Leading and communicating transformational change:
A case study of a higher education institution in UAE

قيادة وتواصل التغيير التحويلي:
دراسة حالة لمؤسسة تعليم عالي في دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة

by

AMIRA KHAMIS ALNAQBI

A thesis submitted in fulfilment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

at

The British University in Dubai

Dr. Solomon Arulraj David
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Approved for award:

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Name Designation	Name Designation
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ABSTRACT

The UAE needs change leaders in higher education who can work on transforming their institutions to offer quality education and equip their graduates with the skills they need in the current competitive knowledge economy market. This study describes the leadership styles of two leaders from one university in UAE and determine the effectiveness of the leaders' communication efforts during change implementation. The main research question guiding this study is: *To what extent does leadership style and change communication influence the success of organisational change?* Studies on big change failures reveal that failure is related to change resistance, poor leadership, lack of urgency to change, cultural issues and communication (Zou & Lee, 2008). However, there is a lack of empirical studies about change management in the Middle East and the Arab world in general and in higher education institutions in particular. The literature review examines four subject areas related to the study: organisation change management, leadership, organisation communication and higher education organisations. The study uses a mixed-method approach: questionnaires and interviews to answer the main study question. The results assert the importance of having transformational leaders who use effective communication to change their organisations, and university staff prefer face-to-face communication over other channels. The study findings may contribute to the international change management literature and provide valuable information for practitioners.

موجز البحث

تحتاج دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة إلى قادة تغيير في التعليم العالي الذين يمكنهم العمل على تحويل مؤسساتهم نحو تقديم تعليم ذا جودة وتزويد الخريجون بالمهارات التي يحتاجونها في سوق الاقتصاد المعرفي التنافسي الحالي. الغرض الرئيسي من هذه الدراسة هو وصف أساليب القيادة لإثنين من قادة جامعة في دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة وتحديد فعالية جهود الاتصالات للقادة خلال تنفيذ عملية التغيير. السؤال البحثي الرئيسي الذي يوجه هذه الدراسة هو: إلى أي مدى يؤثر أسلوب القيادة والتواصل على نجاح التغيير المؤسسي؟ لقد كشفت الدراسات التي أجريت على ان فشل التغيير الكبير مرتبطا بمقاومة التغيير وقلة القيادة وعدم وجود حاجة ملحة للتغيير وقضايا الثقافة والاتصال (زو ولي ،2008). مع ذلك، هناك نقص في الدراسات التجريبية حول إدارة التغيير في الشرق الأوسط والعالم العربي بشكل عام وفي مؤسسات التعليم العالي على وجه الخصوص .وقد تناولت مراجعة الأدبيات أربعة مجالات موضوعية تتعلق بالدراسة: إدارة التغيير المؤسسي، القيادة، والاتصال المؤسسي ومؤسسات التعليم العالي. استخدمت الدراسة طريقة مختلطة: الاستبيانات والمقابلات للإجابة على السؤال الرئيسي للدراسة، تؤكد النتائج على أهمية وجود قادة تغيير يستخدمون التواصل الفعال لتغيير منظماتهم. موظفين الجامعة يفضلون التواصل وجها لوجه كوسيلة للتواصل. قد تساهم نتائج الدراسة في الأدب الدولي لإدارة التغيير وتوفير معلومات قيمة للممارسين.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this thesis to all the angels in my life who made this dream come true. This thesis is dedicated to my small family: my husband and kids, as well as my large extended family: my parents, sisters, brothers and in-laws. Finally, to my closest friends who kept encouraging me to earn the title of doctor, I would not have made it without your love, support and encouragement.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First, I would like to thank Sheikh M. Al Nahayan, whose financial support made this dream a reality. I would like also to express my deepest gratitude to my Director of Studies, Dr Solomon Arulraj David, who has been very cooperative and highly professional in providing the support needed and the knowledge in my area of research. I also wish to thank everyone at the British University in Dubai for their guidance, cooperation and support. Special sincere thanks go to Prof Abullah AlShamsi, the vice chancellor and the chair of the Research Degree Committee, and to Prof Eman Gaad, the dean of Education.

This journey would not have been possible without all types of support from the management team, faculty and staff of the University of Fujairah. Finally, I am very thankful to my student colleagues at the British University in Dubai for all the great memories we shared. Our support for each other made this journey possible. Thank you Maitha, Rehan, Reem and Sanober, who made the university a beautiful and joyful place to be in. I will definitely miss our time at BUID.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

LMX	Leader-member Exchange Theory
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
OCM	Organization Change Management
OECD	The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UoF	University of Fujairah

Chapter One: Introduction

Introduction

In the last decades, national governments around the world have brought education reform to the forefront of efforts to improve their countries' economic and social conditions (Abi-Mershed, 2010; Carnoy & Rhoten, 2000; Hallinger & Bryant, 2013). Education reform in the Arab world has been presented as the main vehicle for achieving social, political and economic development (Abi-Mershed, 2010; Bahgat, 1999; Bashshur, 1982; El Amine, 2005). Many Arab scholars contend that the majority of the current reform initiatives are driven by political agendas that are isolated from the priorities and needs of educational practitioners and the school's social and cultural contexts (Abi-Mershed, 2010; Bashshur, 2005, 2010; El Amine, 2005; Mazawi, 2010). The World Bank Middle East and North Africa (MENA) Development Report (The World Bank, 2008), the Arab Knowledge Report (2009), the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) Arab Human Development Report (2002) and the Arab World's Education Report Card (2012) indicated disappointing results of reform efforts to induce social, political and economic advancements. The reports acknowledged that there has been some noted quantitative progress with respect to the number of universities and schools in the Arab world and the drop in the levels of illiteracy in a number of Arab countries. However, the reports also point to the low quality of education services and their impact on the quality of learning of Arab students, which do not prepare them for the demands of a postmodern technological world. The reports criticised the reforms' inability to create changes at the school and in classroom practices, school climates, and therefore, the students' achievements (Bashshur, 2005; Chapman & Miric, 2009). Bashshur (2005), an Arab scholar who specialised in studying reform and change in the Arab world, wrote:

> What is required is a bold and complete change of focus and shift of attention from relying on big dreams, big goals, and big words to stressing on where the actual educational act takes place: the classroom and the school, the learners and the teachers, and all what they need to succeed in their mission. Said differently, what we need in the Arab countries is a deep paradigm shift, and a change in the work processes which entails change from the traditional way of setting plans, designs, programs and reform policies which others have to follow and abide by to adopt a new approach focused on building the capacity of teachers and school workers and empowering them to actually do the reform by themselves (p. 293).

El Amine (2005) reports that 'we do not know much about reform in our context' (p. 337). He asserts that this happens because Arab educators fail to systematically document their experience, do not have rich intellectual dialogues about the reform experience and fail to generate culturally grounded change to accumulate a dynamic knowledge base (Akkary, 2014). Bashshur (2010) has criticised the Gulf States reform as being an 'educational and revolutionary adventure' that depends on uncritically transplanting American ideas into the Arab context (p. 260), whereas Al Amine (2005) points to the fact that most change initiatives or reforms fail to provide communication channels that bring the dialogue about the change goals to the stakeholders, who are directly responsible for their implementation. Arab scholars agree that there is a major gap between the ambitious ideas of their reform plans and the professional capacity of key stakeholders such as practitioners at schools and universities and policymakers (Akkary, 2014). Building a knowledge base that is grounded in cultural realities to inform practice and policymaking is widely viewed as a priority in the Arab region (El Amine, 2009). The absence of a culturally grounded theoretical and empirical base is considered one major impediment to the success of educational reform in the Arab world (Mazawi, 2010). Arab policymakers and reformers must stop relying so heavily on a knowledge base that is mostly imported and highly disconnected from the local realities of their practice if they want to achieve successful educational reform (Bashshur, 2010; Mazawi, 2010). However, the Gulf political leaders seek to close the ‘development gap’ between their countries and the western world. Their aim is to change the Arab academe from a place for knowledge reception to a place of knowledge production (Romani, 2009).

1.1 Background to the Research

Over the past ten years, Arab Gulf states have made it an explicit aim to transform their economies into Knowledge Economies (Hvidt, 2015). The United Arab Emirate (UAE) government wants to shift from a resource-based economy to a technology and skill-based economy. The shift to manufacturing and the service sector requires highly skilled graduates (Ashour & Fatima, 2016; Macpherson, Kachelhoffer & El Nemr, 2007; Muysken & Nour, 2006). To achieve the government’s goal of diversification, a major reform to the higher education system, starting with its leaders, was required. The UAE higher education sector was facing harsh criticism from employers, graduates and parents for failing to supply the job market with employment-ready graduates. This criticism revealed two major weaknesses in higher education. First, a clear skill mismatch hinders the employability of Emiratis in the private sector. Second, few technical programmes are available for Emiratis (Muysken & Nour, 2006). The UAE leaders and citizens want to see this important sector develop and offer high quality education to the country’s youth (Swan, 2014).

Sheikh Mohamed Bin Rashid Al Maktoum, the vice president and prime minister of the UAE and ruler of Dubai, noted that the UAE aspires to make its education system one of the best in the world by 2021. He said:

> Today, more than any other time, we need to boost innovation among young people, build nurturing environments in our society, and encourage our schools and universities to equip our youth with skills in research and discovery methodologies. We want our public and private sectors to explore new horizons to develop our economy. Innovation is our only way to build a great history of the UAE. The future will be for those who adopt innovation. (*Swan*, 2014)

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) issued a report in 2015 titled ‘Better Skills Better Jobs Better Lives—A strategic approach to education and skills policies for the United Arab Emirates’, which encouraged the government to work to improve the quality of education for both government and non-government schools and universities. According to the OECD report:

> The future prosperity of the United Arab Emirates and other countries will depend, to a large extent, on the country’s success in strategically developing and optimally using its skills potential. The country’s vision for future economic development aims to further diminish its dependence on oil revenue and diversify its economy. At the same time, the national policy aim is to increase the proportion of Emirati natives in the labour force and become less dependent on non-native workers and experts. All these objectives require effective and integrated skills policies that address issues including: the kinds of skills needed in an industrial economy, how today’s students

> and workers prepare themselves for the future labour market, and how to ensure that available skills are used productively. (OECD, 2015)

The coming years will see many changes in the business world as a result of the fourth industrial revolution as predicted by the World Economic Forum. In their 2016 report on the future of jobs, they estimated a large change in the job market because of technological advances:

> By one popular estimate 65% of children entering primary schools today will ultimately work in new job types and functions that currently don't yet exist. Technological trends such as the Fourth Industrial Revolution will create many new cross-functional roles for which employees will need both technical and social and analytical skills. Most existing education systems at all levels provide highly siloed training and continue a number of 20th century practices that are hindering progress on today's talent and labour market issues. Two such legacy issues burdening formal education systems worldwide are the dichotomy between Humanities and Sciences and applied and pure training, on the one hand, and the prestige premium attached to tertiary-certified forms of education—rather than the actual content of learning—on the other hand. Put bluntly, there is simply no good reason to indefinitely maintain either of these in today's world. Businesses should work closely with governments, education providers and others to imagine what a true 21st century curriculum might look like (World Economic Forum, 2016)

To achieve the country's 2021 vision and prepare youth for the fourth industrial revolution, the UAE needs new change leaders of higher education who can work on transforming the country's institutions to offer quality education and equip their graduates with the skills they need in the current, very competitive knowledge economy market. Those leaders must possess unique qualities, the most important of which are a transformational vision and an ability to execute that vision through effective communication to guide their organisation's change efforts. The implementation of organisational change often results in failure due to communication inefficiency, ineffective leadership and direction, job insecurity, work stress, turnover, public backlash and negative perceptions of organisational intentions (Baddah, 2016; van Dijke, De Cremer, Mayer & Van Quaquebeke, 2012; Zahi & Adnan, 2012). To add to the complexity of organisational change, academic organisations differ from non-academic organisations; therefore, they require change leaders with a different set of skills and qualities (Hendrickson et al., 2013). How organisations use communication to 'promote, publicize or generally inform relevant individuals and groups within society about their affairs' (Cornelissen, 2014, p. 17) is a critical determinant of an organisation's success, especially in the face of change. Communications between leaders and followers, organisational climate, individual ethics and organisational support significantly influence organisational citizenship behaviours and interactions (Carter, Armenakis, Feild & Mossholder, 2013; Choudhary, Akhtar & Zaheer, 2013; Cianci, Hannah, Roberts & Tsakumis, 2014; López-Domínguez, Enache, Sallan & Simo, 2013; Rafferty, Jimmieson & Armenakis, 2013). To date, there is little empirical research on organisational change in either the Middle East or Arab nations. Therefore, there is not enough evidence in the literature to speculate about how UAE higher education leaders will transform their organisations into high quality education institutions if there is no history about how this has occurred in the past. A number of UAE higher education institutions started their transformation efforts a few years ago, which offers a unique opportunity to conduct an empirical study in order to learn about how one UAE organisation transformed from a college to a university.

1.2 Problem Statement

The UAE government has initiated major reform in its higher education institutions to meet the needs of its changing economy and workforce. Several universities have begun this process of transformation (Ashour & Fatima, 2016; Macpherson, Kachelhoffer & El Nemr, 2007; Muysken & Nour, 2006). Research has shown that leading organisational change can be difficult; it requires leadership skills such as effective communication on the part of the change leader, and it often results in failure (Baddah, 2016; Carter et al., 2013; Hendrickson et al., 2013). The problem to study is how two leaders of one higher education institution in the UAE managed change successfully (Baddah, 2016; Bass, 1995; Choudhary et al., 2013). The specific problem is to identify the two leaders' management style and staff perception of their communication during the change process. The impact of the problem is that, when there are appropriate models of change and evidence of best practices, higher education in the UAE and in the Arab world can flourish (Sahour & Fatima, 2016). If the problem is not addressed and the leaders of these institutions in the UAE are not able to lead change to adapt to higher standards, they risk public criticism and decreased student enrolment (Macpherson et al., 2007). In addition, failing to document successful change stories will reduce the success rate for other institutions in the Arab world.

1.3 Purpose & Objectives

The purpose of this study is to describe the leadership style of two leaders of one university in the UAE and determine the effectiveness of the leaders' communication efforts during the implementation of change. Nearly half of all change initiatives in the business environment fail due to mismanagement (Cabrey et al., 2014). Managing change is an essential skill for organisation leaders today; however, the impact of leadership on organisational change is not clear in the literature because of the broad scope of the term 'leadership' and the complexities associated with the implementation of organisational change (van der Voet, 2016). However, research has shown a positive relationship between the extent of transformational leadership and employees' commitment to the organisation (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Kot et al., 1995; van der Voet, 2016) as well as to the leader (Kark & Shamir, 2002).

The challenges of organisational change are seen around the world in a variety of business sectors. The UAE has begun the process of transforming the UAE economy into a knowledge-based economy, causing a number of academic institutions to go through some sort of organisational change in order to prepare graduates for the new demands in the UAE workforce (Muysken & Nour, 2006). As there are no success or failure stories documented in the literature related to the UAE, Middle East or Arab world market in general, the proposed study will begin to address this gap in the literature. Although the organisation has already completed its transformational change, there is still an opportunity to learn about the change leaders' management styles and effective change communication.

1.4 Research Questions

The main research question guiding this mixed-method study is: *To what extent does leadership style and change communication influence the success of organisational change?* To address the main research question, the following sub-questions are proposed:

1. What leadership style is the best to secure a successful organisational change?
2. Does effective change communication play a significant role in implementing a successful change?
3. What type of communication channel is preferred by staff in communicating change news?

Question (1): Atkison (2010) asserted that managers who committed themselves to initiate change within organisations needed strong interpersonal and communication skills. The literature on leadership and change calls for change leaders as if they have different qualities than other leaders. Cran (2016) says, ‘we need change leaders because we are living and working in times of major transformation. We must have change leaders because change leaders are transformers helping to drive innovation forward. We need change leaders because change is challenging and we need change to model how to thrive and innovate and create positive outcomes’ (p. 17). The researcher is interested in learning about the management styles of the two leaders who successfully changed their organisation. Are they transformational or transactional leaders?

Question (2): Welch and McCarville (2003) asserted that when managers created a readiness to change through effective communication, there was an environment of acceptance and willingness among employees to embrace change. The purpose of effective communication between management and employees was to inform, instruct and provide direction (De Ridder, 2003). Therefore, the study will investigate how effective the leaders’ communication was during the change initiative.

Question (3): Zwikael and Globerson (2006) argued that the list of factors identified effective communication channels as too general, and the list of factors did not contain specific information to support management’s decision-making on the most effective channels to deploy information. With online communication channels being used regularly in organisations, the researcher would like to learn about staffs’ preferred communication channels during change initiatives. Do staff prefer online communication or traditional communication?

1.5 Significance of the Study

Studies on how higher education leaders manage change are comparatively rare in the literature, and they are almost non-existent for senior executive roles such as directors (Scott et al., 2010). However, studies on big change failure revealed that failure was related to change resistance, poor leadership, lack of urgency to change, culture issues and communication (Zou & Lee, 2008). Therefore, the value of this study stems from three important factors. The first is that there is lack of empirical studies about change management in the Middle East and Arab world in general and in higher education institutions in particular. The study helps to reduce the failure rate of change initiatives due to a lack of documented success stories. The second factor is to add to the body of literature related to the role of leadership style and effective change communication in implementing a successful organisational change. Therefore, this study will be the first from this region to examine leadership styles and communication when managing change. This study, then, helps to fill a gap in the study of change management. The third factor is that this study will also reinforce the use of Kotter's organisational change theory as a framework in research and in practical application in both the Western and Arab worlds.

In addition to that, this study will contribute to the Middle East studies in the fields of change management, leadership, and communication and it will add value also to the international literature as a contribution from the Middle East. Studying change management success factors will work as a road map for other institutions in UAE to follow.

1.6 Structure of the Dissertation

Following this introduction, the study framework and review of literature is discussed in chapter two. In the literature review, four main topics related to change management will be discussed:

change management, leadership, change communication and higher education institutions. The study approach and methodology are explored in chapter three along with ethical consideration. Chapter four analyses and presents the data collected before discussing the study findings. the study’s limitations. Finally, in chapter five, the researcher before presenting the concluding note will cover areas such as study implications, recommendations and study limitations.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1 Overview of the chapter

This chapter first discusses the theoretical framework designed for this study which involves synthesis of theories relevant to the study main topics. The chapter will then present a literature review that covers major theorists, scholars and sources related to the main thesis topics: organisation change management, leadership, change communication and higher education organisations.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

An intensive review of the change management literature revealed that theories of organisational change are fragmented because of differing scholars' perspectives and focuses of study (Jacobs et al., 2013). However, in keeping with this study's focus, the theories of organisational change, change leadership in higher education and communication will be the primary foundations for this study as illustrated in Figure (1) below.

Figure 1. Study Framework

2.2.1 Organisational Change

Based on the organisational change literature, organisational change implementations often result in failure because of communication inefficiency, ineffective leadership and direction, job insecurity, work stress, turnover, public backlash and negative perceptions of organisational intentions (Baddah, 2016; van Dijke, De Cremer, Mayer & Van Quaquebeke, 2012; Zahi & Adnan, 2012). Change theories have previously been based on concepts stemming from areas such as the biological sciences (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995). Many authors have written about organisational change in an attempt to understand it and manage it successfully. The pioneer, however, is Kurt Lewin (1958), who identified three stages organisations go through when undergoing change: unfreezing, moving and refreezing. His work was then expanded to five phases by Lippitt, Watson and Westly (1958). Lewin's original three steps were expanded and modified again by Shein (1987) to offer more detailed stages of change. However, this research framework will be based on Kotter's (1996) book *Leading Change* that also builds upon and advances Lewin's model. Three theories have been selected to investigate the dimensions of the proposed study: Kotter's (1996) *Leading Change*, *Academic Leadership and Governance of Higher Education: a guide for trustees, leaders, and aspiring leaders of two- and four-year institutions* by Hendrickson *et al.* (2013) and LeMenager's (2014) *Inside the organisation: perspective on employee communication*.

