementation issues from the findings of the pilot would be addressed.

The PDSA cycle will help the implementation plan stay grounded with logical steps in the process. With each iterative cycle, the scope may expand as the plan is refined. The quarter term cycle is an advantage as it provides opportunities to gauge and assess progress much more frequently.

The leadership approaches to change are grounded in models of servant (Greenleaf, 1977), transformational (Bass & Reggio, 2006), and distributive (Gronn, 2002; Spillane, 2006) leadership. The leadership framework designed for this OIP is known as the D-T-S leadership model. As a leader and change agent, I need to persevere and model sound practices of M&E given that, in the above plan, I am the predominant individual who can make the quantitative data available. Modelling is consistent with transformational leadership (Bass & Reggio, 2006). The proposed change process M&E plan supports distributed leadership initiatives. Faculty will have opportunities to refine the plan, and both mentors and mentee will be major contributors to data gathering and monitoring of the plan through their self-reflective journals. The servant leadership approach would be applicable to the M&E plan should there be resistance to

participation, an unsuccessful mentor—mentee pairing, or situations in which a mentee is rejecting the mentor's feedback. In these cases, the empathic and listening traits of the servant leadership approach could help turn around such situations (Greenleaf, 1977; Northouse, 2016). It is important to note that M&E practices as well as the PDSA model are neoliberal constructs which serve administrative control in the name of accountability, efficiency, and quality (Busch, 2017). However, these forces are inescapable given University X is a private for-profit university. The next section looks at the proposed communication plan and its effect on both internal and external stakeholders.

Plan to Communicate the Need for Change and the Change Process

This section explains the plan to communicate the need for change and the change process. The communication plan needs to be sensitive to address various stakeholders, anticipate resistance, and be relevant to the various stages of the implementation plan execution. For this section, I draw on the work of Kotter (2012) and Cawsey et al. (2016).

Kotter (2012) warned that most managers under communicate or inadvertently send mixed messages, also known as stalled transformation. Failure to communicate effectively is attributed to underinvestment in the communication part of the process, simply by not allocating enough financial resources due to the difficulty of calculating its cost effectively (Kotter, 2012). Communication starts with sharing the change vision, which needs to be powerful and urgent enough to mobilize change. Failure to communicate the change vision effectively can lead to the group misunderstanding the vision or to group resistance.

Cawsey et al. (2016) outlined four goals to a communication plan. The first goal, infusing a need for change and creating a sense of urgency for the change, is similar to Stage 1 of Schein's (2017) general change theory discussed in Chapter 1. The second goal is enabling

faculty to understand the impact the change would have on them, and the third is the communication of structural job changes (Cawsey et al., 2016). Both are analogous to the second stage of Schein's theory, which calls for learning new concepts, creating new meanings for old concepts, and creating new standards. Lastly, Cawsey et al.'s fourth goal for communication is to keep stakeholders informed of progress, which is akin to the last stage of change of Schein's general change theory, where new concepts, meanings, and standards become part of ongoing relationships.

To achieve communication goals, the various phases of a communication plan must consider the timing and type of communication (Cawsey et al., 2016). These phases include (a) the prechange communication, (b) creating the need for change, (c) communication of milestones and mid-project changes, and (d) confirming and celebrating the change process (Cawsey et al., 2016). The communication plan in Appendix D highlights the corresponding stages of change and how they apply to the various stakeholders affected by the change. Tables D1 and D2 identify what will be communicated, to whom, by what method, and when for internal stakeholders (Table D1) and external stakeholders (Table D2). This appendix also highlights why these actions are part of the plan and which communication phase corresponds to each action.

A communication plan needs to consider its various stakeholders, both internal and external, and account for what will be communicated to each group, when it will be communicated, the importance of communicating to this group, and how each of the stakeholders will be communicated to. The richness of the communication medium needs to be of sufficient strength to communicate effectively and drown out the negative, cynical chatter (Cawsey et al., 2016).

91

Internal stakeholders. The internal audiences affected by the communication plan include faculty, senior administration, support groups, and other programs and departments of the university. The first three audiences are explored in detail in this section. Other programs of at University X may be interested to know of milestones and project updates and may be curious as to how such a project could be adaptable to their programs. This group would receive high-level updates once per quarter at the operations forum meeting.

Faculty. The proposed change will affect faculty the most, as this is a departure from the status quo. Thus, is it important to create a strong sense of urgency and a powerful change vision (Kotter, 2012). This group will have many questions as well as apprehensions. Here it would be applicable to apply some of Kotter's (2012) communication strategies of keeping the communication jargon free, using metaphors, and opening multiple channels of message distribution. Another key is repetition of the message, just as if one were learning words in a new language. The language used in communication needs to be clear and crisp so that it does not create ambiguities or room for speculation (Hughes, 2007). The problem and the need to change must be framed in the context of the potential dire straits that the program is in, as revealed by the PESTE analysis, and for the program to gain positive favour, program outputs and outcomes need to improve. Results can be achieved only by adopting a new path, which would create different opportunities for faulty to engage in mentoring and a CoP that would lead to new ontologies and different outcomes.

This group will receive frequent communication by various channels, as illustrated in Table D1. Similarly, as communication occurs between groups, there should be give and take. The Program Chair and I will create opportunities in faculty meetings or one-one-one meetings to obtain feedback and insights from faculty members. Anticipated responses from this group

may be skepticism, reluctance to participate, and avoidance. However, leadership by example of key individuals is instrumental to drown out negative noise, and so is clarifying and demystifying any inconsistencies (Kotter, 2012). This approach is consistent with the servant leadership component of the D-T-S proposed model and relies on the application of leadership ethics as discussed in the Leadership Ethics section of Chapter 2. Through various modes of frequent communication with faculty, I hope a certain degree of empowering capacity and momentum is generated that would make faculty active participants and contributors to the mentoring network in a distributed leadership capacity. Through effective communication practices, stakeholders perceive a just organization, which will favour behaviours receptive to the change process. These new behaviours, in time, though a renewed faculty collective efficacy (Bandura, 1997), will alter espoused beliefs and values, leading to a gradual cultural change (Schein, 2017).

Senior administration. This stakeholder group is pivotal in all four phases of change, as indicated in Appendix D, Table D1. This group is supportive of the change process as they would like to see improved program metrics. In communicating the plan to senior administrators, it is important to effectively explain how the faculty mentorship plan could impact student retention and other metrics. This group will have questions about the types of resources that would need approval and how quickly anticipated results will be noticeable. To address these concerns, it should be noted that the two full-time administrators will carry out other duties to support the growing needs of the program, in addition to providing the release time needed for the Program Chair and Associate Program Chair. Indicators deigned to measure outcomes (Kusek & Rist, 2004) in the M&E need to be communicated clearly, at least on a quarterly basis. It is estimated it will take at least nine to 12 months to see a change in data (equivalent to three to

four terms). As a leader from the middle, I will be responsible for downward as well as upward communication, and to this end I need to engage in clear and accurate communication with all groups to maintain trust and credibility as a leader (Saruhan, 2014).

Support groups. Two support groups affected by this plan include the instructional design team, who may be called upon to assist in facilitating resources on the Moodle platform, and the centralized faculty development resource person. This project will require some time and expertise from the instructional design team, but because this group services the entire university, it may be a challenge to secure. The centralized faculty development resource person is a department of one, so the extent to which this person would be available to assist would depend on other priorities. Both groups may struggle with the impact this change would have on them, first to determine how to support the project, and second to assess the long-term impact of this project and how they will interact with the interior design faculty of the future (Cawsey et al., 2016). However, both groups are instrumental to launch the change process, make midstream changes, and communicate milestones. Their expertise would leverage the implementation plan as insight and recommendations for improvements could be obtained from multiple perspectives, enriching and creating a wider circle for the future CoP (Stoll, Bolman, McMahon, Wallace, & Thomas, 2006).

External stakeholders. The effects of the OIP reach out to include external stakeholders as well (see Appendix D, Table D2). New faculty can be considered as external stakeholders, soon to become internal, if they are successful in the hiring process. Other external stakeholders include the Program Advisory Committee, provincial regulators, and accreditation bodies.

New faculty. New faculty would likely be keen on the process as they join a new university and eager to immerse themselves into the organizational culture. This group of

stakeholders would have questions as to expectations, requirements, and compensation. This group would be ready to participate as the faculty mentoring plan would be part of onboarding. Key with this group is to infuse excitement of the mentorship opportunity, which will impact their ability to do their work (Cawsey et al., 2016).

Program Advisory Committee. Undergraduate programs are mandated to have Program Advisory Committees composed of external industry advisors to consult with for the betterment of the program and to keep abreast with industry progress. Communication to this group would be mostly for informational purposes, done semiannually at the face-to-face meetings.

Suggestions for improvement from this group would be welcomed to strengthen the faculty mentorship initiative further.

Regulators. The interior design program is accredited by CIDA. According to its 2020 professional standards (CIDA, 2020), two standards (Standard 2 – Faculty and Administration and Standard 3 – Learning Environment and Resources) address the need for faculty to be qualified, adequately prepared, and have the resources to effectively deliver the program. A faculty mentorship initiative addresses both of them. No significant questions are anticipated form this group as long as the process is clearly explained in the required update documents and accreditation renewal package.

The Postsecondary Education Quality Assessment Board (PEQAB) outlines the elements required for an organizational and program review of undergraduate programs in Ontario.

Communicating the faculty mentorship initiative would be covered in Section 3 – Program Self-Study report, which would be a reflective activity conducted prior to the submission for consent renewal (PEQAB, 2017). The self-study for the program is scheduled to begin in the next six

months. The program self-study is another opportunity to reflect on M&E findings of the change implementation. Communication to this stakeholder would be informational in nature.

Other communication tools. With advancements in technology, a variety of traditional and novel communication tools are available. Using these tools consistently, frequently, and with clear and concise messaging will be key to communicate the need for change and the change process. Effective communication, at the right time to the right audience, will foster trust and reduce organizational cynicism. Change cynicism, which has affective and cognitive underpinnings, can undermine desired outcomes and further affect culture because it can reduce the individual's and group's sense of self efficacy (Thundiyil, Chiaburu, Oh, Banks, & Peng, 2015). It would lead to regression instead of progression. From a social cognitive perspective, one of the theories underpinning the OIP, the goal is to create new schemas or mental models through the language used in communication (Tsoukas, 2005), through inspirational appeals, and through collaborative, consultative communication styles with relevant stakeholders (Cawsey et al., 2016). When mental schemas align with new practices, eventually new values and beliefs will shape a new culture.

An OIP needs a sound implementation plan backed by a comprehensive M&E plan and communication plan. The previous sections provide the structure to begin to address the lack of systematic engagement of the faculty in the interior design program at University X.

Chapter Summary

The focus of this chapter has been to develop the implementation plan needed to execute the proposed solution to the problem. The plan addresses two goals: Goal A focuses on mentoring of new faculty, both online and on-campus, and Goal B focuses on mentoring faculty who teach Term 1 courses, both online and on-campus. Though a normative re-educative change

strategy (Janicijevic, 2017), it is hoped that new mental schemas emerge and a cultural shift occurs. To this end, and to ensure the plan is executed, dual approaches to M&E have been considered. These include an interpretive approach (Stockdale & Standing, 2006) and a results-based approach focused on outcomes (Kusek & Rist, 2004). The M&E process is tailored to the PDSA model. The communication plan focuses on internal and external stakeholders and draws on the work of Kotter (2012) and Cawsey et al. (2016). The next section examines next steps and looks to the future.

Next Steps and Future Considerations

The OIP is a research informed, evidenced-based document aimed to address the PoP in the interior design program at a private Canadian university. The problem addressed is the lack of a methodical approach with which new and current faculty engage with one another, the program, and the university. This lack of cohesion and common sense of purpose negatively impacts the faculty's self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997, 2001), undermines culture (Schein, 2017), and affects outcomes such attrition retention rates and student satisfaction rates.

Through the application of a dual theoretical lens of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997, 2001) and organizational cultural theory (Schein, 2017), the OIP seeks to create a bifocal framework as it addresses the problem. The D-T-S leadership approach developed for this OIP will inform the ways I will relate, as a leader from the middle, with various stakeholders through various stages of the change implementation. The PESTE analysis and the critical organizational analysis are key instruments to understand the gaps and assist in pointing to a solution, for which I drew on Hénard and Roseveare's (2012) policy levers with respect to quality teaching in higher education. This has led to the proposed solution: the peer–faculty mentoring initiative elaborated on with an implementation plan, communication plan, and M&E plan.