A review of the literature following the publication of Kotter's (1996) eight-step process of creating major change reveals that there are almost no studies that test his model's assumptions and conclusions. The majority of the citations in the organisation's development and leadership journals treat Kotter's model as doctrine (Hurd, 2007). However, a 2011 study of transformation in a nursing school revealed that the university management's effort to adopt Kotter's model was successful. Therefore, the study validated Kotter's model for transforming educational institutions. As previously mentioned, Kotter's work is considered to be the doctrine in the field based on his valuable contributions to change management. Therefore, the study framework will mainly be based on Kotter's (1996) *Leading Change*. Kotter's eight step process includes:

List (1): Kotter's Leading Change Eight Step Model (Kotter, 1995).

- Step one: Establish a sense of urgency
- Step two: Form a powerful guiding coalition
- Step three: Create a vision
- Step four: Communicate the vision
- Step five: Empower others to act on the vision
- Step six: Plan for and create short-term wins
- Step seven: Consolidate improvements and produce more change
- Step eight: Institutionalise new approaches

Kotter claims that successful change efforts go through eight steps. Change will fail, according to Kotter, if steps are skipped, the order is altered or the effort is terminated prematurely. The first step in Kotter's model is to establish a sense of urgency; organisation leaders need to establish a sense of urgency in order to transform the organisation from its current state to the desired state, gaining the needed cooperation and support from the organisation's employees. Kotter believes that most organisations suffer from high complacency. Therefore, 'with urgency low, it's difficult to put together a group with enough power and credibility to guide the effort or to convince key individuals to spend the time necessary to create and communicate a change vision' (p. 38). Step two is about creating a guiding coalition; organisation leaders need to put together a powerful group to lead change and get the group to work together like a team. In step three, leaders develop a vision and strategy; the organisation leader(s) should create a clear vision in the minds of all the organisation's employees. The vision serves three important purposes: clarifying the general direction of the change, motivating the employees to take actions in the right direction and coordinating the actions for different departments and groups towards achieving the vision. Step four involves communicating the change vision; this step is accomplished by using all means available to communicate the new vision and strategies constantly and effectively. This step also includes directing the organisation's leader in guiding the coalition to model the behaviour expected of employees. Step five involves empowering, broad-based action; in this step, Kotter recommends getting rid of all change obstacles, change systems and structures that undermine the change vision and instead encourage employees' risks, form new ideas, and take part in activities and actions that are aligned with the new vision. In step six, short-term successes are generated; this step involves reinforcing the appropriateness of the new vision by planning for and creating visible improvements in performance and rewarding the staff who made those possible. Step seven concerns consolidating gains and producing more change; this step is about using increased credibility to change all systems, structures and policies that do not fit the new vision. The step also includes hiring, promoting and developing people who can implement the new vision and reinvigorate the process with new projects, themes and change agents. Finally, step eight anchors the new approaches to the culture; in this step, organisation leader(s) focus on creating better performance through customer-and productivity-oriented behaviour, more and better leadership and more effective management. This step also includes articulating connections between the new employees' behaviour and organisational success and developing the means to ensure leadership development and succession.

2.2.2 Change Leadership in HE

Academic leadership and governance of higher education: a guide for trustees, leaders, and aspiring leaders of two-and four- year institutions (Hendrickson *et al.*, 2013) focused on academic leadership as a distinctive leadership feature. Because academic organisations differ from non-academic organisations, they require leaders with different skill sets and qualities. There are three popular theories that describe academic organisations: organised anarchy, loosely coupled systems and professional bureaucracy. The first theory describes academic organisations as organised anarchy. The study by Cohen, March and Olsen (1972) referred to academic organisations as organised anarchy because they have three common characteristics: a high degree of ambiguity, an unclear decision-making process and fluid participation in decision-making. The second theory contends that organisations are loosely coupled systems. Coupling describes how weak or strong departments in an organisation are aligned (Glassman, 1973). Dorman *et al.* (2013) explained that in educational institutions, 'Departments in administrative and support divisions tend to be more tightly coupled than those in academic affairs. In most colleges and universities academic affairs consist of a confederation of loosely aligned academic departments that have minimal interaction with each other, and decision by department heads have little impact on other units' (p. 30). The third theory describes an academic institution as a professional bureaucracy. Academic organisations are seen as professional bureaucracies because they hire professional faculty to teach, and faculty are given a high degree of autonomy to do their job (Alghmdi, Abuznadah & Ahmed, 2016; Dorman *et al.*, 2013; Fernandez, Noble, Jensen, Martin & Stewart, 2016; Iskander, Pettaway, Waller & Waller, 2016; Kligyte & Barrie, 2014; Pettaway, Waller, Khodr & Waller, 2015; Van der Voet, 2014; Wiseman, & Al-bakr, 2013). The common characteristics of academic organisations are goal ambiguity, client-focused missions, highly professionalised staff, unclear decision-making processes and environmental vulnerability (Kligyte & Barrie, 2014). This thesis will discuss different types of organization leadership styles, focusing on change leadership in academic sitting.

2.2.3 Change Communication

To answer the question about communication, it is critical to first understand the importance of communication in any organisation's success. Organisations use communication to 'promote, publicize or generally inform relevant individuals and groups within society about their affairs' (Cornelissen, 2014, p. 17). However, the focus of this thesis will be on employee communication only (internal communication). Much communication is exchanged between the organisation's leaders, managers and employees. Communications between leaders and followers, organisational climate, individual ethics, and organisational support significantly influence organisational citizenship behaviours and interactions (Carter, Armenakis, Feild & Mossholder, 2013; Choudhary, Akhtar & Zaheer, 2013; Cianci, Hannah, Roberts & Tsakumis, 2014; López-Domínguez, Enache, Sallan & Simo, 2013; Rafferty, Jimmieson & Armenakis, 2013). Communication is considered either a success or failure during change implementation (Alrawi, Alrawi & Alrawi, 2012; Beatty, 2015; Harmon, Green & Goodnight, 2015; Ocasio, Loewenstein & Nigam, 2015; Petrou, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2016; Smet, Vander Elst, Griep & De Witte, 2016). The work of LeMenager (2014)—*Inside the organisation: perspective on employee communication*—will shed light on how employee communication aids or hinders the success of the change process. The goal of organisation leaders should be to communicate efficiency when developing messages about change to their employees. Communication efficiency is defined as ‘the accomplishment of change communication with a minimum expenditure time, effort and resources’ (Cornelissen, 2014, p. 230). The ideal communication about change is done face-to-face. However, in large organisations, this can be impossible. Therefore, managers tend to rely on the efficiency of communication to spread the message. Successful communication regarding change depends on several factors: the passionate commitment to the idea of clear change, the commitment of the organisation leaders, continued conversations with employees and the motivation of employees. This information will guide the writing of the thesis and the development of the interview questions described in the methodology section.

2.3 Literature Review

The literature review will start at examining different topics related to organisation change management before it moves to the theories related to leadership, communication and finally, higher education organizations.

2.3.1 Organisation Change Management (OCM)

In the world, there are different views or opinions about change. Dunphy, Griffiths and Benn (2007) think of change as though we live in an era when people doubt that change will create better conditions, but change is essential if organisations, and perhaps the human race, are to survive (2007). The definition and other aspects of change are discussed below:

2.3.1.1 Organisational Change Defined

Organisational change originated from Weber’s scientific disciplines and Taylor’s scientific management theory (Weber, 1974; Taylor, 1911). The concept initiated from focusing on the behavioural factors of their systems theory. Burnes (1996) refers to organisation change as understanding alterations within organisations at the broadest level among individuals, groups and at the collective level across the entire organisation. Another definition is that change is the observation of differences of an entity over time in one or more dimensions (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995). Kotter (2007) defines organisational change as the realignment of an organisation through the implementation of new procedures or technologies in order to capitalise on external opportunities while remaining current with the changing markets and demands for business. When examining the literature on change, the researcher found that organisational change has acquired a number of labels, including organisational change, innovation, adaptation and strategic change (Al Ka'abi & Salem, 2013; Barends, Janssen, ten Have & ten Have, 2014; Bin Taher, Krotov & Silva, 2015; Hage, 1999; Kezar, 2001). However, change concepts should be understood by change leaders and agents before attempting to start any change initiative. Understanding change will aid organisation leaders to implement it successfully. However, change literature keeps redefining the concepts of change to explain it better. These refinements include change forces, change degree, timing of change, scale of change, focus of change, intentionality and response time.

Change forces refer to an evaluation of two change environments: (1) external environment and (2) internal environment (Burnes, 1996; Rajagopalan & Spreitzer, 1996). Change degree refers to first-and second-order change. First-order change attempts to make minor adjustments in one or several dimensions of the organisation. On the other hand, second-order changes affect an organisation's mission, values, structure, functions and culture (Al Ka'abi & Salem, 2013; Barends, Janssen, ten Have & ten Have, 2014; Bin Taher, Krotov & Silva, 2015). When it comes to the timing of change, change is classified as 'revolutionary' and 'evolutionary' (Levy & Merry, 1986). Revolutionary change occurs suddenly and affects the organisation's mission, structure and culture. However, evolutionary change takes longer and affects first-order change. Change scale focuses on the study of change on the organisation's individuals at interpersonal and organisational levels. The focus of change refers to the aspects of the organisation that are affected by the change. These systems include structure, process and attitude (Al Ka'abi & Salem, 2013; Barends, Janssen, ten Have & ten Have, 2014; Bin Taher, Krotov & Silva, 2015). Intentionality refers to planned and unplanned change. Finally, response time refers to the proactive change that is initiated before a crisis and before the reaction that happens after a crisis (Kezar, 2001).

2.3.1.2 Understanding Organisational Change

To understand organisational change, we must first understand how organisations work. Many theories in the study of organisations are derived from different disciplines such as sociology, political science and life science. As the focus of this study is mainly organisational change, the focus will be on studying organisations from the perspective of life science theories. The life sciences treat organisations as an open-system, unlike other disciplines that believe that organisations are stable and oppose change (Burke, 2014). Individual, group and organisational perceptions of change may significantly influence how individuals react during periods of organisational change (Arthaud-Day, Rode & Turnley, 2012; Litz, 2014; Neghabi & Ghorbani, 2016; Sharif & Scandura, 2014; Shin, Taylor, & Seo, 2012; Stephenson, Dada & Harold, 2012; Yousef, 2016). Organisations depend on their environment to survive, which is why they are considered open-systems. Organisations use money, raw materials and people to produce output in the form of products or services. Biologist Von Bertalanffy (1950) and Katz and Kahn (1978) outline 10 characteristics of open-systems:

1. Importation of Energy. Organisations take energy from their environment and use it to achieve their goals. The energy organisations come in the form of capital money, human capital, raw materials and technology.

2. Throughput. This is the ability of organisations to collect, analyse and report back their findings from conducting consumer opinion survey or feedback.
3. Output. The organisation’s ability to sell its products and services for a fee.
4. Systems are cycles of events. The cycle of input-process-output is what establishes and identifies organisations as open-systems.
5. Negative Entropy. Burke (2014) explains negative entropy as ‘organisations are not self-sufficient, they are unstable and will not survive or grow unless active and deliberate effort is expended,,,constant effort must be expended not only for the maintenance of an organisation but for its very survival’ (p. 56).
6. Information Input, Negative Feedback, and Coding Process. The organisation’s ability to collect customer feedback and improve its product or services to satisfy its customers. Since it is not possible to collect feedback from all of its customers, staff should use a coding system to simplify all the possibilities into fundamental categories.
7. Steady-State and Dynamic Homeostasis. Katz and Kahn (1978) believe, ‘A steady state is not a motionless or true equilibrium. There is a continuous flow of energy from the external environment and a continuous export of the products of the system, but the character of the system, the ratio of the energy exchanges and the relations between parts, remains the same’ (p. 26).
8. Differentiation. The continuous efforts of the organisation to differentiate itself from its competitors through product improvement, expansion and diversification.
9. Integration and Coordination. According to Katz and Kahn (1987), integration is accomplished through shared norms and values. Organisation managers use its social systems such as structure, roles and authority to achieve integration and coordination.

10. Equifinality. Equifinality means that for any given goal, there are multiple paths the organisation can take to achieve it (Bertalanffy, 1950).

2.3.1.3 Organisation Change Schools

A thorough examination of the literature revealed seven organisation change schools as follows:

1. The learning model/theory action research. This model starts with the top management, and the model focuses on the change itself. This approach's deficiency is its focus on the change as a stand-alone event and its inability to sustain the change. The experts of this model are considered the fathers of modern-era focus on change management: Collier (1945); Trist (1948-1965); French (1969); Agrilis (1976); Brown and Tandon (1983); Tichy and Ulrich (1984); Robbins and Duncan (1988); and Agrylis and Schein (1998).
2. Lewin's (1945, 1951) three-step model and Schein's extension of the model (1980). Lewin's Unfreeze-Change-Refreeze model focused on the change agents' roles and responsibilities in making the change a reality through extensive exchange of information using all available media. The drawback of this model is its focus on the change agents instead of the change evolution.
3. Shifting paradigms model of planned change. The model is an expanded version of Lewin's three-step model to a five-phase model by Lippit, Watson and Westley (1958). Lippit, Watson and Westley believe that changes will be more stable in the organisation if they are allowed to spread to other organisation systems or units.
4. Kotter's Talk and Communicate Eight-Step Model (1996), which was expanded and contracted by Bridges into the Transitions Management Model (2000). This school focuses on change communication and its ability to reach a successful change by speaking to people's feelings.

5. Assimilate and Integrate n-Step Change Models include a number of step models, for example, Jick's abbreviated Ten-Step Model (Jick, 2001, 2003); Ten Commandments (Kanter, 1983, 1989); Ten Keys (Pendlebury, Grouard & Meston, 1998); 12 Action Steps (Nadler, 1989, 1998). This model, as the name implies, focuses on following a number of steps. The change model follows a planned approach towards change and claims to be useful for all types of change.
6. Shield's Five-Step Model (Shield, 1999) and Prosci's ADKAR Organisational Change model (2000-2014). ADKAR model is one of the most widely used change management model in the world. The model started as an easy-to-use model for individual change and with time was proven to work in the business world.
7. Bain Model (2013) and Harrington-Voehl Change Leader Model (2015) focus on negotiated results delivered through project portfolios. The models predict, measure and manage risk associated with such change effort.

2.3.1.4 Change Management Goals

The goal of organisation change management is to enhance organisation performance and ensure continuous improvements in today's changing business world. All change management activities aim to help an organisation find a successful change of strategy, technology, processes and people to best serve its customers and sustain a profitable business (Voehl & Harrington, 2016).

Organisations use change management to minimise the productivity dip during change implementation efforts. Change management consists of three elements: quality management, project management and daily management. The table below shows the three elements' objectives during change management.

Table 1. Goal or Objective for Each of the Three Elements of Change Management

Element	Goal or Objective
Quality management	To improve the organisation in some fashion, for instance, reduce error rates, reduce costs, improve revenues, solve problems, seize opportunities, align work and strategy and streamline information flow within the organisation
Project management	To develop a set of specific plans and actions to achieve the change with the given time, cost and scope constraints and to utilise resources effectively (managing the technical side of the change)
Daily management	To use the process, tools and techniques to make the work of the organisation or unit visible and create a visual workplace

(Voehl & Harrington (2016), Change management: manage the change or it will manage you. Pg. 17.)

Change management integrates processes and tools necessary to implement the change strategy effectively and successfully. The activities are organised around the Plan-Do-Check Act (PDCA) management model as shown in figure 2 (Voehl & Harrington, 2016).

Figure 2. Key Components of Traditional Change Management (Voehl & Harrington, 2016)

2.3.1.5 Organisation Change Models

Many organisation change models exist in the literature of organisation development and change. As this study is based on Kotter's model of change, the researcher will only list the different models while discussing Kotter's model extensively. The following are the most well-known models or frameworks (Voehl & Harrington, 2016):

1. The Universal Change Activation Toolkit developed by Gavin Wendell.
2. ADKAR Model for Change Management developed by Jeff Hiatt.
3. Accelerating Implementation Methodology (AIM) developed by Tom McNellis.
4. Beckham and Harris Change Management Process.
5. Boston Consulting Group (BCG) Change Delta.
6. Bridges Leading Transition Model for Change.
7. Harrington-Voehl Sustainable Change Model.
8. GE's Change Acceleration Process (CAP).
9. McKinsey 7S Change Model
10. Kurt Lewin's Three-Stage Change Model
11. People-Centered Implementation (PCI) Model
12. John Kotter Eight-Step Model for Change
13. Fernandez and Rainey's Eight Step Change Model

Kotter Eight-step Change Model

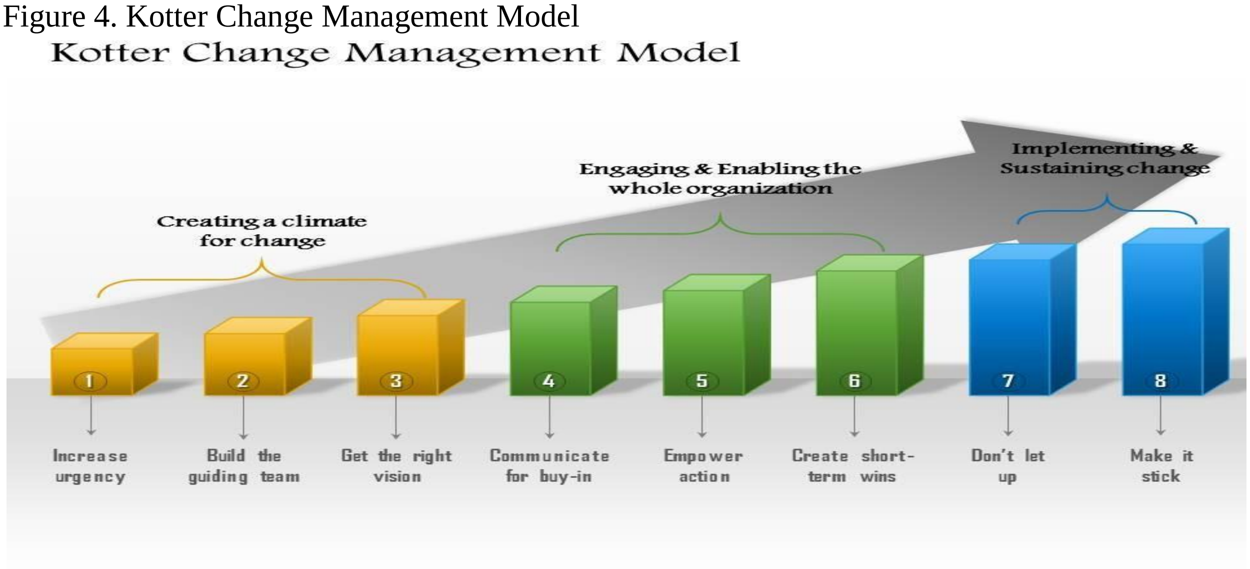
Kotter's eight-step change model is based on Lewin's change model along with several other well-known change models. Lewin's model is also known as the unfreeze-change-refreeze model see figure 3 (Whelan-Berry & Somerville, 2010).

Figure 3. Lewin's Three Step Model

Adopted from 'Field theory in social science' by K. Lewin, 1951, p. 6. Copyright 1951 by Harper and Row.

Lewin's (1951) model argued that the change process in human systems consists of unfreezing, changing and refreezing the psychological thought processes to unlearn behaviours. In 1996, Kotter came up with his change model after working with a number of organisations on change. Kotter's model is an eight-step model. The model offers a systematic approach to developing and leading organisational change. The eight-step model can be grouped into three major phases in change transformation see figure 4 (Cohen, 2005).

Figure 4. Kotter Change Management Model



(Adopted from Cohen, 2005).

1- Creating the climate for change (steps 1, 2 and 3)

Increase urgency: Kotter believes that 'without a high degree of energy an urgency for change at all levels, the workforce will never embrace change, and lasting transformation will be harder, if not impossible, to achieve' (Cohen, 2005, p. 12). During this stage, organisation leaders must define the reason for change using facts and figures, define the risk of not changing, define and establish roles for people during the implementation process, and distribute and compile diagnostic results. Attention must be paid to any complacency, fear and anger during this stage (Cohen, 2005). Communication is critical during this step to make sure the stakeholders are aware of the importance of changing.

Building guiding teams: 'A strong guiding coalition is always needed—one with the right composition, level of trust, and shared objective' (Kotter, 1996, p. 52). The four key characteristics that are essential to affect guiding teams include: position power, expertise, credibility and leadership (Kotter, 1996).

Get the vision right: Cohen believes that vision allows everyone involved in the change to see the need for change in a way that is clear and motivating (2005). Vision creation requires individuals who have the right knowledge, skills, experience and imagination (Cohen, 2005). An effective vision must be imaginable, desirable, feasible, focused, flexible and communicable (Kotter, 2012).

2- Engaging and enabling the whole organisation (steps 4, 5 and 6)

Communicate for buy-in: Communicating the vision is the beginning of the buy-in stage, which reinforces the common goal and influences stakeholders to think and act in accordance with the new organisation direction (Cohen, 2005). Kotter (2012) stresses the importance of effective communication during this stage to maintain a sense of urgency and commitment from all stakeholders using different communicating channels.

Enable action: 'The purpose of this step is to enable a broad base of people to take action by removing as many barriers to the implementation of the change vision as possible' (Cohen, 2005, p. 117).

Create short-term wins: Short-term wins help build momentum and demonstrate that management and staff efforts are paying off (Kotter, 1996). Celebrating short-term wins shows stakeholders that the change is working.

3- Implementing and sustaining the change (steps 7 and 8)

Don't let up: Sustaining the change requires strong and consistent management support and timely communication. Leaders should not lose focus at this step by claiming victory prematurely and move on to the next step (Cohen, 2005). In this stage of the change, it is important for management to make sure that all the organisation systems, structures and policies align with the new vision and change effort.

Make it stick: Reinders (2009) believes that without establishing the appropriate processes and governance structures, change will not stick in the organisation. Change will stick only if it becomes part of the organisation culture. 'Culture changes only after you have successfully altered people's actions, after the new behavior produces some group benefit for a period of time, and after people see the connection between the new actions and the performance improvement' (Kotter, 1996, p. 156).

Kotter's model allows the change process to be divided into multiple stages and steps, which allows more thoughtful and intentional change initiatives (Kotter, 2012). Kotter believes that his model enables those involved to experience a simpler change implementation because it focuses on the change readiness process more than the change itself. The model steps facilitated for clarity in the process are easily understandable and can foster successful change initiatives while adhering to both hierarchical and linear organisational models (Kotter, 2012; Nauheimer, 2009). Organisation change management scholars believe that Kotter's model has many benefits, and entail giving the organisation undergoing this process an opportunity for teambuilding and creating relationships that could be beneficial for the long-term health of the organisation (Lencioni, 2012; Nauheimer, 2009). The model is, however, imperfect. Nauheimer (2009) warns of weaknesses to consider in Kotter's model. Some of these weaknesses include: the linearity of the model can lead to misconstrued expectations; once the process has begun it is difficult to make adjustments; the structure is top down so there is not much room for adaptation; and implementation could lead to members of the organisation feeling marginalised if their feelings and thoughts are not considered.

2.3.1.6 Organisation Change Process

The literature shows primarily six models of how change should be carried out in an organisation: evolutionary (Morgan, 1986); planned (Carnall, 1995); life-cycle (Levy & Merry, 1986); political (Morgan, 1986); social cognition (Scott, 1995); and cultural (Schein, 1985). Organisational change processes can be implemented successfully if leaders implement appropriate communication, resources and ethical considerations (Chiaburu, Lorinkova & Van Dyne, 2013; Fugate, Prussia & Kinicki, 2012; Holten & Brenner, 2015; McKay, Kuntz & Naswall, 2013; Rafferty, Jimmieson & Armenakis, 2013; van den Heuvel, Demerouti & Bakker, 2014). Organisation leaders should use the appropriate model of change if they wish to implement the change successfully. For example, the evolutionary model should be used when the outcome of change is to introduce a new structure or process. This model should be used when the force of change is led by the external environment. On the other hand, if the change is led by the internal environment and the change outcome involves the re-organisation of divisions, the planned model of change is the best option. The life-cycle model is adopted when the organisation's leaders want to introduce a new organisational identity and the change needs to be introduced in phases and needs to rely on staff to successfully implement the change. However, when the desired change will affect the organisation's leaders and involve power relations to successfully implement the change, the political model should be adopted. The social-cognition model is applied when there is a need to grow or learn. Finally, the cultural model is adopted when there is a need to change the human environment of the organisation and introduce new values, beliefs and rituals.

2.3.1.7 Approaches to Managing Change

There are three interrelated approaches to implementing change in organisations: directed change, planned change and guided change (Kerber & Buono, 2005). Change leaders use one of the three approaches depending on the situation in their organisation. Selecting the right approach depends on the organisation's characteristics, change goal, change process, change leadership, change-maker dynamics and the pace of the change. Directed change, as the name implies, is driven from the top of the organisation. It relies on the change leader's authority, persuasion and compliance. Leaders use rational persuasion to convince the organisation members to accept the change. The leader in this approach uses emotional appeals and his or her credibility to win support. Directed change is used by leaders when a quick and decisive action is needed to introduce change in the organisation.

Planned change is a popular way to implement change and is considered the right approach when change is sponsored by the top to transform any level of the organisation. Leaders under this approach seek involvement in and commitment to the change by making extensive use of specific change activities or actions to reduce change resistance and increase or maintain productivity (Beer & Nohria, 2000). Planned change is structured around Lewin's three-stage process of unfreezing, changing, and refreezing (Lewin, 1951). Planned change uses a roadmap to implement change. It attempts to create the conditions organisation members need to become more involved in carrying out the change.

Finally, guided change is driven by the urgent need to implement the change. The success of this type of approach is based on commitment and contribution of organisational members to the organisation's purpose. This approach relies on the organisation members' expertise and creativity along with reconfiguring existing practices and models to reach its goal. This change approach is an interactive process of design and initial implementation: study the progress, redesign and improve the implementation. This approach depends on the organisation's ability to learn from the initial change implementation to redesign a new implementation plan as and when needed (Buono & Kerber, 2010). See table (2) below for a summary of the three approaches.

Table 2. Approaches to Managing Change

Dimensions	Directed Change	Planned Change	Guided Change
Characteristics	Top-down, hierarchical	Linear, road-map	Iterative spiral
Change Goals (Ends)	Tightly defined, unchanging goal	Clear goal, with some modifications as needed	Loosely defined direction
Change Process (Means)	Tightly constrained	Flexible, participative	Experimental, improvisation

Change Leadership (Role)	Tell, order, command	Devise a plan to accomplish the goal	Point the way, guide and watch over, instruct
Change-maker Dynamics	Persuasion	Influence, cooperation	Collaboration
Pace of change	Urgent, fast, 'just do it'	Go slow during planning to go fast during implementation	Act quickly, improvise, learn, react and continue to iterate

(Adopted from Buono and Kerber (2010), 'Creating a sustainable approach to change: building organisational change capacity'.)

However, each of the three approaches has advantages and disadvantages, and leaders should consider these when choosing an approach to implement. For example, planned change efforts often constrain the ability of an organisation to achieve its intended goals and are less flexible in changing conditions (Abrahamson, 2000). While using directed change inappropriately, the change implementation will result in increasing members' negative reactions to change, such as denial, anger, bargaining, sadness and loss (Marks, 2003). Finally, guided change can contribute to organisational chaos if used inappropriately by leaders.

Organisation leaders consider two organisation factors when choosing the appropriate change implementation approaches: business complexity and socio-technical uncertainty (Kerber & Buono, 2005). Business complexity refers to how large an organisation is: the size, geographical dispersion, the nature of interdependencies and related technology, the number of products and services and the array of critical stakeholders. On the other hand, socio-technical uncertainty refers to the amount and nature of information processing and decision-making required to achieve a successful organisation change (Buono & Kerber, 2010).

2.3.1.8 Change Readiness & Change Capacity

A review of the literature differentiates between an organisation's readiness to change and its change capacity. However, change readiness has garnered more interest from scholars in past years.

Change Capacity: Change capacity refers to the ability of an organisation to change not just once, but as a normal response to change in its environment (Chiaburu, Lorinkova & Van Dyne, 2013; Fugate, Prussia & Kinicki, 2012; Holten & Brenner, 2015; McKay, Kuntz & Naswall, 2013; Myers & Stensaker, 2006; Rafferty, Jimmieson & Armenakis, 2013; van den Heuvel, Demerouti & Bakker, 2014). Change capacity requires a more extensive set of interventions. It implies a focus on multiple and iterative and overlapping changes over the entire change period. Building organisation change capacity requires making interventions focused on the organisational members, structure and culture. Organisation members must understand and accept different approaches to change while also enhancing their willingness and ability to change. Leaders should create a change-supportive infrastructure and ensure appropriate resources are available to achieve change capacity. They should also build a facilitative cultur (Buono & Kerber, 2010).

Change Readiness: Change readiness refers to a mental state that typically focuses on the extent that organisational members' beliefs, attitudes and intentions reflect and recognise the need for a particular change at a specific point in time (Cawsey & Deszca, 2007). Organisation change readiness enhancement requires a number of factors, such as clarifying the underlying message for the change (needs, anticipated effects), mobilising collective support for the change across the organisation and encouraging active participation of members (Chiaburu, Lorinkova & Van Dyne, 2013; Fugate, Prussia & Kinicki, 2012; Holten & Brenner, 2015; McKay, Kuntz & Naswall, 2013;

Rafferty, Jimmieson & Armenakis, 2013; van den Heuvel, Demerouti & Bakker, 2014). Readiness for change has been referred to as the 'unfreezing' stage in Lewin's model of change (Burke, 2014). Wallinga (2008) stressed that 'Readiness for change does not necessarily imply armed and prepared in the sense that we often assume it must mean; readiness may also mean at pace, tolerant, or open to change' (p. 319). In literature on change readiness, scholars talk about employees' change valence and change efficacy.

Change Valence refers to the individual employee response to the change and what they expect to see as the outcome of the change (Jansen, Ship & Michael, 2015). Employees differ in how they perceive the impact of change on them. Some will have a positive outlook, some will have a negative outlook and others will fall in between (Jansen et al., 2015). Armenakis et al. (2007) defined change valence as 'the perceived personal benefit (or personal loss) one may reasonably expect as a result of an organizational change. Valence for an organizational change may be a function of extrinsic, as well as, intrinsic outcomes' (p. 278). However, employees' valence may change over the course of change implementation as employees become more aware and informed about the change (Jansen et al., 2015). Employees with a high level of valence are more likely to have higher levels of change acceptance and readiness (Jansen et al., 2015). Jansen et al. (2015) described four different kinds of employees' valence: champions, converts, doubters and defectors. The champions believe the change will bring great benefit to them, so they engage fully in the implementation process. Converts are the ones who take time to see the benefit of the change. They become supportive of the change at a later stage of implementation. Doubters consistently have a low level of valence and do not see how the change will bring them positive benefits. Finally, defectors will consistently fight the change because they perceive it to have a negative effect.

Change Efficacy: Efficacy is defined as confidence in one's ability to complete a task or accomplish a goal (Armenakis et al., 2007). Employees with high confidence in their ability to succeed in implementing the organisation change are vital to the success of the change initiative (Jansen et al., 2015). Weiner (2009) believes that organisation employees who possess efficacy for change along with the ability to manage the process of change are more likely to participate fully in the change development. He also believes that change efficacy rises to a higher level when those involved share a collective confidence in their ability to implement the change in their organisation. 'With the right mindset, skill set, and environment, change initiatives can be satisfying and effective for those involved in it' (Avey, Wernsing & Luthans, 2008, p. 54).

2.3.1.9 Transformational Change

Ackerman-Anderson (1996) believed that 'transformation usually results from radical marketplace or environmental changes coupled with the organisation's inability to handle current and future requirements using its existing mindset, resources, skills, structures and practices' (p. 9). Transformational change is defined by Tichy (1983) as 'non-routine, non-incremental, discontinuous change which alters the overall orientation of the organisation and/or its components' (p. 17). However, 'transformational change will therefore almost always involve culture change to some degree' (Schein, 2004, p. 321). Eckel and Kezar (2003) believe:

> A key part of transformation is changing mind-sets, which, in turn, alters behaviours, appreciations, commitments, and priorities. Over the course of transformation efforts, people develop new beliefs and interpretations and adopt new ways of thinking and perceiving that help create the foundation of significant change. Transformation is about making new sense. (p. 49)

Transformational leadership has often been examined as a response to institutional transformation implementations. A key component of transformational leadership contends that leaders have a responsibility to motivate their followers and allow for facilitative collaboration (Alsaeedi & Male, 2013; Carter *et al.*, 2013; Litz & Scott, 2016; López-Domínguez, Enache, Sallan & Simo, 2013; Van der Voet, 2014). In their study of 23 diverse institutions of higher education, Eckel and Kezar (2003) identified five core strategies that need to be implemented for successful institutional transformation in higher education:

1. Senior administrative support: Senior campus administrators are responsible for the campus financial resources and incentives, and they set the institution's vision and priorities. They also invite collaboration and facilitate collaborative leadership. In addition, they support the institutional change initiative and provide consistent reassurance that the change will bring benefits to the institution.
2. Collaborative leadership: Successful transformation occurs when leaders at different levels work compatibly and trust each other. Leaders must engage in cross-campus teams, task forces, and committees and encourage and support faculty leadership.
3. Flexible vision: Transformational leaders should have a clear, flexible vision that is consistent and has a targeted direction.
4. Visible action: Campus activities must be visible and widely promoted towards the articulated goals of the transformation agenda set by the leaders. Visible action is an important strategy for building momentum and keeping the institution focused on the current tasks.

5. Staff development: Higher education leaders must invest in staff development. Staff members should learn new behaviours, learn new skills and develop new capacities.

The key factor to successful change in higher education organisations lies in the sector leaders' adoption of a more distinctive approach to change than other for-profit organisations (Kezar, 2001). The goal of this distinctive approach is to avoid overlooking factors that may result in failed analysis. The wrong strategy is to use concepts that could clash with values of the academic staff that must carry out the change (Kezar, 2001). A distinctive model of change must consider the following unique features (Alsaeedi & Male, 2013; Birnbaum, 1991; Carter *et al*., 2013; Litz & Scott, 2016; López-Domínguez *et al.*, 2013; Van der Voet, 2014):

- Interdependent organisation
- Relative independence from environment
- Unique culture of the academy
- Institutional status
- Values-driven
- Multiple power and authority structures
- Loosely coupled system
- Organised anarchical decision-making
- Professional and administrative values
- Shared governance
- Employee commitment and tenure
- Goal ambiguity

- Image and success

Kotter (1995), on the other hand, believes that successful transformational change must go through eight steps. He contends that organisations that skip steps or make critical mistakes in any phase will fail. His research showed that the most critical errors include not establishing enough sense of urgency; not creating a powerful guiding coalition; not having a vision; not communicating the vision sufficiently; not removing obstacles to the new vision; not systematically planning for and creating short-term wins; not being judicious in the timing of a declaration of victory and finally, not anchoring changes in the corporation's culture.

2.3.1.10 The role of change agents

Successful change management depends on how change is communicated to the organisation staff (Chiaburu, Lorinkova & Van Dyne, 2013). Organisation leaders depend on change agents to communicate the change. The role of change agents is vital as they work as the middle contact between top management and organisation bottom-line staff. Fugate, Prussia and Kinicki (2012) and Rafferty, Jimmieson and Armenakis (2013) studied a number of educational change initiatives and found that it didn't matter if they started change at the top or the bottom of the organisation. What did matter was that people in the middle of the organisation started acting differently and became agents for the change by promoting and supporting the change. They must be role models to others by changing their practices and way of doing business. This was seen as the most critical strategy to instil continued change and move towards the initialisation of change.

Change agents use proven change communication skills to help communicate with the organisation staff. However, change initiatives usually fail if change agents fail to motivate employees to 'pitch in' and work cooperatively for the intended change (Fugate, Prussia & Kinicki, 2012). Previous research suggests that effective communication with organisational members is critical for creating a readiness to change (Rafferty, Jimmieson & Armenakis, 2013). Change agents should use five key message components to ensure effective change communication management: *self-efficacy* for building confidence, *principal support* from the management, *discrepancy* between the status quo and the desired state, *appropriateness* of the change measures and *personal valence* in terms of benefits for the change recipients (Armenakis, Harris & Field (1999). Therefore, it is vital for change agents to manage employees' resistance successfully (Oreg, 2003).

2.3.1.11 The change cycle

Salerno and Brock (2008) published a book about how people can survive and thrive during organisational change. They produced a practical guide to navigate the six stages of change that individuals go through (see figure 5). The change cycle starts with the stage in which staff move from loss to safety. During this stage, individuals feel fear while their thoughts are cautious and their behaviour is paralysed. Their focus is on creating a sense of safety. The following signs indicate that staff are struggling in stage 1:

- Withdraws by avoiding talking about their thoughts and feelings
- Concentrates on old routines, fudging the change
- Speculates about his result
- Perceives a total or partial loss of control over the situation
- Focuses on self only
- Acts powerless when facing change
- Fights the change, freezes or puts up defences

In stage 2, staff shift from doubt to reality. They feel resentment, their thoughts are sceptical and they behave in a resistant way. The following signs indicate staff is struggling in stage 2:

- Acts defensive
- Pushes a ‘me vs. them’ dynamic
- Shows passive or aggressive anger at decision-makers
- Blames others for what is happening
- Asks and repeats the same questions
- Claims not to understand a clear and repeated concept
- Works slowly, sluggishly, poorly, or behind schedule
- Expresses a lack of trust, even disgust, shown in facial expressions and body language

In stage 3, staff move from discomfort to motivation. They feel anxiety, have confused thoughts and behave in an unproductive way. Below are the signs of struggling in this stage:

- Becomes frustrated or overwhelmed
- Worries about the future
- Easily distracted
- Difficulty managing medium- to long-term tasks
- Dismal outlook on things
- Sluggishness
- Inconsistent workplace attitude
- Lower quality work
- Unable to prioritise

During stage 4, staff are moving from discovery to perspective. They feel anticipation while their thoughts are resourceful and their behaviour is energised. The following signs indicate staff are in stage 4 of the change cycle:

- Offer new ideas
- Feel energised
- Eagerly work with others towards a common solution or goal
- Demonstrate insights into ways to move forward
- Explore options and choices
- Create a sense of teamwork
- Motivate and energise others
- Readily plan short-term and long-term goals

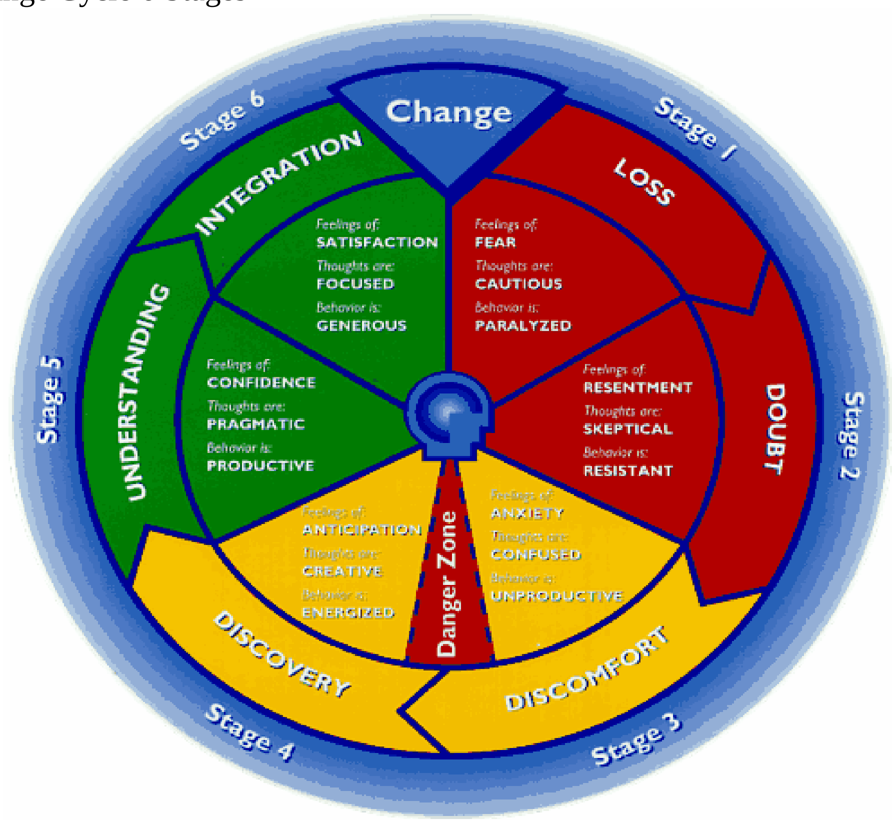
Under stage 5, staff begin to understand the benefit of the change initiative. They feel confident, their thoughts are pragmatic and behaviours are productive. Staff moving through this stage:

- Display clear competence in post-change tasks
- See how ideas can be implemented
- Focus on the change's benefits
- Consistently produce
- Flexibly respond to continued challenges and upgrades
- Show appreciation for those who help them adapt and adjust
- Help and mentor others

Finally, staff in stage 6 of the change cycle experience integration. They start feeling satisfied while their thoughts are focused and their behaviour is generous. During this stage, staff:

- Takes advantage of organisation growth opportunities
- Accepts advice; offers help to others
- Thanks others for the collective effort
- Shows flexibility to adjust to problems.
- Gained knowledge and grew during the process of change
- Is satisfied with how things turned out

Figure 5. Change Cycle 6 Stages



(Adapted from Salerno and Brock, 2008)

2.3.1.12 Level of Change: Individual, Group Change and Systems

During major or transformational change efforts, organisation leaders design and implement individual and group change activities to help them move towards the new direction or leader's vision.