However, next steps need to be considered as well. Some of these steps include securing approval of funds from senior administration. To ensure this occurs, a champion from this group is needed who will help advocate for this initiative. A likely individual would be the vice-president academic. Through this advocacy, the initiative will be able to maintain a sense of urgency (Kotter, 2012) and mobilize change. The hook here is that this change is critical not only for the university community but also for business viability. It is important to facilitate faculty improvement opportunities, which will in turn improve the outcome metrics by which regulators and accreditors assess the university. Positive reviews from these groups ensure the program's continuation.

As a leader from the middle, I am in a unique situation to influence bidirectionally in the organization. I need to safeguard against burnout, fatigue, and competing interests by establishing a strong guiding coalition with the Program Chair and Associate Chair (Kotter, 2012). Kotter (2012) pointed out that future successful organizations are learning organizations where lifelong learning is part of the cultural fabric. To this end, faculty should be encouraged to lead, as leadership is a construct where various individuals take turns in the foreground based on their skills and contributions at various times depending on the circumstances.

The above goals can be achieved with a future CoP in which faculty groups share situated knowledge (Gurbutt & Cragg, 2019). A CoP can help bring about a cultural shift through the spirit of sharing and collaboration, establishing a sense of becoming and belonging. Through a CoP, faculty will be empowered to lead a sustainable and renewable form of community that is self-maintained rather than organizationally directed. In the future, the CoP may become interdisciplinary, connecting with other undergraduate programs on campus or in other provinces. Similarly, a networked CoP connecting with other interior design programs could

allow for sharing of insights as well as opportunities to learn and bring further improvements to the program.

Future considerations need to align with practices and actions that will enhance the student experience. Continuing faculty development, be it in the discipline of design or the context of teaching and learning, can take place in a CoP. In a CoP, faculty can interact beyond the campus and connect with alumni or external influencers and learn from them (Gurbutt & Cragg, 2019). Such initiatives should be flexible, in short bursts, and highly customizable so that they are easily consumed and accepted by faculty regardless of their presence (on campus or remote) or employment status (full-time or adjunct). Busch (2017) informs that such learning communities will be places where groups of people come to learn. They will remake these spaces neither molded by the market nor bound to the market but rather spaces which will examine possible futures (Busch, 2017).

Emerging trends in technology and connectivity need to be explored as they become available to leverage opportunities and further improve network connections. For now, these include Microsoft Teams, collaborative applications, conferences, or other internal events such as workshops. Perhaps some of these activities will merge and evolve into a centre for teaching excellence. As faculty evolve into leaders, with their input many more possibilities are on the horizon, such as initiating faculty achievement awards. Some may take a scholarly interest in all aspects of Boyer's (1990) model of scholarship.

Grounded in theory, this OIP presents a conceptual framework and posits a leadership framework to examine the problem and help articulate solutions. A unique D-T-S leadership model was developed to inform leadership actions at various stages of the OIP process. The implementation plan takes a normative re-educative approach to work toward achieving the

identified goals to implement peer–faculty mentoring for new faculty as well as those who teach Term 1 students. The M&E plan and communication plan scaffold the improvement plan to ensure its success. To be effective, the OIP needs to be sensitive and tuned to the feedback received from internal and external stakeholders to help solidify commitment to the change initiative. Success of this OIP would create opportunities and possibilities for a broader faculty mentoring network to leverage the knowledge of even more participants. The OIP aims to respond to the pervasive neoliberal conditions present at University X, and it does not seek to reproduce or exacerbate them. Overall, the OIP seeks to build a methodical approach whereby faculty engage in systematic practice towards teaching excellence.

References

- Allen, G. A., Moore, W. M., Moser, L. R., Neil, K. K., Sambamoorthi, U., & Bell, H. S. (2016).

 The role of servant leadership and transformational leadership in academic pharmacy.

 American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education, 80(7), Article 113.

 https://doi.org/10.5688/ajpe807113
- Armenakis, A. A., Harris, S. G., & Mossholder, K. W. (1993). Creating readiness for organizational change. *Human Relations*, 46(6), 681–703. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679304600601
- Austin, I., & Jones, G. A. (2016). Governance of higher education: Global perspectives, theories, and practices. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Avolio, B., Walumbwa, F., & Weber, T. (2009). Leadership: Current theories, research, and future directions. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 60(1), 421–449. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.60.110707.163621
- Atkinson, M. (2001). The scholarship of teaching and learning: Reconceptualizing scholarship and transforming the academy. *Social Forces*, 79(4), 1217–1229. Retrieved from https://www.jstor.org/stable/2675470
- Bacchi, C., & Goodwin, S. (2016). *Post-structural policy analysis: A guide to practice*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Backer, T. E., David, S. L., & Saucy, G. (Eds.) (1995). Reviewing the behavioral science knowledge base on technology transfer. Rockville, MD: National Institute on Drug Abuse. Retrieved from https://archives.drugabuse.gov/sites/default/files/monograph155.pdf

- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change.

 Psychological Review, 84(2), 191–215. https://doi.org/10.1037//0033-295X.84.2.191
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York, NY: W. H. Freeman and Company.
- Bandura, A. (1999). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 2, 21–41. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-839X.00024
- Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 25–26. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/205845107/
- Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational leadership* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Laurence Erlbaum.
- Bolden, R. (2011). Distributed leadership in organizations: A review of theory and research.

 International Journal of Management Reviews, 13, 251–269.

 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2370.2011.00306.x
- Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (2017). *Reframing organizations* (6th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Jossey-Bass.
- Booton, C. (2016). Faculty perceptions of administrator influence on academic quality in forprofit vocational higher education. *The Journal of Continuing Higher Education*, 64, 112–124. https://doi.org/10.1080/07377363.2016.1166833
- Bown, C., Bessestte, H., & Chan, T. (2006). Including ethics in the study of educational leadership. *Journal of College and Character*, 7(8). https://doi.org/10.2202/1940-1639.1220
- Boyer, E. (1990). *Scholarship reconsidered: Priorities of the professoriate*. Princeton, NJ: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