At the individual level:

The organisation's human resource department, in an effort to encourage and support its members to embrace the change, engage in the following activities:

1. Recruitment, selection, replacement and displacement of staff.
2. Training and development.
3. Coaching and counselling.

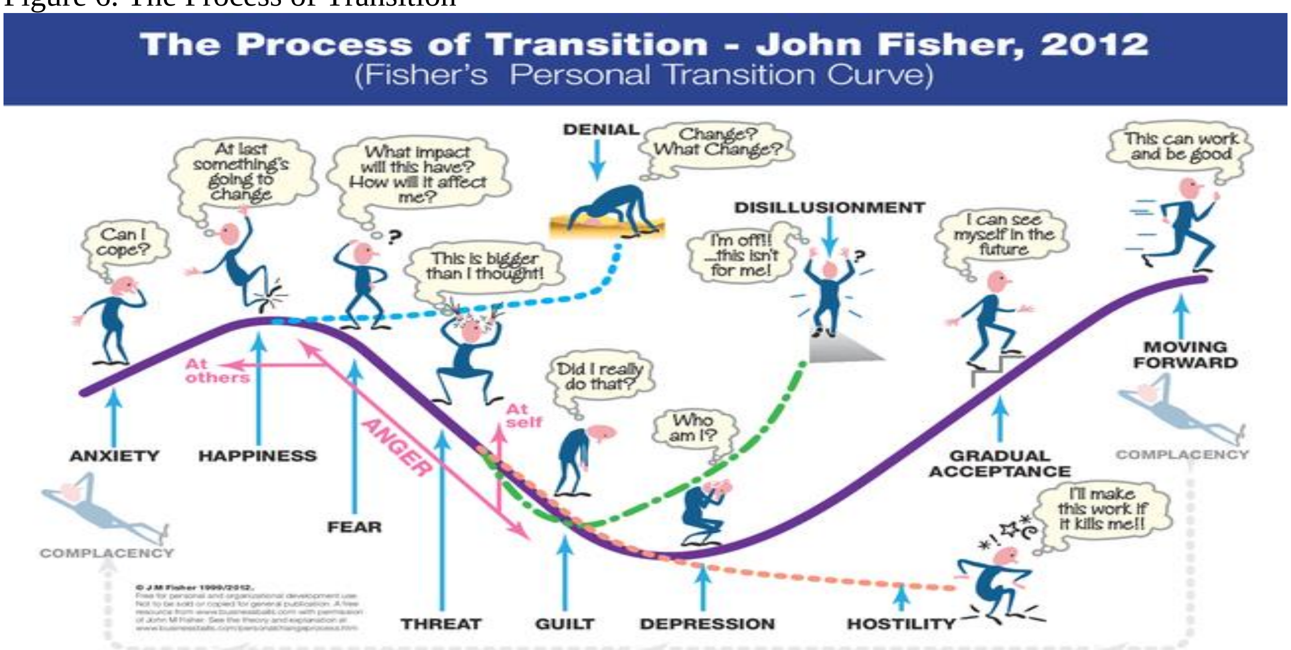
However, individuals respond to change in two ways: resist or embrace (Alnefaie, 2016; Ibrahim, 2013; Miqdadi, ALMomani, Shadid Masharqa & Elmousel, 2014; Vakola, Armenakis & Oreg, 2013; Vakola, 2014). Vakola (2014) has argued that whether change is resisted or embraced, all change is nevertheless a loss experience, particularly a loss of familiar routines. The degree of staff resistance to change will depend on how important the loss is to them. Vakola also believes that all loss must be mourned to give the staff a chance to discuss and deal with their feelings before being able to perform effectively on the job. He states that 'most organisational change flounders because the experience of loss is not taken into account. When the threats of loss are so severe as to increase people's sense of helplessness, their ability to master themselves and their environments decreases. To undertake successful organisational change, an executive must anticipate and provide means of working through that loss' (p. 83). However, individuals' reactions to change in organisations have been associated with the work of psychiatrist Elizabeth Kubler-Ross (1969) in her five stages of dealing with terminal illness. It is worth noting that not all individuals react to the change in the same way or go through all five stages, as some may not move beyond denial.

1. Shock and denial
2. Anger

3. Bargaining
4. Depression
5. Acceptance

There are three types of individual resistance to change: blind resistance, political resistance and ideological resistance. Blind resistance is a reaction of some organisation staff towards any change initiative. They fear change and react by resisting any form of it. Political resistance, as the name implies, is a reaction of some staff members who are afraid of losing their power, status or income. They usually engage in some sort of negotiation or trade to embrace the change. Ideological resistance represents staff members who genuinely believe that the change is not going to succeed or is in violation of their values (Burke, 2014). However, Vakola, Armenakis and Oreg (2013) explain that staff responses to change differ in four primary ways, in that they (1) seek routine, (2) react emotionally, (3) take a short-term focus, and (4) react in a cognitively rigid way. Fisher (2012) writes about how individuals go through a transition process as shown below in figure 6.

Figure 6. The Process of Transition



On the other hand, there are three ways to help organisation staff embrace change. Bridges (1986) argues that staff in transition move through three phases of ending and letting go: surrender, the 'no man's land and a new beginning. However, Jick's (1990) words on managing staff transition are worth mentioning:

> These basically optimistic theories about how people eventually embrace change, while psychologically accurate, are somewhat simplistic. Most people will work through the emotional phases they delineate; some will do so more quickly than others. Others will get stuck, often in the first stages, which encompass the most keen and jagged emotions. People get stuck for two basic and obvious reasons: 'Change' is not some monolithic event that has neat and tidy beginnings and ends, and people's subjective experiences of change vary considerably as a result of individual circumstances. Moreover, frameworks that presume periods of psychological sorting while the change is being digested are somewhat flimsy in helping us deal with multiple changes. How are we to be in 'defensive retreat' with one change, in the 'neutral zone' with another, and also adapt to a third? If these changes are also rapid-fire, a fairly common situation in these days of upheaval in the political and economic arenas, it becomes clearer why some people 'resist' (p. 5).

At Group Level

Group level responses to organisational change can be influenced by perceptions associated with resource allocation, social factors and responsibilities to employees (Jayaraman, Colapinto, La Torre & Malik, 2015; Keser, 2011; Renukapp, 2014). Group level resistance to organisational change can take four forms (Burke, 2014):

- 'Turf' Protection and Competition. Group members may think of organisational change as a threat to their survival; therefore, they fight it at all cost to ensure continuity.
- Closing Ranks. This refers to the mentality of 'one for all and all for one' as group members will refuse any attempt to divide them or ask them to join other groups.
- Changing Allegiances or Ownership. Some groups may resist organisation change by asking to be separated from the parent organisation.
- Demand for New Leadership. Some groups may resist change by requesting to change their leader by claiming incompetence. The leader being competent or incompetent is not what concerns them, they just want to fight the change effort.

At System Level

At the system level, perceptions of organisational change often focus on sustainability (Greenwood, Hinings & Jennings, 2015; Madichie & Kolo, 2013; Pettaway, Waller & Waller, 2015). There are five ways of resistance to change at the system level (Burke, 2014):

- Revolution Becomes, at Best, Evolution. This happens when the old organisational culture is too strong or the bureaucracy too pervasive. The end result will be a failed change that, instead of transforming the organisation, may end up achieving small changes in the organisation.
- Insufficient Sense of Urgency. This happens when the organisation staff does not believe in or support the need to change. They lack motivation so they end up fighting it.
- 'This Too Shall Pass'. This happens when old attempts to transform the organisation fail due to high staff resistance. Therefore, any new attempt will be expected to fail, too.
- Diversionary Tactics. Organisation staff members try to sabotage the leader's effort to change the organisation. This can be done through arguing the timing of the change,

creating a diversion such as dropped sales numbers or failed technology to force organisation management to put their change plans on hold and fix the problem(s).

- Lack of Followership. Staff members work against the change leader.

Table 3. Summary of Responses to Organisational Change According to Organisational Level

Organisational Level	Resistance	Coping with Change
	• Has to do with losing something of value to the person	• Transitioning: ending and letting go, going through the neutral zone, making a new beginning
	• Forms: blind, political and ideological (Hambrick & Cannella, 1989)	• Achieving closure: dealing with unfinished business
	• Apathy is worse; with resistance, there is energy, and the person cares about something	• Participation: helping to make the change work
	• 'Turf' protection and competition	• The sense of individuals as listed above
	• Closing ranks: 'circle the wagons'	• Conducting a closure ceremony (e.g. 'funeral)
	• Changing allegiances or ownership	• Conducting group problem-solving sessions, preferably off-site
	• Demand for new leadership	• Recompose the membership of groups
	• Revolution becomes, at best, evolution	• The above for individuals and groups are applicable at the organisational level as well
	• Insufficient sense of urgency	• Ensuring that a compelling case for the change has been made
	• 'This too shall pass'	• This time, the change initiative is different—we mean it, and we are in it for the long haul
	• Diversionary tactics: sabotage, timing is wrong, too many initiatives underway, and the change is way of avoiding our real work	• Strong, effective leadership
	• Lack of followership	• Followers collude or conspire with one another to find fault with the leader. No leadership, no change.

Ford et al. (2008) talked about the need to regard resistance to change as an important organisational resource, rather than condemn it. Arkowitz (2002) pushed this idea further by asking to replace the term 'resistance' with the more neutral term 'ambivalence'. This part of change management study still interests researchers to better understand the role of change agents in supporting a successful change and how their communication styles and skills play a role in that. We will discuss this more when we discuss change communication later.

2.3.2 Organisation Leadership

Kotter defined leadership as ‘the development of vision and strategies, the alignment of relevant people behind those strategies, and the empowerment of individuals to make the vision happen, despite obstacles’ (Kotter, 1999, p. 10). Ling, Simsek, Lubatkin, Lyon and Veiga (2008) defined leadership as a continuous creative function that involves constant appraisal for the dynamic external and internal environment of organisations. Avolio (2010) explained that leadership is a process of influencing others and can be practiced anywhere, by anyone, and towards any end. Leadership is seen from different perspectives depending on the scholar who views it. Leadership can be the focus of a group from a personality perspective, as an act or behaviour, as a result of a power relationship, and/or from a skills perspective (Sabri, 2012). According to Bono and Anderson (2005), essential qualities that a leader must possess include anticipation, self-confidence, decisiveness, emotional stamina, empathy, desire, courage, tenacity, accountability, physical stamina, timing, credibility, stewardship, dependability, responsibility, courage and competitiveness. Moreover, effective leaders must possess qualities such as vision, assertiveness and dominance, flexibility, adaptability, stress tolerance, integrity, energy and stamina and imagination and creativeness (Bono & Anderson, 2005). Recently, the quality of being a change leader is also important to being an effective leader in today’s business environments. Why do we need change leaders? Cran (2016) urges that ‘we need change leaders because we are living and working in times of major transformation. We must have change leaders because change leaders are transformers helping to drive innovation forward. We need change leaders because change is challenging and we need change to model how to thrive and innovate and create positive outcomes’

(p. 17). Therefore, successful change requires individuals who will initiate and lead the change process.

Leadership theorists have studied the relationship between leaders and their followers extensively. In their studies, they developed a description of leaders based on how they led their teams. Leadership styles refer to the series of managerial attitudes, behaviours, characteristics and skills based on individual and organisational values, leadership interest and reliability of employees in different situations (Sabri, 2012). They also wrote about different styles of leadership: transformational (leaders) and transactional (managers).

2.3.2.1 Leadership and Management

Although leadership and management are similar because both involve influencing people, working with groups and meeting goals and achievements, they are dissimilar as well. While the main function of management is to provide order to the organisation and to seek stability, leadership is concerned with producing constructive change and movement (Carter *et al.*, 2013). Van der Voet (2014) also discusses the difference between leaders' and managers' personalities. It has been found that managers tend to adopt an impersonal attitude towards goals, while leaders adopt a personal and active attitude towards goals. Managers' work to limit choices and problems, and leaders develop new approaches to and insights into old problems. Managers avoid taking risks while leaders are high-risk takers. Although managers like to work with people and often avoid working alone, they tend to maintain a low level of emotional attachment to people. On the other hand, leaders are more emotionally involved with their staff. While managers' use 'signals' when communicating with their staff, leaders use 'messages'. Finally, managers tend to be attached to their organisations while leaders are not (Figure 2). This study will focus on transformational leaders. Carter *et al.* (2013) asserted that only transformational leaders bring about change to their organisation. Leaders who fail to do so are not, therefore, transformational.

Table 4. A Comparison of Transformational Leaders (leaders) and Transactional Leaders (managers) according to Burnes (1978).

Dimensions for Comparison	Leaders	Managers
Emotional involvement	With the institution and with ideals/ vision	With the task and the people associated with the task
Personal life	Work and personal life not distinguishable	Work is separate from personal, private life
Achieves commitment via	Inspiration	Involvement
Holds people accountable via	Guilt induction; want whole person	Contractual transactions; want task accomplishment
Value emphasis	Terminal; end state	Instrumental; means to an end
Problems	Create them	Fix them
Plans	Long-range	Short-range
Appreciates from followers/ subordinates	Contrariness	Conformity
Engenders in followers/ subordinates	Intense feelings—love, sometimes hate; desire to identify with; turbulent	Feelings not intense but relations are smoother and steadier

(Source: Burk, 2014. Organisation change: theory and practice.)

2.3.2.2 Instructional and Academic Leadership

There are two major approaches to educational leadership: instructional leadership and academic leadership. Instructional leadership focuses predominantly on the role of the school principal in coordinating, controlling, supervising and developing curriculum and instruction in the school (Bamburg & Andrews, 1990). Instructional leaders are conceived to be ‘strong, directive leaders’ (Edmonds, 1979). They lead from a combination of expertise in the field and charisma. They are hands-on principals, focus on curriculum and instruction and are unafraid of working with teachers on the improvement of teaching and learning (Cuban, 1984). Instructional leaders are goal oriented, focusing on the improvement of student academic outcomes, and they are culture builders (Mortimore, 1993). There are three dimensions of the instructional leadership construct: defining the school's mission, managing the instructional programme and promoting a positive school-learning climate (Hallinger, 2000). Instructional leadership has been characterised as a directive and top-down approach to school leadership (Barth, 1990). It also emphasises the principal's coordination and control of instruction (Cohen & Miller, 1980).

Ramsden (1998) has come up with the concept of academic leadership. However, not much research has been done to study academic leaders in higher education (Siddique et al., 2011). Alhebsi, Pettaway and Waller (2015) call for strong academic leaders to lead the academic institute as it faces much pressure due to quality assurance, performance management and continuous improvement. Moreover, maintaining professional and personal autonomy of employees is also considered an important academic leadership quality.

A literature review of the difference between academic leaders and non-academic leaders sheds comparatively little systematic light on the difference. Research on international academic leaders has highlighted the following points about the difference between academic leaders and non-academic leaders (Alhebsi, Pettaway & Waller, 2015; Scott *et al.*, 2008):

- In higher education, the value of 'collegiality' is more important than the focus on outcomes, which are more important for industry leaders.
- Academic leaders must operate under the timetable and political pressures of government to secure funds, unlike private business leaders.
- The outcomes of higher education are hard to measure compared to business profitability.

In Scott et al.'s study, the participants highlighted the importance of academic leaders' competence and capabilities to succeed in running and transforming their institutions. Competence means 'possessing the requisite capacities and knowledge base to undertake one's agreed upon functions' (Dauphin, 2005, p. 1). However, competences are more associated with management than leadership. Tucker (1992) listed the 11 most essential knowledge, skills and attributes of academic leaders in US higher education:

Table 5. Essential Knowledge, Skills, and Attributes of Academic Leaders in US Higher Education

Budgeting and resource allocation	Curriculum and programmes	Department administration
External communication	Faculty affairs	Internal communication
Legal	Office management	Professional development
Staffing	Student affairs	

On the other hand, capabilities are more associated with academic leadership, as they require the talent and capacity necessary to cooperate successfully with others to achieve the required change and innovation (Scott, 2008). Scott's study of international participants indicated the importance of the following capabilities of academic leaders:

> Being able to work productively, calmly, persuasively, and deftly with diversity and uncertainty; a willingness to take responsibility and make a hard decision; a capacity to inspire others to action through sound decision-making, integrity and enthusiasm; an ability to diagnose and figure out what is really going on in a complex situation; a capacity to 'see the big picture', to identify and set down what ultimately proves some years down the track to be a successful new direction, and then the ability to engage and support people in making it happen in a way that is both tactical and responsive. It entails, as one participant emphasized, the ability

to ‘read and respond to a continuously and rapidly changing external environment’ (2008, p. 11).

Research also indicates that academic leaders require the ability to develop a collaborative and supportive culture and to provide opportunities to share knowledge among colleagues. Ramsden (1998) suggests that effective academic leaders in higher education must be skilful in the following areas:

- Leadership in teaching (new ideas, creativity, exciting);
- Leadership in research;
- Strategic networking and vision;
- Transformational and collaborative leadership;
- Fair and efficient management;
- Development and recognition of performance; and
- Interpersonal skills.

2.3.2.3 Leadership Styles

Leadership style theory focuses on the behaviour of leaders and the interchange between task behaviour and relationship behaviour (Northouse, 2007). There are many different leadership styles according to the leadership literature. However, this study will focus on transformational and transactional leadership styles.

Transactional leadership: Kuhnert (1994) explained transactional leadership as the exchange of things of value between the leader and his or her subordinates. Therefore, transactional leadership is based on exchange between the group and the leader. Rewards and punishments are used as a control mechanism, and the leaders are not concerned with their followers’ development (Bass &

Avolio, 1994; Dubrin & Dalglish, 2003). De Vries (2001) calls transactional leadership a 'mundane contractual exchange based self-interest' (p. 252). In other words, transactional leadership is a traditional leadership style most suited to keep the organisation running smoothly in stable circumstances (Antaraman, 1993; Dunford, 1997). The transactional leadership style is used as it has proved to be effective in encouraging and motivating employees to achieve the organisation's short-term goals (Lussier & Achua, 2004). Transactional leadership is divided into two different transactions: constructive transactions and corrective transactions. Constructive transactions occur when leaders define tasks to be performed and compensation to be gained upon completion of the tasks. Corrective transactions occur when leaders correct the employees' mistakes as they happen (Scott, 2015).

This type of leadership is more common in our life, as it is seen in the relationship with teachers and students. The relationship is based on the exchange of grades for performance. This type of leadership is based on the exchange of values such as rewards for meeting objectives. The three dimensions of transactional leadership are contingent reward, management by exception-active and management by exception-passive. In its passive form, the leader waits for mistakes to occur before taking action. In its active form, the leader works closely with his or her subordinates to monitor for mistakes (Northouse, 2013). However, a transactional leadership style is only capable of building short-term relationships between employees and employers. The major shortcomings of transactional leadership are that it does not allow for exceptional circumstances and foster creativity (Bealer and Bhanugopan, 2014). Transactional leaders closely monitor their employees and supply immediate solutions (e.g., clarifying roles) that followers can adopt to address demands that come up at work (Stordeur, D'Hoore, & Vandenberghe, 2001). Transactional leaders also emphasize control, stability, formalization, and efficiency (Bass, 1990), believe in managing follower performance, and have a deeper understanding of how and why the system works the way it does (Bass, 1985, 1990). Indeed, “contingent rewards” has been shown to be the most construct valid component of transactional leadership (e.g., Avolio & Bass, 1991; Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Transformational Leadership: Bass (1997) defines transformational leadership as the process of consciously influencing individuals or groups to make changes in current situations and organisational functions as a whole. Madlock (2008) defines it as leaders elevating and expanding the interest of their followers. Transformational leadership is ‘the process whereby a person engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower’ (Northhouse, 2013, p. 186). According to Muller and Turner (2007), transformational leadership is viewed as a definitive example of charismatic or visionary type of leadership. Bass (1985) argued that transformational leadership motivates followers to do more than what is expected of them by (a) raising their level of consciousness about the organisation’s goals, (b) getting them to transcend their own self-interest for the benefit of the organisation, and (c) getting the followers to address higher level needs. Moreover, transformational leadership is characterized by the four I’s or the four dimensions: Idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation (Alsaeedi & Male, 2013; Carter *et al.*, 2013; Litz & Scott, 2016; López-Domínguez *et al.*, 2013; Van der Voet, 2014).

Transformational leaders have visions that are formed through an understanding of the organisation itself, the environment and the concept of leadership (Alsaeedi & Male, 2013; Carter *et al.*, 2013; Litz & Scott, 2016; López-Domínguez *et al.*, 2013; Van der Voet, 2014). Transformational leaders are known for taking risks, empowering and delegating, communicating effectively, being involved in the organisational change and having an ethical approach to leadership that reflects their values. In addition, transformational leaders believe that followers must be appreciated, respected and rewarded for behaviours that advance the organisation (Roueche *et al.*, 1989). One of the goals of a transformational leader is the development of followers who are confident, able to think on their own and capable of continued development into leaders (Alsaeedi & Male, 2013; Carter *et al.*, 2013; Litz & Scott, 2016; López-Domínguez *et al.*, 2013; Van der Voet, 2014). James (2003) believes that leadership in learning institutions is more evolutionary and visionary than comparative. Moreover, according to Jung and Sosik (2002), transformational leaders tend to engage with other people in a way that followers and leaders raise one another to high levels of morality and motivation. Transformational leadership aims to raise the level of morality among followers by directing them, influencing them, and raising their values, goals and motives to facilitate the followers to bring substantial changes (Krishnan, 2002). Transformational leadership seeks to increase the organisational performance by creating and endorsing a vision that provides empowerment to the followers for setting higher team and individual goals, allowing them to embrace change for meeting the unforeseeable challenges (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Zaleznik, 2004). Transformational leaders tend to facilitate higher performance as they develop in their subordinates: (a) an identification with the leader, (b) a strong and clear self-concept, and (c) alignment of goals and values (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Tichy and Ulrich (2008) believe that transformational leaders possess traits to carry dynamic change. Other scholars and practitioners alike believe that the primary task of transformational leaders is to bring about change in order to maintain and enhance organisational success (Bass, 1995), but they know that change is not easy and only 30% of all change initiatives are successful (Burnes, 2009). This low percentage suggests that not all leaders are able to succeed. Kotter (1996) recommended the following tactics for a successful change: leaders should inspire their followers through vision, empower them through involvement, and be sensitive to their followers' needs. He also recommended that communicating the change plan, building a guiding coalition and developing a sense of urgency while providing support were essential to transformational change. In addition, change leaders create a vision for the change so that their followers can envision how things will look when the change is accomplished. They also involve their followers in the change to create a sense of ownership, which will increase their motivation. Transformational leaders provide empowerment to their followers by (a) allowing risk-taking, (b) encouraging creativity, (c) embracing errors, and (d) clarifying goals (Kark, Shamir & Chen, 2003; Koene et al., 2002).

Various studies have demonstrated a positive relation between transformational leadership and staff commitment and job satisfaction (Kahai, 2000; Madlock, 2008; Bass, 1985). Kahai (2000) suggests that there is an association between transformational leadership and group effectiveness. A Jung and Avolio (2000) study supported the positive link between transformational leadership and trust and value. Transformational leadership has been widely studied in relation to many organisation and leadership outcomes such as knowledge creation (Tse & Mitchell, 2010), creativity and innovation (e.g. M. F. Cheung & Wong, 2011; Garcia-Morales, Matias-Reche & Hurtado-Torres, 2008; J. Lee, 2008), organisational commitment (e.g. Dimaculangan & Aguiling, 2012; Ismail, Mohamed, Sulaiman, Mohamad & Yusuf, 2011), organisational citizenship behaviours (e.g. Jiao, Richards & Zhang, 2011; U. H. Lee, Kim & Kim, 2013), and teams and virtual teams (e.g. Mannheim & Halamish, 2008; Mitchell & Boyle, 2009).

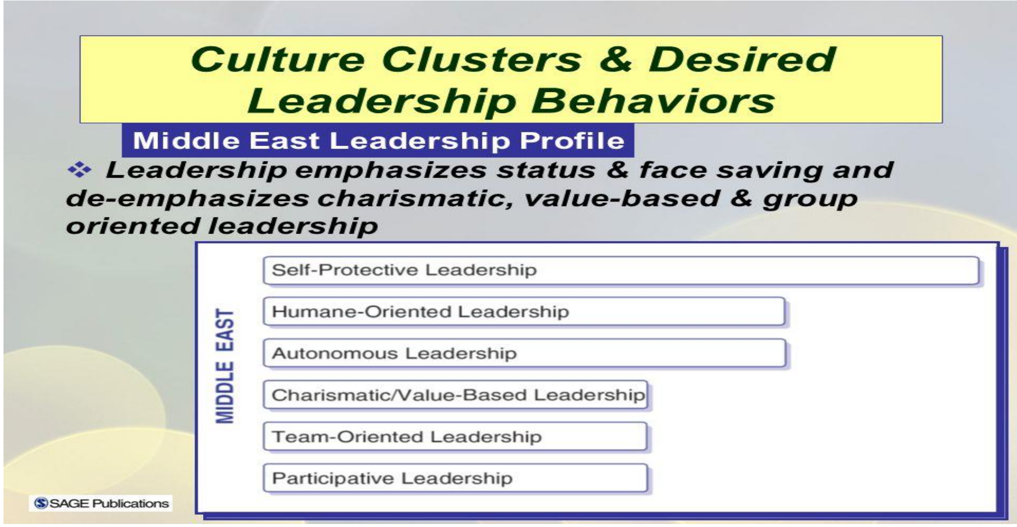
Table 6. The Difference Between Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Basis	Transactional	Transformational
Active vs. Proactive	Leadership is responsive	Leadership is proactive
Organisation Culture	Works within the organisational culture	Works to change the organisational culture by implementing new ideas
Organisation Goals & Objectives	Employees achieve objectives through rewards and punishments set by leader Motivates followers by appealing to their own self interest	Motivates followers by encouraging them to put group interests first
Relationship with Subordinates	Management-by-exception: maintain the status quo; stress correct actions to improve performance.	Individualised consideration: Each behaviour is directed to each individual to express consideration and support.
Source of Power	Rank, Position	Character, Competence
Follower Reaction	Compliance	Commitment
Time Frame	Short-Term	Long-Term
Rewards	Pay, Promotion, etc.	Pride, Self-esteem, etc.
Supervision	Important	Less important
Counselling Focus	Evaluation	Development
Where Change Occurs	Follower Behaviour	Follower Attitudes, Values
Where 'Leadership' is found	Leaders' behaviour	Followers' heart

2.3.2.4 The Arab Leadership Styles

Scott-Jackson (2010) has evaluated Arab manager-leaders through cultural context. The Arab culture is characterised by open, heated and prolonged discussion and debate. Conflicts are dealt with using 'response hierarchies', in which the dominant response is applied first, but if the desired result is not obtained, the next response in the hierarchy is adopted. Collaboration and compromise dominate most of the dealings and work practices and also the conflict management style of the Arabs. Force or coercion is not the work style in Arab culture; rather, soft and tolerant attitudes are displayed by business managers. In workplaces, it is likely that Arab workers rely more on formal and unwritten rules and subordinates and less on one's own experience and training (Smith, Achoui & Harb, 2007). Scott-Jackson's (2010) study observed that an Arab manager-leader supports, guides and nurtures team members and seeks to be a strong role model through knowledge gaining, sharing and management while maintaining informal communication both upward and downward following an open-door policy. He or she displays loyalty to the boss and expects the same from subordinates while giving them the freedom to voice their opinion in private without implying disloyalty (Scott-Jackson, 2010). Although an Arab manager-leader values time and believes that it should not be wasted, he or she may not follow artificial time boundaries between work and life as practised by Westerners. An Arab manager-leader believes in time controlling priorities and not vice versa, which is quite contrary to Western principles that emphasise prioritising. Arab manager-leaders are known for trading with respect because they believe in mutual respect for humanity, culture and rights. They exemplify tolerance, transparency in behaviour, openness to other people's views, they seek solutions that are mutually beneficial, are hospitable and friendly with an active interest in other cultures and nationalities and are ready to adopt behaviours and norms of other cultures without any inhibitions in maintaining their own fundamental values. The Arab leader is also known for exercising common sense and emotional intelligence (Scott-Jackson, 2010). All these values and traits create a style of leadership and management that is distinct to the Arab culture. Scott-Jackson (2010) argues that these traits and cultural norms of Arab culture are valuable differentiating strategic capabilities that can be developed to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage (see Figure 7 below).

Figure 7. Culture Clusters & Desired Leadership Behaviours in the Middle East



(Source: Northouse, 2013. Leadership: Theory and practice.)

The Middle East on the whole, especially the Gulf countries, has a large number of expatriate managers and workers (Markaz, 2012). However, researchers have found that Middle Eastern countries' profiles of leadership focus on status and saving face, while charismatic, team-oriented and participative decision-making are less valued in effective leadership. In UAE, the Arab culture has a salient role in leadership style (Mendenhall, Reiche, Bird & Osland, 2012), and organisational practices are characterised by hierarchical structure and large power distance (Weir, 2003; Weir & Hutchings, 2005). In the UAE, Arab expatriates and Emirati managers display a preference for participative and pseudo-consultative styles. On the other hand, Western expatriates show a high commitment to the consultative style, while Jordanians and Indians practice authoritative styles (Darwish, 2000). In another study, Ali et al. (1995) investigated the decision-making styles of UAE national managers, Arab and foreign expatriates to find that the consultative style is dominant. Moreover, Ali (1993) found a strong preference for the consultative style among Arab Gulf executives. Consultative and participative leadership styles were found to be the preferred styles of Arabs in a number of studies (Muna, 1980; Ali, 1993; Al-Jafary & Hollingsworth, 1983). However, when examining the literature on more recent studies on Gulf leadership styles, like the study of Bealer and Bhanugopan (2014), the findings indicate that managers in the UAE are less transformational and more passive-avoidant than managers in the USA and Europe. This is based mostly on the perception that UAE managers do not talk about important values and beliefs and do not articulate a compelling vision of the future (Hutchings & Weir 2006). Bealer and Bhanugopan's study results also indicate that managers in the UAE are slightly less transactional than managers in the USA and Europe. The literature also reveals that modern Gulf leadership styles appear to share some of the elements that are inherent in paternalistic leadership, but the different genders may opt to operationalise these elements in very different ways' (Nickerson & Goby, 2017, p. 185). Male leaders in the region may now opt for transactional or laissez-faire styles of leadership (Bass & Bass, 2008; Yaseen, 2010). Male leaders tend to be authoritarian. On the other hand, female leaders opt for transformational leadership (Abdulla & Al-Homoud, 2001). Female leaders focus on consensus seeking, subordinate autonomy and collaboration (Yaseen, 2010).

The UAE is an Islamic country; therefore, the country's leaders and citizens value the Islamic Work Ethics (IWE). Generally speaking, in the UAE, the influence of Islamic and tribal values and beliefs is strong (Rugh, 2007). Both Islamic and tribal laws value consultation in all aspects of life (Ali, 1989). The word 'ethics' is derived from the Greek word ethos, which means customs, conduct or character. 'Ethics is concerned with the kinds of values and morals an individual or a society finds desirable or appropriate. Furthermore, ethics is concerned with the virtuousness of individuals and their motives' (Northouse, 2013, p. 424). Work ethic depicts the fundamental value of the work reflected in an individual's attitude and beliefs (Meriac et al., 2010). As mentioned previously, a useful approach to conceptualise work ethic is to consider it 'the bundle of values, beliefs, intentions, and objectives that people bring to their work and the conditions in which they do it' (Clarke, 1983, p. 122). The four elements of IWE proposed by Ali and Al-Owaihan (2008) include effort, competition, transparency and morally responsible conduct. The IWE emphasises individual effort towards serving the self and society at large. Competition among individuals should be fair and based on good intentions. Business-related transactions should be conducted in an environment of openness and trust, and moral business conduct is seen as critical in nurturing a prosperous economy. IWE places considerable emphasis on hard work, commitment, dedication to work, work creativity, avoidance of unethical methods of wealth accumulation, cooperation and competition in the workplace (Yousef, 2001).

In a study conducted by Yousef (2001), he observed 425 managers of the Muslim faith in 30 different organisations and found a strong connection to Islamic values in the workplace. The results of his study show that, in terms of job satisfaction, which can possibly be related to organisational justice and organisational commitment, individuals and Arab organisations that focus on the Islamic work ethic have more loyalty and job satisfaction overall. Moreover, studies found that ethical conduct in the workplace reduces turnover intentions (Choudhary, Akhtar & Zaheer, 2013). Yousef (2000) also reports that, from a UAE context, those with high IWE scores experience less role ambiguity and Arab expatriates score higher on IWE than Asian expatriates. Yousef (2001) reveals a direct relation between IWE and both organisational commitment and job satisfaction in the UAE and further reports that commitment to the IWE is stronger in Arab expatriates than in UAE nationals and Asian expatriates. A similar study was done by Marshall Hunt and Al-Twaijri (1996) in Saudi Arabian organisations, and they observed a high level of commitment to Islamic teaching and beliefs, with a moderate leaning towards individualism. Another study conducted by Ali and Al-Kazemi (2007) explored the impact of Islamic beliefs on the daily lives of 762 managers in Kuwait and found a high shared commitment to Islamic ethics in the workplace. In Sidani and Jamali's (2010) study, they found prevalence of the humanistic belief system among Egyptian white-collar workers. They identified a positive correlation between job satisfaction and the humanistic work-belief system and a negative correlation between job satisfaction and the Marxist work-belief system. Robertson et al. (2002) also found that individuals in Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Oman rank humanistic beliefs higher than organisational beliefs, while the leisure ethic ranks last. Whiteoak et al. (2006) explored the relation between gender and generational differences and work values in the UAE and reported a minimal influence of demographic variables on IWE. However, it is important to note that while much research on work ethic generally has many conceptual overlaps, any conceptualisations of the IWE and Arab work ethic should not be viewed as synonymous. To do this would be to ignore the fact that many Arabs are not adherents to Islam, and more significantly, that the vast majority of the world's followers of Islam are not Arabs (ADC, 2014). However, not all researchers believe in IWE measurements and value in the current business environment. Miller et al. (2002) criticise existing work ethic measures for yielding a global work ethic score resulting in the loss of information on different components of work ethics. Christopher et al. (2008a, b) also contend that dimensions of work ethic should not be collapsed into an overall score.

Still, ethical theories are concerned with leaders' conduct and leaders' characters. Leaders play a strong role in establishing and reinforcing their organisation's ethics. Therefore, the values exhibited by leaders reflect the values exhibited by the organisation (Trevino, 1986). For that, leaders have an ethical responsibility to treat their followers with respect and be sensitive to their own interests and needs (Choudhary, Akhtar & Zaheer, 2013). Moreover, leaders should be attentive to the interests of the community and the culture. The principles of ethical leadership are respect, service, justice, honesty and community (Northouse, 2013). Deal and Kennedy (1982) found that leaders who better understand their institution's culture and core values are able to create stronger unity and a sense of purpose among their followers (Al-Khalifa, 2016; Aswada, Vidicana & Samulewicza, 2011; Baker & Blaik Hourani, 2014; Bauk & Jusufranic, 2014; Blair, 2012; Keser, 2011; Toit & Jackson, 2014). Therefore, whenever academic leaders or presidents make a decision, the decision should reflect their deep understanding of and appreciation for the organisation's mission and culture. This is very important if they want to gain staff support in times of change implementation.

2.3.2.5 Leaders' Action Logic

Most development psychologists agree that what differentiates leaders is not just their leadership styles, personality or philosophy but their internal action logic (Alsaeedi & Male, 2013; Carter *et al.*, 2013; Litz & Scott, 2016; López-Domínguez *et al.*, 2013; Van der Voet, 2014). Rooke and Torbert's (2005) research on the topic revealed seven distinct categories that show how leaders interpret their own and others' behaviours and how they maintain power or protect against threats. However, the authors believe that with good training, leaders can change their action logic from one category to another.

1. Opportunist: Leaders who are self-oriented, manipulative, win in any way possible and have a 'might makes right' mentality. They perform well in emergencies and in sales. However, only few people want to follow them for the long term.
2. Diplomat: Leaders who avoid conflict and want to belong; they obey group norms and do not rock the boat. They work to bring teams together and act as the glue. However, they can't provide painful feedback or make hard decisions needed to improve performance.

3. Expert: They rule by logic and expertise and use hard data to gain consensus and buy-in. Their strength is being a good individual contributor; however, they lack emotional intelligence and lack respect for those with less expertise.
4. Achiever: Leaders who meet strategic goals. They promote teamwork, juggle managerial duties and respond to market demands to achieve goals. They are well suited to managerial work but rarely think outside the box.
5. Individualist: Leaders who operate in unconventional ways. They ignore rules that they believe are irrelevant. They are known to be effective in venture and consulting roles. However, they irritate colleagues and bosses by ignoring key organisational processes and people.
6. Strategist: Leaders who generate organisational and personal change. They are highly collaborative, weave visions with pragmatic, timely initiatives and challenge existing assumptions. They are good at generating transformations over the short and long term.
7. Alchemist: Leaders who generate social transformations. They reinvent organisations in historically significant ways and can lead socio-wide change.

2.3.2.6 Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX)

Leader-Member theory (LMX), which is also known as the vertical dyad leadership theory, was founded upon the social exchange theory of Blau (Dansereau, Cashman & Graen, 1973; Danserea et al., 1975; Graen & Schiemann, 1978). The Leader-Member Exchange theory conceptualises leadership as a process centred on the interaction between leaders and followers. The theory focuses on the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers (Northhouse, 2013). The LMX concept has evolved out of ‘reciprocity’ (Gouldner, 1960; Adams, 1965), ‘social exchange’ (Blau, 1964), ‘similarity-attraction’ (Byrne, 1971), and ‘role’ theories (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Those theories are based on the notion that employees whose organisations value their contributions and care about their well-being are obligated to increase their in-role and extra role-performance and vice versa (Rousseau, 1995). Dyadic relationships and work roles are developed and negotiated over time through a series of exchanges between leaders and members (Bauer & Green, 1996). The dyadic leader-member exchange relationship is multidimensional because it evolves as a consequence of subordinates' role development (Bhal et al., 2009).