- Brannagan, K. B., & Oriol, M. (2014). A model for orientation and mentoring of online adjunct faculty in nursing. *Nursing Education Perspectives*, *35*(2), 128–130. https://doi.org/10.5480/1536-5026-35.2.128
- Brownlee, J. (2015). Contract faculty in Canada: Using access to information requests to uncover hidden academics in Canadian universities. *Higher Education*, 70, 787–805. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-015-9867-9
- Buller, J. (2015). Organic academic leadership. In *Change leadership in higher education: A*practical guide to academic transformation (pp. 217–242). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Burns, J. M. G. (1978). Leadership. New York, NY: Harper Collins.
- Busch, L. (2017). *Knowledge for sale: The neoliberal takeover of higher education*. Cambridge, UK: Editions Quae.
- Canala, A., Herdklotz, C., & Wilde, L. (2019). *Flexible faculty development*. Retrieved from https://www.insidehighered.com
- Cawsey, T. F., Deszca, G., & Ingols, C. (2016). *Organizational change: An action-oriented toolkit* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Chan, V. (2015). The efficacy of key performance indicators in Ontario universities as perceived by key informants. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, 45(4), 440–456. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1773226674/
- Channing, J. (2017). Faculty evaluations: Contentious bothers or important tools for faculty growth? *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, *41*(11), 757–760. https://doi.org/10.1080/10668926.2016.1241197

- Ciulla, J. B., & Forsyth, D. R. (2001). Leadership ethics. In A. Bryman, D. Collinson, K. Grint,B. Jackson, & M. Uhl-Bien (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of leadership* (pp. 229–241).London: SAGE.
- Cleary, B. A. (1995). Supporting empowerment with Deming's PDSA cycle. *Empowerment in Organizations*, *3*(2), 34–39. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/209269466/
- Combe, M. (2014). Change readiness: Focusing change management where it counts (PMI White Paper). Retrieved from https://www.pmi.org/learning/library/change-readiness-11126
- Conzemius, A., & O'Neill, J. (2002). Introduction: Smart thinking in critical times. *The handbook of SMART school teams* (pp. 1–14). Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree Press.
- Council for Interior Design Accreditation. (2020). *Professional standards*. Retrieved from https://www.accredit-id.org/professional-standards
- Donnelly, P., & Kirk, P. (2015). Use the PDSA model for effective change management.

 *Education for Primary Care, 26, 279–281.

 https://doi.org/10.1080/14739879.2015.11494356
- Dweck, C. (2008). Mindset: The new psychology of success. New York, NY: Ballantine Books.
- Eliophotou-Menon, M., & Ioannouz, A. (2016). The link between transformational leadership and teachers' job satisfaction, commitments, motivation to learn, and trust in the leader. *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*, 20(3), 12–22. Retrieved from https://gnosis.library.ucy.ac.cy/handle/7/37924

- Enerson, D. M., Plank, K. M., & Johnson, R. N. (1996). *Creating a community of teachers: The Penn State course in college training* (pp. 2–8). University Park, PA: The IDP Centre for Excellence in Learning and Teaching.
- Eriksen, M., & Cunliffe, A. (2010). Relational leadership. *Complicity: An International Journal of Complexity and Education*, 7(2), 97–100. https://doi.org/10.29173/cmplct8960
- Erstad, B. L., Oxnam, M. G., Miller, T. P., & Draugalis, J. R. (2018). Issues and opportunities on implementing an online faculty review system. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, 82(3), 211–213. https://doi.org/10.5688/ajpe6911
- Fass-Holmes, B. (2017). International students reported for academic integrity violations:

 Demographics, retention, and graduation. *Journal of International Students*, 7(3), 644–669. https://doi.org/10.5281/zonodo.570026
- Gallego, M. (2014). Professional development of graduate teaching assistants in faculty-like positions: Fostering reflective practices through reflective teaching journals. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, *14*(2), 96–110. https://doi.org/10.14434/josotl.v14i2.4218
- Gaubatz, J., & Ensminger, D. (2015). Secondary school science department chairs leading successful change. *International Journal of Education Policy and Leadership*, 10(6), 1–22. https://doi.org/10.22230/ijepl.2015v10n6a534
- Gaubatz, J. A., & Ensminger, D. C. (2017). Department chairs as change agents: Leading change in resistant environments. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 45(1), 141–163. https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143215587307

- Ginsberg, B. (2011). There is no such thing as academic freedom (for professors): The rise and fall of the tenure system. In *The fall of the faculty: The rise of the all-administrative university and why it matters* (pp. 131–164). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Girardeau, L., Rud, A. G., & Trevisan, M. S. (2014). Jumpstarting junior faculty motivation and performance with focused writing retreats. *The Journal of Faculty Development*, 28(1), 33–40. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2016.1144572
- Goerisch, D., Basiliere, J., Rosener, A., McKee, K., Hunt, J., & Parker, T. M. (2019). Mentoring with: Reimagining mentoring across the university. *Gender, Place & Culture*, 26(12), 1740–1758. https://doi.org/10.1080/0966369X.2019.1668752
- Gladwell, M. (2008). *Outliers: The story of success*. New York, NY: Little, Brown and Company.
- Greenleaf, R. (1977). Servant leadership. Mahwah, NJ: Paulist Press.
- Gronn, P. (2008). The future of distributed leadership. *Journal of Education Administration*, 46(2), 141–158. https://doi.org/10.1108/09578230810863235
- Gurbutt, D., & Cragg, R. (2019). Communities of practice and continuing professional development for the real world. In *Culture, change and community in higher education:*Building, evolving and re-building learning environments (pp. 76–83). London, UK:

 Routledge.
- Grady, M., & Mr. S (2009). Gatekeeping: Perspectives from both sides of the fence. *Smith College Studies in Social Work*, 79:1, 51-64. https://doi.org/10.1080/00377310802634616
- Harris, A., Jones, M., & Baba, S. (2013). Distributed leadership and digital collaborative learning: A synergistic relationship? *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 44(6), 926–939. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjet.12107

- Hartley, D. (2007). The emergence of distributed leadership in education: Why now? *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 55(2), 202–214. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8527
- Hegarty, N., & Moccia, S. (2018). Components of ethical leadership and their importance in sustaining organizations over the long term. *The Journal of Values-Bases Leadership*, 11(1), 56–66. https://doi.org/10.22543/0733.111.1199
- Hénard, F., & Roseveare, D. (2012, September). Fostering quality teaching in higher education:

 Policies and practices. Institutional Management in Higher Education, OECD. Retrieved from https://www.oecd.org/education/imhe/QT%20policies%20and%20practices.pdf
- Herzberg, F. (1987). One more time: How do you motivate employees? *Harvard Business**Review, 65(5), 109–120. Retieved from

 https://kyleshulfermba530.weebly.com/uploads/2/3/4/5/23454770/one_more_time__how_do_you_motivate_employees.pdf
- Hobson, K., Mayne, R., & Hamilton, J. (2014, January). A step by step guide to monitoring and evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.geog.ox.ac.uk/research/technologies/projects/mesc/guide-to-monitoring-and-evaluation-v1-march2014.pdf
- Holt, D. T., Armenakis, A. A., Field, H. S., & Harris, S. G. (2007). Readiness for organizational change: The systematic development of a scale. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 43(2), 232–255. https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886306295295
- Hornstein, H. A. (2017). Student evaluations of teaching are an inadequate assessment tool for evaluating faculty performance. *Cogent Education*, *4*(1), 1–8. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2017.1304016

- Hughes, M. (2007). When faculties merge: Communicating change. *Journal of Organizational Transformation & Social Change*, 4(1), 25–38. https://doi.org/10.1386/jots.4.1.25_1
- Janicijevic, N. (2017). Organizational models as configurations of structure, culture, leadership, control, and change strategy. *Economic Annals*, *LXII* (213), 67–91. https://doi.org/10.2298/EKA1713067J
- Jones, S., Lefoe, G., Harvey, M., & Ryland, K. (2012). Distributed leadership: A collaborative framework for academics, executives and professionals in higher education. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 34(1), 67–78.
 https://doi.org/10.1080/1360080X.2012.642334
- Kang, B., & Miller, M. T. (2001). Strategies for making faculty development an institutional priority. ERIC Document Reproduction Services. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED449763.pdf
- Kern, B., Mettatal, G., Dixson, M., & Morgan, R. (2015). The role of SoTL in the academy:

 Upon the 25th anniversary of Boyer's scholarship reconsidered. *Journal of the*Scholarship for Teaching and Learning, 15(3), 1–14.

 https://doi.org/10.14434/josotl.v15i3.13623
- Kezar, A. (2014). *How colleges change: Understanding, leading, and enacting change*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Kezar, A., & Eckel, P. (2000). The effect of institutional culture on change strategies in higher education: Universal principles or cultural responsive concepts? Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education.
- Kotter, J. P. (2012). Leading change. Boston, MA: Harvard Business Review Press.

- Kumar, P., Bostwick, J. R., & Klein, K. C. (2018). A pilot program featuring formative peer review of faculty teaching at a college of pharmacy. *Currents in Pharmacy Teaching and Learning*, *10*(9), 1280–1287. https://doi.org/10.1016/2018.06.009
- Kusek, J. Z., & Rist, R. C. (2004). Introduction: Building a results-based monitoring and evaluation system. In *Ten steps to a results-based monitoring and evaluation system: A handbook for development practitioners* (pp. 1–35). Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- LaFlLaFleche, G., Keung, N., & Teotonio, I. (2019, September 19). The test said they were good enough to get in, but they were failing in class. How Niagara College tackled an international student crisis. *Toronto Star*. Retrieved from https://www.thestar.com/news/gta/2019/09/26/how-niagara-college-dealt-with-an-international-student-crisis-on-campus.html
- Lane, A. J., & Mitchell, C. G. (2015). Two-day curriculum retreat: An innovative response to the call for reform. *Nursing Education Perspectives*, *36*(4), 259–261. https://doi.org/10.5480/12-1000.1
- Lawton, A. & Gabriunas, I. (2014). Developing a Framework for Ethical Leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics*. https://doi.org/130. 10.1007/s10551-014-2244-2.
- Lehman, W. E. K., Greener, J. M., & Simpson, D. D. (2002). Assessing organizational readiness for change. *Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment*, 22(4), 197–209. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0740-5472(02)00233-7
- Li, S. X., & Jones, G. A. (2015). The "invisible" sector: Private higher education in Canada. In K. M. Joshi & S. Paivandi (Eds.), *Private higher education: A global perspective* (pp. 1–33). Delhi, India: B. R. Publishing.

- Luna, G. (2018). Making visible our invisible faculty: Mentoring for contingent online faculty.

 Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice, 18(2), 52–65.

 https://doi.org/10.33423/jhetp.v18i2.546
- Mandernach, B. J., Radda, H., Greenberger, S., & Forrest, K. (2015). Challenging the status quo:

 The influence of proprietary learning institutions on the shifting landscape of higher education. In *Transformational Perspectives and Processes in Higher Education* (pp. 31–48). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-09247-8-3
- Manning, K. (2018). *Organizational theory in higher education* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Maslow, A. (1954). Motivation and personality. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- McKenzie, K. B., & Locke, L. A. (2014). Distributed leadership: A good theory but what if leaders won't, don't know how, or can't lead? *Journal of School Leadership*, 24(1), 164–188. https://doi.org/10.1177/105268461402400106
- Mento, A. M., Jones, R., & Dirndorfer, W. (2002). A change management process: Grounded in both theory and practice. *Journal of Change Management*, 3, 45–69.
 https://doi.org/10.1080/714042520
- Mete, Y. A. (2013). The realationship between organizational cynicism and ethical leadership behaviour: A case study at higher education. *Procedia—Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 89, 476–483. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.08.880
- Mihelic, K. K., Lipicnik, B., & Tekavcic, M. (2010). Ethical leadership. *International Journal of Management & Information Systems*, *14*(5). https://doi.org/10.19030/ijmis.v14i5.11

- Moen, R. (2009). Foundation and history of the PDSA cycle. Retrieved from https://deming.org/uploads/paper/PDSA_History_Ron_Moen.pdf
- Mumby, D. K. (2005). Theorizing resistance in organizational studies: A dialectical approach. *Management Quarterly*, 19(1), 19–44. https://doi.org/10.1177/0893318905276558
- Nahavandi, A. (2015). Leading change. In *The art and science of leadership* (pp. 278–309). Hoboken, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Northouse, P. (2016). Leadership theory and practice (7th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Nyukorong, 2014). Fostering ethical leadership in organizations. European Journal of Business and Management, 6(33). 56-63. Retrieved from http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.684.6524&rep=rep1&type=pdf
- Pardee, R. (1990). Motivation theories of Maslow, Herzberg, McGregor & McClelland: A

 literature review of selected theories dealing with job satisfaction and motivation. ERIC

 Document Reproduction Services. Retrieved from

 https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED316767.pdf
- Pollack, S., & Rossiter, A. (2010). Neoliberalism and the entrepreneurial subject: Implications for feminism in social work. *Canadian Social Work Review*, 27(2), 155-169. Retrieved from https://www-lib-uwo-ca.proxy1.lib.uwo.ca/cgi-bin/ezpauthn.cgi?url=http://search.proquest.com.proxy1.lib.uwo.ca/docview/867798794? accountid=15115
- Postsecondary Education Quality Assessment Board. (2017). Submission guidelines for private organizations. Retrieved from http://www.peqab.ca/Publications/Handbooks%20Guidelines/SubmissionGuidelinesPrivateRenew2017.pdf

- Ragnarsson, S., Kristjánsdóttir, E. S., & Gunnarsdóttir, S. (2018). To be accountable while showing care: The lived experience of people in a servant leadership organization. *SAGE Open.* https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244018801097
- Roberts, J. (2009). Student satisfaction and persistence—A study of factors which are vital to student retention (Doctoral dissertation). The University of Southern Mississippi.

 Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations Publishing:

 http://search.proquest.com/docview/304996925/
- Rowbotham, M. A. (2015). The impact of faculty development on teacher self-efficacy, skills and retention (IERC FER 2015-1). Edwardsville: Illinois Education Research Council at Southern Illinois University Edwardsville. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED563500.pdf
- Russell, R. F., & Stone, A. G. (2002). A review of servant leadership attributes: Developing a practical model. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 23(3), 145–157. https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730210424
- Saruhan, N. (2014). The role of corporate communication and perception of justice during organizational change process. *Business and Economics Research Journal*, 5(4), 143–166. Retrieved from http://www.berjournal.com/wp-content/plugins/downloads-manager/upload/BERJ%205(4)14%20Article%208%20pp.143-166.pdf
- Schein, E. (2017). Organizational culture and leadership (5th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Sergiovanni, T. (2005). The virtues of leadership. *The Educational Forum*, 69, 112–123. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131720508984675
- Sorcinelli, M., & Yun, J. (2007). Mentor to mentoring networks: Mentoring in the new academy. *Change*, 39(6) 58–61. https://doi.org/10.3200/CHNG.39.6.58-C4

- Soto, C., & Walsh, V. (2019). Mind the (support) gap: Supporting academic trainees through peer networks. *Archives of Disease in Childhood*, 104(5), 490–493. https://doi.org/10.1136/archdischild-2018-315050
- Spears, L. (2010). The journey of servant leadership. *The International Journal of Servant-Leadership*, *6*(1), 3–8. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/2220696585/
- Spector, B. (2013). *Implementing organizational change: Theory into practice* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Spillane, J. P. (2006). Distributed leadership. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Stabile, C. (2014). A culture of teaching and learning excellence starts with an examination of assumptions: Influences of general semantics on faculty development. *ETC: A Review of General Semantics*, 71(3), 220–226. Retrieved from https://www.jstor.org/stable/24761902?seq=1
- Stephenson, K. (2005). Trafficking in trust: The art and science of human knowledge networks.

 In L. Coughlin, E. Wingard, & K. Hollihan (Eds.), *Enlightened power: How women are transforming the practice of leadership* (pp. 242–265). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Stewart, J. (2006). Transformational leadership: An evolving concept examined through the works of Burns, Bass, Leithwood. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*, *54*, 1–29. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ843441.pdf
- Stockdale, R., & Standing, C. (2006). An interpretive approach to evaluating information systems: A content, context, process framework. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 173, 1090–1102. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejor.2005.07.006

- Stoll, L., Bolman, R., McMahon, A., Wallace, M., & Thomas, S. (2006). Professional learning communities: A review of the literature. *Journal of Educational Change*, 7(4), 221–258. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10833-006-0001-8
- Stone, A. G., Russell, R. F., & Patterson, K. (2004). Transformational versus servant leadership:

 A difference in leader focus. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 25(3),

 349-361. https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730410538671
- Stupinsky, R., Brckalorenz, A., Yuhas, B., Guay, F. (2018). Faculty members' motivation for teaching and best practices: Testing a model based on self-determination across institution types. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 53, 15–26. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2018.01.004
- Tang, S. Y. F., & Choi, P. L. (2005). Connecting theory and practice in mentor preparation:
 Mentoring for the improvement of teaching and learning. *Mentoring & Tutoring:* Partnership in Learning, 13(3), 383–401. https://doi.org/10.1080/13611260500206002
- Taylor, A. (2017). Perspectives on the university as a business: The corporate management structure, neoliberalism and higher education. *Journal for Critical Education Policy Studies*, *15*(1), 108–135. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/315661247
- Taylor, M. J., McNicholas, C., Nicolay, C., Darzi, A., Bell, D., & Reed, J. E. (2014). Systematic review of the application of the plan-do-study-act method to improve quality in healthcare. *BMJ Quality & Safety*, 23, 290–298. https://doi: 10.1136/bmjqs-2013-001862
- Thian, L., Alam, G., & Idris, A. (2016). Balancing managerial and academic values.

 *International Journal of Educational Management, 30(2), 308–322.

 https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-12-2014-0165

- Thundiyil, T. G., Chiaburu, D. S., Oh, I., Banks, G. C., & Peng, A. C. (2015). Cynical about change? A preliminary meta-analysis and future research agenda. *Journal of Applied Behavioural Science*, *51*(4), 429–450. https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886315603122
- Tierney, W. G. (2008). Trust and organizational culture in higher education. In J. Välimaa & O.-H. Ylijoki (Eds.), *Cultural perspectives on higher education* (pp. 27–41). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-6604-7_3
- Tovar, R., Rossett, A., & Carter, N. (1989). Centralized training in a decentralized organization.

 *Training & Development Journal, 43(2), 62–65. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/226995936/
- Troisi, J., Leder-Elder, S., Stiegler-Balfour, J., Fleck, B., & Good, J. (2015). Not all types of mentors are created equal: Comparing the effectiveness of intra-departmental, intra-university, and self-selected mentors. *Journal of Faculty Development*, 29(3), 17–22. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1895977525/
- Tsoukas, H. (2005). Afterword: Why language matters in the analysis of organizational change.