The quality of dyadic relationships in LMX is defined either as low or high, depending on how the leader relates to his or her subordinates and vice versa. A high quality LMX relationship between the leader and his subordinates is characterised by trust, loyalty, respect and obligation. On the other hand, a low-quality relationship is characterised by distance between the leader and followers and the relationship is based on formal job requirements and employment contract (Graen, 2003). In high quality LMX, subordinates are labelled as in-group or out-group based on the quality of the exchange between the two parties. The high quality LMX in-group exchange is known as reciprocity, extra-contractual behaviour, mutual trust, respect, affection and solidarity. However, low quality LMX out-group exchange is known as a one-way, top-down effect and task-based relationship (Dansereau et al., 1975). With time, leaders develop close relationships with a few of their subordinates but keep a formal relationship with the remaining subordinates (Abu Bakar, Mustaffa & Mohamad, 2009). The in-group, high quality LMX subordinates demonstrate a higher level of job satisfaction and performance, lower levels of turnover and better-quality assignments. On the other hand, out-group, low quality LMX subordinates suffer from higher levels of supervisory control and directives, lower levels of job satisfaction, higher levels of turnover and fewer desired assignments (Liden & Graen, 1980; Liden et al., 1982).

Studies linking LMX to antecedents (O'Donnell et al., 2012; Yukl, O'Donnell & Taber, 2009) and outcomes have generally implied the centrality of communication as a determinant factor of the exchange process and proximal relations (Brandes et al., 2004), such as knowledge sharing and innovation (Carmeli, Atwater & Levi, 2011; J. Lee, 2008), trust development (Werbel & Henriques, 2009; Xiaqi, Kun, Chongsen & Sufang, 2012), organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Hamdi & Rajablu, 2012; Landry & Vandenberghe, 2012; J. Lee, 2005; Love & Forret, 2008; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2010), team commitment and team performance (Bakar, Mustaffa & Mohamad, 2009; Naidoo, Scherbaum, Goldstein & Graen, 2011), organisational communication satisfaction (Mueller & Lee, 2002), impression management (J. R. Carlson, Carlson & Ferguson, 2011; Othman, Ee & Shi, 2010) and career outcomes (Seibert, Kraimer & Liden, 2001). Below is a summary of findings from different studies on LMX theory, see table 7.

Table 7. LMX Studies Findings

#	Study Outcome	Studies Conforming Outcomes
1	Organisational commitment	Cogliser et al. (2009), Klein & Kim (1998), Kinicki & Vecchio (1994), Nystrom (1990), Dienesch & Liden (1986), Duchon et al. (1986), Scandura & Graen (1984).
2	Organisational citizenship behaviour	Ilies et al. (2007), Hackett & Lapierre (2007), Lee & Ansari (2004), Hofmann et al. (2003), Hui et al. (1999); Wayne et al. (1997), Wayne et al. (1997), Anderson & Williams (1996), Settoon et al., (1996), Setton et al. (1996), Deluga (1994).
3	Decline in turnover intentions and actual turnover	Bauer et al. (2006), Gerstner & Day (1997), Graen et al. (1982).
4	Innovative behaviour and creativity	Mun˜oz-Doyague & Nieto (2012), Atwater & Carmeli (2009), Lee (2008), Liden (2002), Tierney et al. (1999), Basu & Green (1997), Scott & Bruce (1994), Erdogan et al. (1994).
5	Employee retention	Dixon-Kheir, (2001), Buckingham & Coffman (2000).
6	Loyalty and reliability	Flaherty & Pappas (2000), Delvecchio (1998), Wakabayashi et al. (1990).
7	Increased team effectiveness	Boies & Howell (2006).

8	Career development	Kacmar et al. (2003). Graen et al. (1990)
9	Job/career/overall satisfaction	Han (2010), Cogliser et al. (2009), Schyns & Croon (2006), Schriesheim et al. (1998), McClane et al. (1991), Duchon et al. (1986), Scandura & Graen (1984), Graen et al. (1982).
10	Employees' job performance	Dunegan et al. (2002), Wayne et al. (2002), Gerstner & Day (1997), Liden et al. (1997), Liden et al. (1993), Graen & Scandura (1987).
11	Employee withdrawal behaviour	Ferris (1985), Graen et al. (1982).
12	Employee engagement	Macey & Schneider (2008).

Dienesch and Liden (1986) and Maslyn and Uhl-Bien (2001) believe that LMX relationships are based on three 'currencies' of social exchange: task behaviour (perceived contribution), loyalty to each other (loyalty), and liking for each other (affect). Jenkins (1994) explains that three types of personality variables influence the creation of in-groups and out-groups in the LMX context: locus of control, need for power and self-esteem. However, LMX relationship strength will obviously depend on the leaders' honesty, trustworthiness and genuine care for their followers (Erdogan et al., 2006; Wayne et al., 2002). It is believed that ethical leaders are more likely to develop high-quality exchange relationships with their subordinates through honest and open communication and principled decision-making (Brown & Trevin`o, 2006). Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) highlighted the strong relationship between LMX and leaders' fair interpersonal communication. Organisation culture, human resource practices, type of team and work unit, size of the work group and the organisation's policies also affect the LMX relationship (Liden et al., 1993; Henderson et al., 2009). The distinct values of the LMX theory is that it is the only theory that focuses on the relationship between the leader and each subordinate, and it directs attention to the importance of communication in leadership (Northouse, 2013). Communication is at the heart of all workplace relationships (Fairhurst, 2016).

2.3.3 Organisation Communication

For any change initiative to succeed, whether it is transformational or not, leaders must effectively communicate their vision to their subordinates. Their main responsibilities are to provide communication and leadership as well as clarify directions and goals (Cabrey *et al.*, 2014). As mentioned previously, change is driven by environmental and internal organisation factors. However, research has shown that many organisational change initiatives fail due to the lack of internal communication (Alrawi, Alrawi & Alrawi, 2012; Beatty, 2015; Harmon, Green & Goodnight, 2015; Ocasio, Loewenstein & Nigam, 2015; Petrou, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2016; Smet *et al.* 2016). That is why the relationship between an organisation's transformational change and its communication has attracted increased attention from scholars and practitioners in the last decade to develop this subject field (Taylor *et al.*, 2001; Jones *et al.*, 2004; Johansson & Heide, 2008). Smet *et al.* (2016) found that communication and organisational change are inextricably linked processes. In the field of organisational communication, there have been three different research perspectives and three approaches to the study of communication throughout the years (Alrawi, Alrawi & Alrawi, 2012; Beatty, 2015; Harmon, Green & Goodnight, 2015; Ocasio, Loewenstein & Nigam, 2015; Petrou, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2016; Smet *et al.* 2016). However, before those are examined, communication within organisations will be defined.

Organisational communication is defined as the process by which information is exchanged and understood by two or more parties, usually with the intent of motivating or influencing behaviours (Frahm & Brown, 2007). Organisational communication has two goals (Beatty, 2015). The first goal is to inform employees about tasks, policies and other issues about the organisation. The second goal is to create a community within the organisation. Organisational communication can substantially reduce the resistance to change (Harmon, Green & Goodnight, 2015) by releasing employees' stress and frustration that accompany the change, increasing employees' commitment, and finally, enhancing employees' sense of control and well-being (Alrawi, Alrawi & Alrawi, 2012; Beatty, 2015; Harmon, Green & Goodnight, 2015; Ocasio, Loewenstein & Nigam, 2015; Petrou, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2016; Smet *et al.*, 2016).

2.3.3.1 Perspectives and Approaches to Communication

There are different research perspectives in the field of organisational communication. The most widespread and well-known are the functional, interpretive and critical perspectives (Putnam & Pacanowsky, 1983). Communication is viewed as a tangible tool that flows upward, downward and within the organisation under the functional perspective. At the same time, content and meaning of messages play an important secondary role because meaning is assumed to reside in the message (Beatty, 2015). The goal of research in this perspective is to uncover effective ways to communicate. However, this view has been criticised for simplifying communication to mean simply the transmission of messages (Petrou, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2016). On the other hand, under the interpretive perspective, Putnam (1983) discovered that a meaning-centred view of organisational communication is important because social reality is constituted through the words, symbols and actions that members invoke. Stories, myths, rituals and language use are not simply reflections of organisational meanings; they are the ongoing processes that constitute organisational life. The aim of research from this perspective is to generate insights and to seek understanding. Likewise, according to the critical perspective, the basic outlook is the same as it is in the interpretive perspective, but the aim of the research is social change (Alrawi, Alrawi & Alrawi, 2012).

However, there are different communication models; the classical linear model, the interactional model and the system view model.

Classical Linear Model: In classical and many contemporary popular writings on the subject, leadership is considered and described in terms of the intentional creation of messages with particular influence outcomes in mind. This model reflects a one-way, cause and effect-oriented model of communication. In this model, the leaders assume that the message will get through to their followers all the time. However, meaning is not easily controlled by the leader, but rather results from interactions between leaders and followers (Smircich & Morgan, 1982). Although this model and the paradigms it reflects have been criticised for their mechanistic characterisation (Axley, 1984; Shannon & Weaver, 1949), they continue to provide a suitable description of leadership communication practices in many business and organisational settings.

The Interactional Model: This model recognises that communication is not a one-way process, but rather is best understood as 'a multidirectional phenomenon with no distinguishable beginning or end' (Ruben, 2003, p. 95). Duben et al. (2017) believe that many of the messages that make a difference in communication and influence situations are unplanned and unpredicted, nonverbal as well as verbal and the product of ongoing dynamics rather than a single message-sending/message-receiving event. It also suggests that the greater the extent of mismatch between expectations, attitudes and values, the less likely that the message sent will equal the message received (Ruben & Stewart, 2016). However, Duben et al. (2017) criticise this model as they explain that even with added nuances of the interactional model, the complexity of communication, and the critical issues for understanding, the dynamics of leadership and influence are often not fully explored.

System Model: A system view of communication focuses directly on the way people create, convey, select and interpret the messages that inform and shape their lives viewing communication as a basic life process rather than an exchange of information or meaning between people (Ruben & Stewart, 2016). The system view of communication takes into account the fact that throughout any message sending/message receiving episode, each party brings his or her own unique 'maps' and 'personal luggage' to the interaction: each individual's unique needs, values, attitudes, goals, aspirations, styles, education, cultures, physical and emotional abilities and disabilities, life history and present life circumstances. These predispositions, susceptibilities and take-into-account-abilities influence the outcome of the interaction and are equivalent to our individual make meaningful-abilities. Some messages are created in the moment in face-to-face settings; others occur at remote times and places and are conveyed into a particular setting via print or electronic media (Ruben & Stewart, 2016).

Some disciplines such as management tend to promote the psychological perspective of leadership with individually centred communication, often with formal position power and research goals that emphasise adding organisational value (Fairhurst, 2001; Fairhurst & Connaughton, 2013; French, Raven & Cartwright, 2015; Walker, 2014; Walker & Aritz, 2014). In comparison, other disciplines emphasise discursive leadership, where leaders emerge through socially constructed reality. The latter perspective underscores shared, fluid leadership communication processes and highlights their discovery and impact on participants (Fairhurst, 2001, 2009; Fairhurst & Connaughton, 2013; Walker, 2014; Walker & Aritz, 2014). Regardless of perspective or culture, most scholars agree that leadership creates and manages meaning (Conger, 1991; Fairhurst, 2009; Smircich & Morgan, 1982). Second, communication is integral to meaning creation and its management. At the very least, leadership communication interprets reality and, according to many scholars, forms its shared perception (Fairhurst & Connaughton, 2013; Putnam, 1983; Smircich & Morgan, 1982; Walker & Aritz, 2014). Garner (2016) believes that work should be about making life better for everyone through business communication. Ruben et al. (2017) noted that 'follower' needs, values and perspectives are fundamentally important components of the communication environment in which the dynamics of social influence occur.

Leader speech communication is vital to the work of leaders across all types of organisations (Chance, 2009; Gronn, 1983; Raiola, 1995; Scott, 2002). Within the field of educational leadership, principals spend up to 84% of their time engaged in leading through leader speech communication (Kmetz & Willower, 1982; Martin & Willower, 1981). Motivating language theory (MLT; J. Mayfield, Mayfield & Kopf, 1995; Sullivan, 1988) explains how the strategic and intentional use of leader speech communication within the context of leader-to-employee/follower communication can positively influence employee/follower performance, job satisfaction (J. Mayfield, 2009) and organisational outcomes (Holmes, 2012). In discussing the importance of motivational language theory to leadership, employees and organisations, Hindman, Seiders and Grant (2013) stated, 'So what is said and how it is delivered matters' (p. 87).

During organisational change, researchers approach organisational communication in three different ways:

As a communication tool: The goal of the approach of this research is to report on the effectiveness of organisational communication because researchers understand organisations as rational systems. Communication becomes a tool, then, to explain the 'what, when, who and how' of communication. The realist epistemology dominates this approach. Most of the criticism of this approach focuses on the absence of ontological and epistemological reflection (Beatty, 2015).

As a socially constructed process: Under this approach, change is understood as a phenomenon that occurs within communication; therefore, the goal of the research is understanding and sense-making (Ford & Ford, 1995). Scholars using this approach are interested in how individuals make sense of change initiatives and how their perception and understanding affect the final result (Petrou, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2016). The constructivist epistemology is a dominant theme of this approach as scholars understand organisational change from a narrative perspective. Here, personal stories attempt to make sense of changes (Weick, 1993). A critique of this approach focuses on the absence of concrete communication methods for practitioners to use during change (Johansson & Heide, 2008).

As a social transformation: Under this approach, change is also understood as a phenomenon that occurs within communication. However, the goal of researchers is to closely examine the relationship between communication and action. Researchers also consider the dimension of power and dominance as a way to focus on the struggle and negotiation of meaning in a communication process by which change is socially constructed (Johansson & Heide, 2008). Leadership is understood to be a communicative process (Fairhurst, 2007; Fairhurst & Connaughton, 2014a, 2014b) that extends beyond the role of the titular leader; rather, the possibilities for leadership are present in all social interaction within all groups, organisations and contexts, and extend across all levels and units of an organisation. However, if one thinks of leadership in terms of social influence (Ruben & Gigliotti, 2016), one quickly realises that social influence occurs through communication and from the enactment of informal roles and through informal activities, as well as through formal positions and activities (Ruben et al., 2016; Ruben & Gigliotti, 2016). Ruben et al. (2016) research in this area and their applied work in the area of leadership development have led them to understand the phenomenon as a process of social influence that is very much informed by and shaped by communication. Islam (2016) suggests that many of these underlying positions of leadership thinking 'are likely themselves products of social organization that privileges, or at least makes apparent, certain positions at the expense of others' (p. 100). In this approach, discourse theory offers critical insights into the dynamics of change in the form of 'multi-layered conversations' (Francis & Sinclair, 2003; Ashcraft, 2005). This approach is criticised because 'discourse analysis tends to overemphasize the importance of the inconsistency, variation and context dependency of speech acts' (Alvesson & Karreman, 2000, p. 136). Another criticism is that researchers consider only language but not its context (Fairclogh, 2005).

2.3.3.2 The Importance of Organisational Communication

Organisations spend a huge amount of money, time and human capital to reach a successful transformational change (van den Heuvel, Demerouti & Bakker, 2014). The reasons for failure include technological difficulties, lack of money, and most importantly, problems that stem from employee resistance (van den Heuvel, Demerouti & Bakker, 2014). McKay, Kuntz and Naswall (2013) illustrate that employees should be treated as the cornerstone of any kind of organisational change because their resistance is a major problem in the change effort. Employees resist change because of variables such as uncertainty, fear of poor outcome, leadership style, communication problems and lack of trust in the organisation.

Beatty (2015) stated that organisational communications are critical to managing change. Effective communication can reduce resistance to change by increasing a sense of commitment among all involved. McKay, Kuntz and Naswall (2013) noted that communication is the process that plays the most central role in a firm's success or failure. Cabrey *et al.* (2014) reported that 'the primary reasons why organisations are failing—and losing money—are insufficient communication and lack of leadership' (p. 5).

2.3.3.3 Internal Communication

Internal communication, also known as employee communication, is a sub-area of public relations that has been recognised as the foundation of modern organisations (Kenna & Hazleton, 2006; Kreps, 1989). Internal communication is communication between the organisation's leaders and one of its publics: the employee (Dolphin, 2005). Kalla (2005) explains it as a social interaction between management and employees through messages. Quirke (2008) noted that the role of employee communication is to 'illuminate the connections between different pieces of information' (p. xv), and it aims 'to provide employees with the information they need to do their job' (p. xv). Berger (2008) describes internal communication as a central process by which employees share information, create relationships, make meaning and construct organisational culture and values. He also asserted that internal communication is one of the most dominant and important activities in organisations because it 'helps individuals and groups coordinate activities to achieve goals, and is vital in socialization, decision-making, problem solving, and change management processes' (p. 2). Several scholars have highlighted the positive influence of internal communication on employee engagement, as it should enhance trust between leaders and their subordinates, which leads to greater employee engagement (Gavin & Mayer, 2005; Chong, 2007; Saks, 2006; Welch & Jackson, 2007). Chia (2005) affirmed that 'trust and commitment are by products of processes and policies which are designed to make the relationship satisfactory for both parties, such as open, appropriate, clear and timely communication' (p. 7). In addition, a growing body of evidence has demonstrated that effective internal communication plays a vital role in developing positive employee attitudes, such as job satisfaction (Gray & Laidlaw, 2014), identification with the organisation (Smidts, Pruyn & Van Riel, 2001) and trust and organisational commitment (Jo & Shim, 2005). These positive employee attitudes, in turn, increase productivity, improve performance and enhance external relations (Berger, 2008). Immediate supervisors are the information source preferred by employees, so they have more credibility with employees than senior executives (Whitworth, 2011). As change leaders, the supervisors' communication competence, styles and channels have a big impact on employees' attitudes and behaviours. Effective communication enhances management's credibility and employees' receptivity to change (Wanberg & Banas, 2000).

Because of the importance of internal communication, a number of authors called for symmetrical communication. According to Grunig (2006), Carter (1965) and Chaffee and Mcleod (1968) were the first to write about the conceptualisation of symmetrical communication. It is defined as the communication worldview and practice characterised by its emphasis on 'trust, credibility, openness, relationship, reciprocity, network symmetry, horizontal communication, feedback, adequacy of information, employee-centered style, tolerance for disagreement, and negotiation' (Gruin, 1992, p. 558; Kim & Rhee, 2011). Symmetrical internal communication is based on the principles of employee empowerment and participation in decision-making (Grunig & Grunig, 2011).

When organisations communicate with their stakeholders, in this case their employees, the message content and channel is crucial for effective communication. Organisations use traditional and modern channels to communicate with their employees. Face-to-face and written communication are considered traditional channels, while online communication tools are modern channels. Kalla (2005) believes that the effectiveness of communication channels depends on their fit in a strategic communication process and their contribution to the bottom-line of the business goal. Cameron and McCollum (1993) found that the two-way nature of interpersonal communication channels such as team meetings, group problem-solving sessions and supervisor briefings enhances employee-management relationships better than publications and fosters a sense of community and belonging among employees (White, Vanc & Stafford, 2012). Below are a number of study findings related to employee communication.

Table 8. Employee Communication Studies Findings

Author	Method	Research Focus	Study Key Findings
Richardson and Denton (1996)	Case Study	Examined the process of managing and communicating planned change based on a time reduction programme.	If a company was to be successful in implementing change, there had to be full disclosure and candid discussion ahead of the change. Senior management should demonstrate through a variety of visible mechanisms and provide consistent support for the change.
More and Gray (1997)	Case Study	Investigated the communication processes used overall in a firm, to determine their effectiveness, and to assess employees' perceptions of management's communication methods	Results showed employee involvement to be significant. Employees wanted to be consulted about changes, to give their input on actions taken by senior management and to have their ideas heard.
Lewis (2000)	Case Study	Examined the importance of the role communication played during the implementation of planned change and how communication affected this process.	Change implementers had difficulty predicting how communication would be handled. They tended to under-predict and over-predict the frequency of encountering problems with communication goals, visions and implementation information.
Waterhouse and Lewis (2004)	Case Study	Examined the relationship between communication and change in a public sector organisation.	Without senior management providing a set vision and future direction for the organisation or employees, the perceptions of employees were that leadership was weak, inconsistent and inefficient.