 Journal of Organizational Change Management, 18(1), 96–104.

 https://doi.org/10.1108/09534810510579878
- Tudge, J., & Winterhoff, P. (1993). Vygotsky, Piaget, and Bandura: Perspectives on the relations between the social world and cognitive development. *Human Development*, *36*(2), 61–81. https://doi.org/10.1159/000277297
- Veugelers, W. (Ed.). (2011). *Education and humanism: Linking autonomy and humanity*. Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-6091-577-2

- Wang, L. (2017). Abandon your SMART goals: 6 reasons why SMART goal-setting does not work. *Personal Excellence Essentials*. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1952979229/
- Wardale, D., Richardson, J., & Suseno, Y. (2019, April 7). Casual academics aren't going anywhere, so what are universities doing to ensure learning isn't affected? *The Conversation*. Retrieved from http://theconversation.com/casual-academics-arent-going-anywhere-so-what-can-universities-do-to-ensure-learning-isnt-affected-113567
- Washburn, M. (2007). Mentoring women faculty: An instrumental case study of strategic collaboration. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, *15*(1), 57–72. https://doi.org/10.1080/13611260601037389
- Weiner, B. J. (2009). A theory of organizational readiness for change. *Implementation Science*, 4(1), 67. https://doi.org/10.1186/1748-5908-4-67
- Whateley, G., Roopram, J., & West, A. (2019). *Capturing scholarship at UBSS*. Sydney, Australia: Universal Business School Sydney. Retrieved from https://www.ubss.edu.au/media/1184/capturing-scholarship-at-ubss.pdf
- Woods, P. A., Bennett, N., Harvey, J. A., & Wise, C. (2004). Variabilities and dualities in distributed leadership: Findings from a systematic literature review. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 32(4), 439–457.
 https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143204046497
- Zimmerman, J. (2006). Why some teachers resist change and what principals can do about it.

 NASSP Bulletin, 90(3), 238–249. https://doi.org/10.1177/0192636506291521

Appendices

Appendix A: SMART Goal Principles

Table A1

Goals A and B Summarized Using SMART Goal Principles to Achieve the Proposed Solution

Principle	Goal A	Goal B
Specific	To create a networked faculty community, of online and on-campus faculty by connecting new faculty members with a senior mentor through the first four terms of their tenure.	To mentor online and on-campus faculty who teach Term 1 courses to deliver the Term 1 experience to students and thereby reduce the Term 1 attrition rate.
Measurable	 Process will be tracked and evaluated by: Mentee self-monitoring and journaling. Monitoring by mentor and reporting. Mentor and mentee meeting with Program Chair once per term to review progress. Mentoring experience culminates with the development of a faculty portfolio. 	 Process will be tracked and evaluated by: Monitored on a weekly basis by reporting the number of student withdrawals from term one courses. Evaluated on a quarterly basis by comparing the term one attrition rate of the program to other undergraduate programs as well as historical data. SEOCS data.
Attainable	 Goal is attainable given that release time would be provided for the mentor and mentee (mentee would not be scheduled a full course load until the fourth term); and training for mentors is adequate to prepare them for this activity. 	 Goal is attainable given that release time would be provided for the mentor and mentee (mentee would not be scheduled a full course load until the fourth term); training for mentors is adequate to prepared them for this activity; and Faculty who teach Term 1 courses have a reduced course load with consideration for a revised stipend, pending approval from senior administration.
Results oriented	 Successful completion of the goal will: Create self-efficacious faculty ready for the rigour of teaching at the university. Develop a collegial community where faculty collaborate. Improve teaching practices for both parties, thereby having a positive impact on student satisfaction. 	 The anticipated results include: Increased student satisfaction as measured by the new Term 1 student experience survey, soon to be launched by the university. A decrease in the Term 1 attrition rate as well as a decrease in the Year 1 attrition rate.
Time bound	This goal will be complete four terms from the start of the new hire (1 year).	 Measured quarterly by SEOCS data and the Term 1 student experience survey to determine the effect on Term 1 initiative. Measured yearly by the Year 1 student experience survey regimen.

Appendix B: Proposed Change Implementation Plan

As noted in Chapter 2, the chosen solution is the roll-out of a faculty mentoring initiative, with a kick-off retreat-type away-day, culminating in the development of a faculty portfolio. The strategy for change is normative re-educative. Tables B1 and B2 outline the proposed change implementation plan for Goals A and B, respectively.

Table B1

Proposed Change Implementation Plan for Goal A

Implementation process	Implementation issues/limitations	Supports/resources	Stakeholders/ personnel	Timeline
Kick-off retreat/away- day	Not possible for all faculty to attend such an event; some can connect using technology.	Financial approval to host event off-campus and compensate those who need to travel (approx. \$10,000).	AD, PC, faculty, and AD of faculty development	Q1 July
Call-out to recruit faculty mentors	Potential that no faulty volunteer and this activity may need to be assigned.	Interested faculty to partake in initiative; incentive for faculty to participate in this activity (\$25,000/year).	AD and PC	Q1 July– Aug
Collaborate with faculty development AD to build a mentor-the- mentor workshop	Time to create the workshop.	Support services such as faculty development staff and instructional design.	AD, PC, APC, and volunteer faculty mentors	Q1 Aug- Sept

Implementation process	Implementation issues/limitations	Supports/resources	Stakeholders/ personnel	Timeline
Train mentors and connect mentors with new faculty	Time to invest in training; potential unsuccessful pairing between mentor and mentee; lack of time to complete this phase thoroughly	Release time; space to meet (virtually and/or physically); time to meet	PC and AD of Faculty development; new faculty, mentors, PC	Q2–Q5 (Fall 2020 to Summer 2021)
Monitor and evaluate; make adjustments to the mentoring program	Lack of time to make adjustments	Access to reports and data (student satisfaction data, focus group information, attrition rates, etc.)	New faculty, Mentors, PC, AD	Q2 Oct
Develop mentee teaching portfolio and journal		Prioritization of project and budgeting time for review; time to reflect and prepare	New faculty, mentor, PC, AD	Ongoing; evaluated in Q4

Note. AD = Academic Dean, APC = Associate Program Chair; PC = Program Chair.