Goodman and Truss (2004)	Case Study	Examined how organisations could develop and deploy communication strategies effectively during change.	Showed how vital it was for change managers to take account of the phase of the change programme in designing communication strategies. Employees considered the timing of the communication to be vital during change.
Allen, Jimmieson, Bordia and Irmer (2007)	Qualitative study	Examined the role that different sources of communication played in addressing change-related uncertainty for employees.	Direct supervisors or middle managers were found to be the preferred sources of implementation-related and job relevant information during change, while senior management was seen as providing more strategic information.
Abdullah and Antony (2012)	Quantitative Study	Examined the effectiveness and importance of internal communication practices at a hotel.	A steady flow of strategic information could improve and empower an organisation. An organisation that encouraged and maintained a systematic flow of credible, timely and relevant information was felt to help build mutual understanding between employees and management.
Boohene and Williams (2012)	Case study	Examined whether management communication with employees before organisational change could influence employees' resistance to change.	Employees that received information about organisational change had a higher level of trust in the organisation, leading to higher motivation, and those employees with higher levels of motivation had lower resistance to change.

In the Arab culture, whether in a business setting or a non-business setting, the preferred method of communication is face-to-face (Mellahi, 2006). Arabs in general and GCC countries in particular, when doing business, prefer face-to-face interaction over indirect methods (i.e. phones and email). This communication preference allows leaders to maintain a strong rapport with their teams, building trust and open communication (Weir, 2000). However, leaders should be aware of the fact that when working in a negotiation setting, through face-to-face communication, some employees may become defensive due to a sense of pride and the desire for a winning outcome. Leaders can overcome this situation by allowing each employee to express himself (Ali, 1993, 1996).

2.3.3.4 Leaders' Communication

In successful organisations, leaders not only communicate, they communicate in styles that are desired by their employees, thus leading to employee satisfaction (Edwards, 2008). Organisational effectiveness is one of the key competencies of leadership and the ability to effectively communicate the tasks into measurable actions (O'Hair et al., 2005). A leader who has appropriate and extensive knowledge of what message should be sent and the skills that are required to express the message effectively, but is not motivated and willing to act, will not be considered a competent communicator (Matveev & Lvina, 2007). Henderson, Dulac and Lindon (2006) believe that when leaders are actively focusing on communication, their subordinates and followers are able to more effectively reach and achieve their goals. Mueller and Lee (2002) identified that the higher the quality of interactions between leader and subordinate, the higher the employees were observed to rate their level of communication satisfaction.

Some types of communication competencies, such as the ability to express by rhetoric and to construct messages effectively and engage in communication (Matveev & Livna, 2007) and particular language focuses such as motivation used in leadership are skills commonly identified in the literature focusing on transformational leadership (Sharbrough, Simmons and Cantrill, 2006). Sofarelli's (1998) transformational leadership success depends on the leaders' open communication with their employees and in providing an environment in which other people can communicate freely. Benson and Avolio (2004) found that transformational communication is more effective when leaders tend to include other people in their decision-making process. Moreover, Madzar, in two studies (2001, 2005) found that there is a connection and correlation between the transformational leadership and positive upward communication. He believes that transformational leadership must reduce the personal cost incurred to seek information on the subordinates' part. Groves stressed that the powerful effects of visionary leadership, which is also a characteristic of transformational (Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994) and charismatic (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993) leadership, appear to depend heavily on nonverbal communication skills such as emotional expressivity. Emotional expressivity enhances a leader's ability to influence the mindsets of organisational members towards change by powerfully articulating a deficient status quo and inspiring vision, combined with communicating to followers a sense of ownership of the vision and demonstrating confidence in the abilities of the followers to realise the vision (Groves, 2006). Holladay and Coombs (1994) suggest that the communicative style reflecting the dimensions of charisma are friendliness, attentiveness, dominance and reflectiveness. De Vries, Bakker-Pieper and Oostenveld (2010) differentiated the communication style of charismatic–transformational leaders as assuring, supportive, argumentative, precise and verbally nonaggressive. On the other hand, transactional leadership takes on a different form of dialogic discourse because the emphasis is not on relation building but on behavioural compliance, thus communication may be more direct, unambiguous and less contextual on task performance. Neufeld et al. (2010) found that communication effectiveness applies to transactional contingent reward leadership. De Vries, Bakker-Pieper and Oostenveld (2010) suggest that the communication style of task-oriented leadership approaches tend to be more assuring, precise and with some level of verbal aggressiveness. Ewen et al. (2013) suggest that transactional leaders would choose to be assuring and precise (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper & Oostenveld, 2010) and clearly communicate rather than obfuscate in rhetorical strategy in order to influence follower perception and reaction to the leader (Dewan & Myatt, 2012). Studies of Ewan et al. (2013) and De Vries, Bakker-Pieper and Oostenveld (2010) found that transactional leaders may prefer certain communication styles such as precision, clarity and assuring forms of communication rather than the rhetorical strategy of obfuscation in order to influence follower perception and reaction to the leader (Dewan & Myatt, 2012). De Vries, Bakker-Pieper & Oostenveld's 2010 study argues that transactional leaders may be positively related to expressivity and verbal aggressiveness.

2.3.4 Higher Education Organisations

Academic organisations differ from non-academic organisations, but what is an academic institution? Although scholars start studying academic organisations from 1960, up until now they do not have a common answer to this question. However, there are three popular theories to describe academic organisations: organised anarchy, loosely coupled systems and professional bureaucracy. The first theory describes academic organisations as organised anarchy. The study of Cohen, March and Olsen in 1972 referred to academic organisations as organised anarchy as they have three common characteristics: high degree of ambiguity, unclear decision-making process and fluid participation in decision-making. The second theory refers to academic organisations as loosely coupled systems. Coupling describes how weak or strong departments in an organisation are aligned (Glassman, 1973). Dorman et al., (2013) explained that in education institutions, 'Departments in administrative and support divisions tend to be more tightly coupled than those in academic affairs. In most colleges and universities academic affairs is a confederation of loosely aligned academic departments that have minimal interaction with each other, and decision by department heads have little impact on other units' (p. 30). The third theory describes them as a professional bureaucracy. Academic organisations are seen as professional bureaucracies because they hire professional faculty to teach and are given a high degree of autonomy to do their job well (Dorman et al., 2013).

Successful leaders of academic organisations need to understand the characteristics of their organisations. To understand any organisation, academic or non-academic, the following elements need to be studied: environment, strategy and goals, work and technology, formal and informal structures and people (Al-Khalifa, 2016; Aswada, Vidicana & Samulewicza, 2011; Baker & Blaik Hourani, 2014; Bauk & Jusufranic, 2014; Blair, 2012; Keser, 2011; Toit & Jackson, 2014). The first element is 'organisation environment', which refers to the interaction between the organisation and others such as other organisations, entities and actors that it needs to interact with to survive. As 'no organisations are self-sufficient; all depend for survival on the type of relations they establish with the large systems of which they are a part' (Scott & Davis, 2007, p. 19). For academic institutions, the environment includes the community in which they operate. The community will determine their programme offerings, from where they receive their funding, local businesses, local high schools and government officials. The second element is strategy and goals. These determine the goals they want to accomplish and how to accomplish them. The third element is work and technology, which refers to organisations implementing strategies and the process for achieving their goals. Work determines how the organisation's different departments work together and how staff interacts. On the other hand, technology is concerned about how the organisation transforms its students into graduates. The fourth element is formal and informal structures. Formal organisation structures refer to its organisation chart and staff job descriptions. However, informal structures refer to the organisation culture and climate. Lastly, people of the organization for an academic organisation refers to the interaction between its staff, students, faculty and alumni (Dorman et al., 2013). However, the common characteristics of academic organisations are:

1. Goal ambiguity.

2. Client-focused missions.
3. Highly professionalised staff.
4. Unclear decision-making processes.
5. Environmental vulnerability.

UAE federal higher education has been ‘synchronized’ with their Western counterparts, especially the US, in terms of accreditation and curricula (Al-Khalifa, 2016; Aswada, Vidicana & Samulewicza, 2011; Baker & Blaik Hourani, 2014; Bauk & Jusufranic, 2014; Blair, 2012; Keser, 2011; Toit & Jackson, 2014). The character and structure of UAE higher education is based on four key decisions made by the government. Those four pillars of policy are (MOHE, 2007):

1. The UAE would build and operate its own universities, separated by gender.
2. A qualified, mostly international faculty would be employed.
3. The instruction would be in English.
4. Education would be offered to all qualified Emiratis.

As we can see, those four critical decisions are based on the cultural values and social expectations of the country. Academic organisation leaders must be aware and respectful of local cultures. Literature has contended that leadership behaviour is culturally determined and hence varies markedly from culture to culture (Al-Khalifa, 2016; Aswada, Vidicana & Samulewicza, 2011; Baker & Blaik Hourani, 2014; Bauk & Jusufranic, 2014; Blair, 2012; Keser, 2011; Toit & Jackson, 2014).

The higher education system suffers from deficiencies due to low quality and inefficiency of the educational system at the tertiary level, inadequate assessment and monitoring of educational needs and inadequate planning, as well as the lack of flexibility of educational institutions, the lack of modernisation and dynamism and the weak incentives of nationals to technical education. The weak linkages between the universities, colleges, technical and training institutes and the insufficient investment in education are also factors contributing to the country's weak higher education system. The current leaders of this sector must know about all of these factors and work hand in hand with concerned officials to overcome or solve them (Al-Khalifa, 2016; Aswada, Vidicana & Samulewicza, 2011; Baker & Blaik Hourani, 2014; Bauk & Jusufranic, 2014; Blair, 2012; Keser, 2011; Toit & Jackson, 2014).

2.3.4.1 Higher Education Culture and Climate

Robbins (1993) believes that national culture plays an important role in determining the effectiveness of leadership style. Leaders of academic organisations must understand their organisational culture to successfully bring and sustain change. To explain academic organisations further, we need to look at academic organisations' culture and climate. Austin (1994) explained the difference between an organisation culture and climate: 'whereas culture pertains to the embedded and stable beliefs, values and norms of a group, climate refers to members' assessment, views, perceptions, and attitudes toward various aspects of organisational life' (p. 52). Leaders of an academic organisation will face difficulty understanding and managing the culture because academic organisations have many sub-cultures. Austin explains this complexity as a complexity rising from too many subcultures in one organisation:

> Faculty cultures include the culture of the academic profession, the culture of the academy as an organisation, the culture of particular disciplines, the cultures of institutional types, and the culture of the particular department or unit where the faculty member has a position. Deans, department chairpersons, and institutional

> researchers seeking to support the work of department and college leaders must understand the values of each of these cultures. (p. 48)

2.3.4.2 Models of Academic Governance

Academic organisation leaders should be aware of the different models of academic governance. This knowledge will help them choose the right model to adopt for their organisation. As we explained earlier, academic organisations are complex. This complexity tempted theorists to study and come up with theoretical models of their governance. The complexity lies in their multiple departments of decision-making authority, complex structure and processes. Three theoretical models were created to describe academic organisations' governance: the bureaucratic model, the collegial model and the political model. These models are based on the interactions between the organisations' actors based on different factors such as power, legislative influence and persuasion (Dorman et al., 2013). However, Kezar and Eckel (2004) identified efficiency, effectiveness, participation, leadership and environmental responsiveness as the key challenges to academic organisations' governance in the future. The future leaders of UAE higher education organisations should be aware of those challenges.

The Bureaucratic model: Weber (1947) describes this governance model as a system of hierarchical roles and formal chains of command acting in concert toward the realisation of a set of defined goals. In this model, decision-making authority is based on rank and position in the organisation.

The Collegial model: Millett (1962) describes this model as 'in term of their own internal organisation our colleges and universities have sought arrangements which would equally reflect a concern to avoid absolute authority. In this endeavor the colleges and universities have built up a practice of community as the fundamental basis of organisation' (p. 61). This model highlights the roles students, faculty, staff and alumni play in driving and affecting academic organisations' decisions.

The Political model: The founder of this model, Baldridge (1971), explains it as 'Decision-making by the individual bureaucrat is replaced with decision-making by committee, council, and cabinet. Centralized decision-making is replaced with diffuse decision-making. The process becomes a far-flung network for gathering expertise from every corner of the organisation and translating it into policy' (p. 190).

The political model governs the federal higher education institutions in UAE. A committee or a council decides the policies and decisions related to those organisations. For every individual federal institution, a board committee is assigned to decide on the organisation's broader policies and within the academic organisation, sub-committees are there for different programs (ww.uaeu.ac.ae; www.uof.ac.ae; www.zu.ac.ae).

2.3.4.3 The Academic Presidency

A big part of understanding academic organisations is to understand the role of academic leaders or presidents. This section explains the role of academic presidents and the many hats that they must wear to function well in their job.

As we know, there is no single important individual in an academic institution than its president. The president is responsible for the success or failure of the organisation. However, the president role has changed dramatically in the past 20 years. The president now wears too many hats to succeed in his or her job. There is no one to describe a president job like Clark Kerr (1964), the 12th president of the University of California system:

> The university president in the United States is expected to be a friend of the students, a colleague of the faculty, a good fellow with the alumni, a sound administrator with the trustees, a good speaker with the public, an astute bargainer with the foundations and the federal agencies, a politician with the state legislature, a friend on industry, labour, and agriculture, a persuasive diplomat with the donors, a champion of education generally, a supporter of the professions (particularly law and medicine), a spokesman to the press, a scholar in his own right, a public servant at the state and national levels, a devotee of opera and football equally, a decent human being, a good husband and father, an active member of a church. Above all he must enjoy travelling in airplanes, eating his meals in public, and attending public ceremonies. No one can be all of these things. Some succeed at being none. (pp. 29-30)

In recent years, the academic president role has changed because of the expansion of higher education institutions. The president is now isolated from the students and faculty due to the large size of the institution and too many responsibilities. His job requires more political and managerial skills. The president is becoming a symbol of the organisation’s missions and goals (Dorman et al., 2013). In UAE, academic leaders’ success will depend on how respectful they are to the organisation’s mission and culture, as well as how committed they are to the development of their staff, especially the academic organisation’s faculty. Every faculty member should be developed and trained to lead his or her students.

2.3.4.4 Change in Higher Education Institutions

Clark (1983) described institutional life in higher education as non-rational and non-structural. Therefore, according to Clark, change needs to be part of its ongoing, unfolding narrative. However, he also believed that higher education institutions have the ability to adapt and respond to their internal and external environment when change occurs. Higher education institutions plan their change to react to the pressure of their environment.

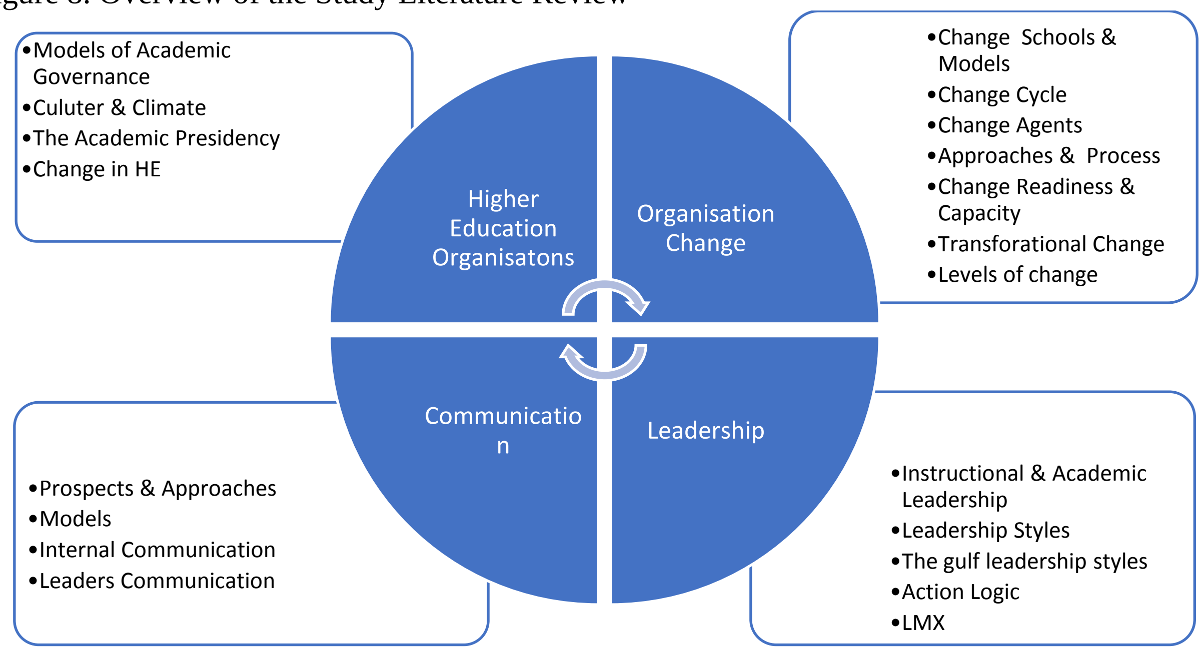
Creamer and Creamer (1986) defined planned change in higher education as ‘a purposeful effort to change existing policies and practices to incorporate (a) new behaviours, values, or goals, (b) new technological innovations, or (c) structural changes in the communication or authority systems of an organisation’ (p. 431). However, Hearn (1996) believes that only changes in the organisation’s culture and climate were required for the change process to succeed.

Lindquist (1978) developed a model for change in higher education based on his case studies of curricular reform. The model offers four planned change strategies: (a) rational planning, a sequence of planned activities based on institutional research; (b) social interaction, the use of existing social networks to initiate change; (c) human problem solving, the use of relationships to remove psychological obstacles to change; and (d) political strategies, the use of coalitions to influence change. On the other hand, Lozier and Covert (1982) claimed that successful change in higher education must involve the following: dialogue; a statement of the objectives of the change effort; administrative support; faculty leadership; student involvement; external influences; an institutional focus on the change effort; resource allocation; an implementation plan; incremental change; accountability; and effective rewards. This study, though, will focus on transformational change used in planned change.

2.4 Summary

The literature review in this chapter covered four important topics: organisation change management, leadership, organisation communication and higher education organisations. Figure 8 below summarize the four bodies of literature and their sub-sections.

Figure 8. Overview of the Study Literature Review



Chapter Three: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this mixed-method study is to describe the leadership styles of two leaders of one university in UAE and determine the effectiveness of the leaders' communication efforts during the implementation of change. This chapter focuses on the methodology that will be used to answer the research questions and achieve the study purpose. According to Gough, Oliver and Thomas (2012), the research questions under investigation are those that influence the scope and resources brought forth, as well as the methods used to address the research questions. The study's main question: *To what extent does leadership style and change communication influence the success of organisational change?* To address the main research question, the following sub-questions are proposed;

1. What leadership style is best to secure a successful organisational change?
2. Does effective change communication play a significant role in implementing a successful change?
3. What type of communication channel is preferred by staff to communicate change news?

This chapter presents the research paradigm and methodology used for this study. Under the study methodology, the researcher discusses the site selection, sample, data gathering method and procedure. The chapter closes by presenting the ethical considerations, trustworthiness and reliability, delimitations and limitations of the study.

3.2 Research Paradigm

The current research is a case study. Yin (2008) defines case study as 'an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident' (p. 18). Case studies can be interpreted using qualitative or quantitative methods (Merriam, 2009). These two research methodologies differ in how data are collected and analysed as well as in the paradigms and meta-theoretical assumptions that shape their approaches (Gelo et al., 2008). In qualitative research, an attempt is made to understand a phenomenon, behaviour or culture of humans or groups from the viewpoint of those who are the object of the research, and it involves understanding the object of the research deeply from a limited number of participants. For this reason, the reality or truth sought in qualitative research is thought to be socially or psychologically constructed (Gelo et al., 2008). In contrast, quantitative research is used to investigate phenomena in a way that results in generalizable causal effects, which can be used in making predictions. Quantitative research generally uses larger samples, and the underlying assumption is that an objective reality can be ascertained (Gelo et al., 2008). To benefit from both of the different methods, many researchers use a mixed method approach to give depth to their study.