Table B2

Proposed Change Implementation Plan for Goal B

Implementation process	Implementation issues/limitations	Supports/resources	Stakeholders personnel	Timeline
Kick-off retreat-type day	Attendance; clarify that mentoring is not due to a performance issue but rather to meet a business need.	Financial approval to host event off campus and compensate those who need to travel (approx. \$10,000).	AD, PC, APC, term 1 faculty on campus and online, AD of faculty development	Q1
Collaborate with Faculty Development dean to build a module or toolkit to equip Term 1 faculty	Time to create resources; this is dependent on how much time the diverted.	Release time of stakeholders to create tool kit recruit support staff to off-set tasks to create time for this project.	AD PC, APC, term 1 faculty on-campus and on-line, and AD of faculty development	Q1
Connect mentors with new faculty	Faculty reluctance to participate; time for mentors to engage effectively.	Recruitment of support staff (approx. \$100,000/year).	PC, APC, Term 1 faculty on- campus and online	Q1 and Q2
Monitor and evaluate	Lack of time to complete this phase thoroughly.	Access to reports and data (student satisfaction data, focus group information, attrition rates, etc.).	AD, PC, and APC	Q2/Q3 and Q4
Make adjustments to the mentoring program	Lack of time to make adjustments.	Prioritization of project and budgeting time for review.	PC, APC, Term 1 faculty on- campus and online	As early as Q3
Develop mentee teaching portfolio and	Resistance of faculty to participate.	Time to reflect and prepare.		

reflective journaling

Note. AD = Academic Dean, APC = Associate Program Chair; PC = Program Chair.

Appendix C: Interpretive Framework

Table C1

Monitoring and Evaluation Interpretive Framework

Content:	Context		Process		
What is being measured?	Why is this being done?	Who affects the evaluation?	How is the evaluation done?	When is the evaluation period?	
L1: Raising an awareness of quality teaching	To highlight that quality teaching is a university priority; quality teaching affects the student experience and achievement data.	AD, PC, and APC; faculty; students	The self-assessment policy lever questionnaire; SEOCS; retention rates.	At the retreat days; quarterly; annually.	
L2: Developing excellent teachers	To establish a methodical approach of preparing faculty to teach effectively.	Mentee faculty; mentor faculty	Journaling (for both mentor and mentee); meetings (mentor/mentee); meetings with PC/associate; faculty portfolio.	After each class/weekly; every two weeks (as needed); at the end of each term; after four completed term of mentoring.	
L3: Engaging Students	To ascertain how implemented changes are affecting students.	Students	Stop-Start-Continue exercise; SEOCS; student focus group; student satisfaction surveys.	Conducted by faculty during the term; administered by a third party in the last two weeks of term; to be conducted after four quarters of the mentoring initiative; once every four terms based on the university survey cycle.	
L4: Building organization for change and teaching leadership	Help communicate and build change capacity; to gauge progress and understanding of the need for change.	AD, PC and APC; faculty	The self-assessment policy lever questionnaire.	As a retreat day activity for all; by AD and PC at the midpoint of roll-out Q2/Q3; at the second retreat day, activity for all.	

Content:	Context		Process		
What is being measured?	Why is this being done?	Who affects the evaluation?	How is the evaluation done?	When is the evaluation period?	
L5: Aligning institutional polices to foster quality teaching	To improve or remove barriers for faculty so that they can focus on quality of the teaching experience; this includes removing technological barriers and human resource stability.	AD, PC, and APC	Updated agreements with human resources and instructional design groups.	Review on a quarterly basis.	
L6: Highlighting innovation as a driver for change	To determine innovation readiness; to ensure innovations are androgologically sounds and meet accreditation requirements as university compliance to standards.	AD, PC, and APC; faculty	The self-assessment policy lever questionnaire.	As a retreat day activity for all; by AD and PC at the mid-point of roll-out Q2/3; at the second retreat day, activity for all.	
L7: Assessing impacts	To determine if identified goals are being met; to learn from faculty about the experience; to make adjustments for the next cycle.	AD, PC, and APC; faculty	Term 1 attrition rates; Year 1 attrition rates; faculty meeting and portfolio review.	On a quarterly basis; at the end of the proposed implementation (four terms); at the end of the mentoring cycle.	

Note. AD = Academic Dean, APC = Associate Program Chair; PC = Program Chair. Adapted from "An Interpretive Approach to Evaluating Information Systems: A Content, Context, Process Framework," by R. Stockdale & C. Standing, 2006, *European Journal of Operational Research*, 173, pp. 1094–1097. Copyright 2006 by Elselvier.

Appendix D: Communication Plan

Table D1
Proposed Communication Plan Summary: Internal Stakeholders

What will be communicated	To whom	When	Why	How	Phase
The vision, the need for change, the implementation plan and goals, their roles as expectations, progress, celebrate success.	Faculty	At the mini-away day; on a quarterly basis; as needed with new developments.	To convey the vision, create guiding coalitions, reduce resistance, empower faculty.	Face-to-face; at department meetings; general information e-mails; personal emails; attrition rate reports.	B, C, and D
The proposed change and its fit with the overall organizational strategy, the implementation plan, request for request for resources, progress against the proposed plan, communicate success.	Senior administration	Meetings as needed; reports quarterly.	To ensure endorsement at this level so that human and financial capital are released to implement the plan; to keep this group appraised of progress and/or roadblocks and seek counsel if needed.	Face-to-face meetings; quarterly personalized emails, attrition rate reports.	A, B, C, and D
The proposed plan, their role in support of the plan.	Support groups: • instructional design • Associate Dean of faculty development	As needed, depending the implementation plan; more frequent communication will be needed in the early stages to create mentoring tools and an appropriate Moodle site.	To ensure respective departments have adequate capacity to assist with the peer–faculty mentorship initiative.	Personalized emails; phone conversations; Zoom meetings.	B and C

Table D2
Proposed Communication Plan Summary: External Stakeholders

What will be communicated	To whom	When	Why	How	Phase
Explain faculty peer mentoring as part of the onboarding process to ensure success and acclimatization to the university.	New faculty	Part of the hiring and on-boarding process.	To convey expectations.	At the time of interview and at the time of hire.	С
Explain initiative how it supports Standard 2 – faculty and administration and Standard 3 – learning environment and resources (CIDA, 2020).	CIDA	In two years from now (2022).	To update on faculty development initiatives.	Accreditation reports, site visit.	D
Explain the initiative as part of Section 3 – self-study part of the consent renewal process (PEQAB, 2017).	PEQAB	In one year from now (2021).	To update on faculty development initiatives.	Consent renewal reports, site visit.	D
Explain the change, update on milestones and seek additional recommendations.	Program Advisory Committee	Semi-annually.	To provide update on program initiatives and seek possible recommendations.	Face-to-face meeting.	D

Note. CIDA = Council for Interior Design Accreditation; PEQAB = Postsecondary Quality Assurance Board.