Creswell et al. (2003) defined mixed method in this way: 'a mixed method study involves the collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially, are given a priority, and involve the integration of the data at one or more stages in the process of research' (p. 212). On the other hand, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) defined mixed method research as a design that uses multiple research methods or more than one worldview in its research inquiry. There are three mixed methods research models: pragmatism, transformative-emancipatory and the multiple paradigms position (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Pragmatism is considered a dialectical stance in which different or even contradictory ideas are sought and investigated. Pragmatism rejects concepts like 'truth' and 'reality' in favour of 'what works' as the best way to answer the research questions. The second mixed method paradigm is transformative-emancipatory. Researchers under this paradigm believe that there are diverse views in social realities that need to be placed in social, political, historical and economic value systems to understand the differences (Mertens, 2003). The third mixed method research model, the multiple paradigm position, applies when researchers use methods that are most likely to answer their questions. This means that the methods will vary according to the study questions.

Creswell (2007) contended that 'the procedures for conducting research evolve from a researcher's philosophical and theoretical stances' (p. 2). This is why the mixed method approach is appropriate for this study; the researcher believes, along with Johnson et al. (2007), that a mixed methods approach works beyond quantitative and qualitative exclusivity. Mixed methods work more effectively in a pragmatist paradigm that integrates both the numeric nature of a quantitative approach and the narrative of the qualitative approach. In this way, the answers to the research problem reflect the research itself, rather than the commitments of the researcher. Indeed, Tashakkori and Creswell (2007) argued, 'a strong mixed methods study starts with a strong mixed methods research question' (p. 207). These types of questions ask, 'what and how' or 'what and why.' The same types of questions that this study attempts to answer include how the change is communicated across the whole organisation and what type of information. The research questions in this study are best answered in a natural setting in which the context can be adequately explored and which provides for a greater understanding of the participants' lived experiences (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). Below is a table that shows the dimensions of contrast among the three methodological communities (table 9).

Table 9. Three Methodological Communities Dimensions of Contrast

Dimension of Contrast	Qualitative Position	Mixed Methods Position	Quantitative Position
Methods	Qualitative methods	Mixed methods	Quantitative methods
Researchers	QUALS	Mixed methodologists	QUANS
Paradigms	Constructivism (and variants)	Pragmatism; transformative perspective	Postpositivism Positivism
Research questions	QUAL research questions	MM research questions (QUAN plus QUAL)	QUAN research questions; research hypotheses
Form of data	Typically narrative	Narrative plus numeric	Typically numeric

Purpose of research	(Often) exploratory plus confirmatory	Confirmatory plus exploratory	(Often) confirmatory plus exploratory
Role of theory; logic	Grounded theory; inductive logic	Both inductive and deductive logic; inductive-deductive research cycle	Rooted in conceptual framework or theory; hypothetico-deductive model
Typical studies or designs	Ethnographic research designs and others (case study)	MM designs, such as parallel and sequential	Correlational; survey; experimental; quasi-experimental
Sampling	Mostly purposive	Probability, purposive and mixed	Mostly probability
Data analysis	Thematic strategies: categorical and contextualising	Integration of thematic and statistical; data conversion	Statistical analysis: descriptive and inferential
Validity/trust worthiness issues	Trustworthiness: credibility; transferability	Inference quality; inference transferability	Internal validity; external validity

(Teddlie and Tashakkori (Foundations of mixed methods research). p. 22.)

The quantitative part of the study intends to explore variables that will be measured numerically, which warrants the use of a quantitative methodology (Gelo, Braakmann & Benetka, 2008). These numerical variables will be yielded through survey instruments. Using a quantitative methodology allows the researcher to analyse large sets of data as opposed to a qualitative methodology, in which data are collected from fewer subjects. There are many goals that can be achieved by adopting a quantitative methodology as described by different authors. Creswell (2003) believed that adopting a quantitative approach adds more accuracy to research results because it uses statistical analysis. Muijs (2004) thinks that quantitative research design is an effective way to assess causal relationships between variables, whether the effect takes place after the cause in time and whether relationships can be explained by any confounding variables. The rationale for using quantitative methodology is testing and validating theories about how phenomena occur (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie also believe that quantitative method results can be generalised, which is another strength of using this method. Moreover, Ragin (1994) argued that the quantitative method has many goals such as identifying general patterns and relationships across many cases, testing theories and making predictions based on a large number of cases.

In quantitative research, there are four main types of research design: descriptive, correlational, quasi-experimental and experimental (Center for Innovation in Research and Teaching, 2017). Researchers choose the research design based on the degree of control that they will be able to exercise over the variables in the study. The purpose of the descriptive design is to describe variables or a particular phenomenon. There is no hypothesis associated with the descriptive design, and data collection is primarily observational. In correlational research designs, researchers explore the relationships between variables using statistical analysis, and it is also an observational form of data collection. In a quasi-experimental or causal-comparative research design, the research attempts to establish a cause and effect relationship between variables. However, the researcher does not manipulate the independent variable or assign groups but compares results from one group to another group. In experimental research designs, the researcher attempts to establish a cause and effect relationship between variables by manipulating the independent variable. This research design is often referred to as true experimentation because the researcher makes an effort to control all of the variables except for the independent variable that is being manipulated (Center for Innovation in Research and Teaching, 2017). Vogt et al. (2014) explained that the difference between descriptive and inferential statistics is 'descriptive statistics portray *actual* data, whereas inferential statistics are used to estimate *probable* values' (p. 206). The descriptive analysis design will aid in the identification of characteristics particular to the subject being studied (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). This is an appropriate design for this study because its purpose is to describe the leadership style of UoF and the communication style that have led to successful change management. The most widespread use of descriptive statistics is in case studies (Vogt et al., 2014); therefore, selecting a research design that facilitates such description is appropriate.

For the qualitative part of the study, the researcher uses open coding to start the data analysis process. Coding as described by Saldaña (2009) is the ‘transitional process between data collection and more extensive data analysis’ (p. 4). Leedy and Ormrod (2013) suggested that ‘open coding is a process of reducing the data to a small set of themes that appear to describe the phenomenon under investigation’ (p. 147). However, Creswell (2013) said that ‘in open coding, the researcher forms categories of information about the phenomenon being studied by segmenting information’ (p. 89). In this study, the researcher established multiple codes based on similarities in the data and combined similar codes to form categories of experience. Then, the researcher combined similar categories to establish patterns of meaning leading to develop themes that provided greater insight and meaning to the human experience during organisational change. The researcher then used descriptive interpretive analysis to analyse the qualitative interview data gathered. As the main goal for the thesis is to describe the leadership and communication style of two university leaders, it is more appropriate to use descriptive analysis.

3.3 Methodology

This section of the thesis discusses the study site selection, sample and data collection method, including a detailed discussion of the study instrument design and analysis method. It will then be followed by ethical considerations, validity and reliability, and finally, the study limitations.

3.3.1 Site and Subject Selection

In 2010, Sheikh Mohamed bin Rashid, UAE vice president, prime minister and ruler of Dubai, announced the United Arab Emirates’ (UAE) 2021 vision. The vision is founded upon four key pillars: an ambitious and confident nation grounded in its heritage; a strong union bonded by a common destiny; a competitive economy driven by knowledgeable and innovative Emiratis; and a nurturing and sustainable environment for quality living (www.uaepm.ae). The vision highlighted the importance of offering a quality education to UAE students across all levels. Since the new vision was announced, the education system has seen many initiatives to improve its quality and outcomes. A number of authors have written about the importance of education to a country's welfare. Education plays a significant role in building and sustaining a country (Abushelaibi, Jobe, Al Dhanhani, Al Mansoori & Al Shamsi, 2016; Al-Amiri, 2012; Kirk, 2015; Soomro & Ahmad, 2013; Saqr, Tennant & Stringer, 2014; Sukumaran, 2013; Weber, 2015). Al-Hussaini (2001) explained why education is important: 'in a post-oil economy, a highly educated and trained manpower will most probably be the only reliable economic resource' in the Gulf region (Nicks-McCaleb, 2005, p. 331). Intellectual capital of nations is also seen as the driving force for the future wealth and development of a country (Abushelaibi et al., 2016; Al-Amiri, 2012; Kirk, 2015; Soomro & Ahmad, 2013; Saqr, Tennant & Stringer, 2014; Sukumaran, 2013; Weber, 2015).

However, a call to improve the quality of education and outcomes in higher education institutions was made by all stakeholders: students, academics and government officials. In an effort to improve the quality of education and outcomes, some higher education organisations changed their leaders, some started offering new programmes and degrees, while others changed from colleges to universities to stay competitive in the market and improve the quality of their education system. The site of this research is a higher education college that went through a transformational change in order to become a university. The strategy used to identify the best higher education organisation was guided by the primary goal of selecting a site from the higher education sector of the United Arab Emirates that had gone through a transformational change intended to internationalise the university. For this reason, the University of Fujairah (UoF) was chosen. UoF was founded in 2006 as a college offering business and IT degrees. It is a multinational institution offering courses in both the Arabic and English languages. When the college started in 2006, the intention was to transfer to a university some time later, but only after the appointment of their current chancellor did their dream came true. The transformation to a university happened six months after the appointment of the chancellor in June 2016. However, it is worth mentioning that the university is currently undergoing a change to become a research university.

The UoF began as Fujairah College in 2006 and offered associate degrees in business administration and information technology programmes. However, only a year later, the UoF made plans to expand its current programmes to include bachelor's degree programmes, which became effective in 2010. Two additional degree programmes added were a Bachelor of Arts in Arabic Language and Literature and a Bachelor of Mass Communication and Public Relations (UoF, 2016). In the process of changing into an accredited university, the university restructured its institution into four colleges: College of Business Administration; College of Mass Communication and Public Relations; College of Information Technology; and College of Arts, Social Sciences and Humanities. Additionally, several of its programmes are in the process of being expanded to graduate programmes. The UoF is accredited by the Commission for Academic Accreditation, Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (CAA-MOHESR). The university has an external review team that monitors its adherence to the standards for accreditation and references the Guidelines of Good Practice of the International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE), the Guidelines for Quality Assurance from the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA), and the common core standards for quality review endorsed by the Arab Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ANQAHE) (UoF, 2016).

Cohen et al. (2011) believed that the quality of a piece of research depends not only on the study appropriateness of the methodology and instrumentation but also by the suitability of the sampling strategy adopted by the researcher. However, a study sample is a selection of some of the entities within the population; the sample is the focus of the study, while the population includes all of those entities that are being measured in the study (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). The population of this study included the staff of UoF who had a role in the change initiative. The total population equalled 40 from both the academic and non-academic divisions as identified by university management. However, the university management asked that only 30 staff be part of this study, so they excluded the janitors and security guards from the total population. There are two methods of sampling to choose from for any study: random sampling or purposive (convenience) sampling (Cohen & Holliday, 1979, 1982, 1996; Schofield, 1996). In random sampling, each individual in the population has an equal probability of being selected, while in purposive sampling, individuals are chosen based on their availability (Creswell, 2014). Because the university management gave the researcher access to 30 staff, the study sample is considered purposive sampling. Keeping in mind that the sample size will be affected by individuals' non-response, attrition and respondent mortality (Cohen et al., 2011), the researcher decided to include all 30 staff in answering the study questionnaires. The sampling design, therefore, is single stage. A single stage sampling is one in which the researcher has access to names in the population and is given access to them (Creswell, 2014). The return rate for the questionnaire on leadership style was 96% for both leaders as 29 surveys were completed, and the return rate for the questionnaire on change communication was 93% with a total of 28 returned questionnaires. However, only five staff participated in the interview part of the research. Emails and word of mouth were how those five staff members were recruited for the interviews.

3.4 Data Collection

This section discusses the two data collection methods involved, including a detailed discussion of each instrument design and how the data from each method were analysed. A copy of each instrument is appended and includes the survey and the semi-structured interview guides.

3.4.1 Survey

The main data collection instrument used for this study is a questionnaire because the study research questions are best answered using this method. Doyle (2004) argued that the goal of survey studies is to accurately predict the characteristics or thoughts of a predefined group of individuals. Two questionnaires were used in this study, which was self-administered. Sandick (2004) found that self-administered surveys provided an excellent way of gathering data about participant perceptions. To answer the study research questions, two questionnaires were used: The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and change communication questionnaire developed by the researcher (see Appendix 3 & 4). Both questionnaires used a 5-point level of agreement Likert-scale for responses. In order to discover the leadership style of the university leaders, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-Form 5X) was used with permission from the owner. The MLQ-5X is the most commonly used instrument to measure transformational and transactional leadership styles, which have been examined in many studies (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999; Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). The MLQ-5X consists of 45 questions, with 36 questions measuring the nine scales of the full-range leadership model and nine questions measuring three leadership outcome scales. The scale on transformational leadership measures four factors with four items each: idealised influence (attributed), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. The scale of transactional leadership measures three factors with four items each: contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), and management-by-exception (passive). The respondents answer the questions on a 5-point Likert-type rating scale from 0-4, with 0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often* and 4 = *frequently, if not always*. Studies have indicated high internal consistency for transformational leadership with Cronbach's alpha ranging from α = .84 to α = .99 (Epitropaki & Martin, 2013; Goodwin, Whittington, Murray & Nichols, 2011; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Sahaya, 2012; Simola, Barling & Turner, 2010; Washburn, 2012; Zopiatis & Constanti, 2012) and transactional leadership α = .70 to α = .83 (Alabduljader, 2012; Epitropaki & Martin, 2013; Liu et al., 2011; Luu, 2012). The criterion validity of the MLQ-5X has been well-established in a wide variety of studies such as predicting employee job satisfaction (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Zahari & Shurbagi, 2012), quality of LMX relationship (O'Donnel et al., 2012; Shunlong & Weiming, 2012), and follower motivation (Chaudhry, Javed & Sabir, 2012). Rowold and Heinitz (2007) found high convergent validity between transformational and charismatic leadership and divergent validity with transactional leadership.

The MLQ was conceptually developed and empirically validated to reflect the complementary dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership with sub-scales to further differentiate leader behaviour. The full range of leadership, as measured by MLQ, implies that every leader displays a frequency of both transactional and transformational factors, but each leader's profile involves more of one and less of the other. Those leaders who are more satisfying to their followers and who are more effective as leaders are more transformational and less transactional (Avolio & Bass, 1991). The MLQ is one of the most widely used instruments for measuring leadership behaviour. Therefore, the instrument's reliability and validity has been tested and proved. More on MLQ validity and reliability will be discussed in this chapter in the validity and reliability section.

The MLQ was used to identify the chancellor's and the vice chancellor's leadership styles. The MLQ was developed by Bass and his associates in 1985 as an instrument to measure both transactional and transformational leader behaviour and to investigate the nature of the relationship between these leader styles and work unit effectiveness and satisfaction (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1990, 1994; Seltzer & Bass, 1990). The MLQ has two forms: one to be answered by the leaders under study (the leader form) and the other to be answered by the leaders' subordinates (the rater form).

The second questionnaire was developed by the researcher to collect the data on change communication before, during and after the change. The questionnaire was developed to test Kotter's change management model, so the questionnaire items reflected Kotter's eight stages. The eight stages were divided into three main sections: creating climate for change, engaging and enabling the whole organisation and implementing and sustaining the change. The main goal after developing this design was to test the leadership communication during the three stages of organisation change: before, during and after. The questionnaire's validity and reliability were tested through pilot testing before administering. The pilot testing aim was to assess the instrument for weaknesses that may influence its validity and reliability.

Data collected during this research included data on the leadership styles of the university's chancellor and vice-chancellor and data related to the university leaders effective change communication. Data on leadership styles were collected from 30 staff from both the academic and non-academic divisions who work with the university leaders and have their own perception of their leadership style. The same 30 staff also completed the questionnaire on the leadership effective change communication. The university management asked that the researcher use hard copies of the instruments instead of web-based ones. Therefore, the instruments were handed to the 30 staff in closed envelopes twice during the data collection period. The completed questionnaires were then handed to the university office and kept by the executive assistant. The researcher then collected the completed forms from the executive assistant. However, the MLQ leaders' forms were not collected because the two university leaders did not complete them, despite the number of times they were reminded to do so. The researcher had to respect their decision not to complete them and move on, working with the raters' forms only.

Received data were checked for completeness and consistency. The returned MLQ rater forms and change communication questionnaires were all complete. The MLQ forms' responses were numerically coded for the purpose of association with the proper leader under study. The completed change communication questionnaires were also coded to make sure that the data from each response do not mix with other forms. The researcher made sure that the data presented and the data results reported did not reveal the identity of the staff in any way. All responses for both instruments were entered into an Excel file first to check for completion and then to the proper data analysis software. SPSS was used to analyse the quantitative data for this study.

3.4.1.1 Pilot Testing

Creswell (2014) explained the importance of pilot testing a survey before administering it. He believes that the testing is important to establish the content validity of scores in addition to improving the survey questions, format and scales. The researcher sent the questionnaire to five individuals to critique the content, language suitability, format and layout of the survey. The five individuals chosen were experiencing transformational change in their own organisations. Four of them work for a university undergoing transformational change, and one person works in the banking industry, which is leading and implementing transformational change.

The feedback received focused on both the questionnaire content and layout. Cohen et al. (2011) wrote, 'the appearance of the questionnaire is vitally important. It must look easy, attractive and interesting rather than complicated, unclear, forbidding and boring' (p. 399). With regard to the design of the questionnaire, the feedback from the testers was to change the design for easy filling and to reduce the number of pages from five to three. The researcher managed to change the old design from having the scale items under each question to moving them to the side for easy ticking. In addition, the open-ended questions moved from the end of the questionnaire to the beginning of the questionnaire under the demographics questions. Cohen et al. (2011) also stressed the important of introducing the respondents to the purpose of the questionnaire at the beginning of it. That point was also received as feedback and implemented by the researcher.

With regard to the feedback on content, the testers complained about the large number of items to answer. For that, the researcher decreased the number of questions from 63 to 45 by deleting the items that tested the same point more than once. The feedback was implemented in order to develop the final version of the survey instrument. The feedback assured the researcher that the questionnaire items were relevant to their experience with change and the language used in the questionnaire was easy to understand. The testers' feedback assured the validation of the survey.

On the other hand, with qualitative research, trustworthiness is assessed according to its credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (or neutrality) (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Regarding credibility, Patton (2005) suggested that credibility depends on three distinct elements: rigorous methods for doing fieldwork, the credibility of the researcher, which is dependent on training and experience, and a philosophical belief in the value of qualitative inquiry or the fundamental appreciation of naturalistic inquiry, qualitative methods, inductive analysis, purposeful sampling and holistic thinking. Likewise, Lincoln and Guba (1985) defined truth as the authenticity of the researcher's reconstruction both of the study's participants and its context: that is, the degree to which the researcher genuinely represents the experiences of the participants. Therefore, the researcher can enhance credibility through several techniques, including prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation, peer review or debriefing, member checks, and by providing thick, rich descriptions of the data (Creswell, 2013). The researcher in this study used triangulation to enhance credibility. With regard to dependability, there are multiple techniques to ensure that a research study is dependable. However, dependability in qualitative research is particularly difficult to prove in absolute terms because one of its defining assumptions asserts the dynamic nature of the interactive experiences between human beings and our present world (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). As mentioned before, this study used triangulation to support both credibility and dependability (Hinton, 2012). The final area that the qualitative researcher must address regarding trustworthiness is confirmability or neutrality. Confirmability addresses the researcher's role in the interpretation of the participants' experiences by examining the degree to which the overall findings genuinely reflect the experiences of the interviewees within the context of a natural environment (Sheperis, Young & Daniels, 2009). To ensure a separation between the researcher's experiences, biases and perceptions, the researcher used several preventive steps throughout the process (Hinton, 2012). The researcher tried to separate her own experiences, biases and perceptions due to having 14 years of experience working in a higher education institution by double checking participants' meanings when answering interview questions. However, like dependability, some features of confirmability are less easy to prove absolutely (Hinton, 2012).

Therefore, the strategies stated above, to include properly documented data collection and analysis, should justify logical inferences and interpretations derived from the research (Marshall & Rossman, 2010).

3.4.2 Semi-structured Interviews

The main purpose of using interviews in this study is to validate and triangulate the data collected via questionnaires. In addition, the interviews helped the researcher gain more in-depth understanding of the phenomena being studied and to highlight change success factors that were not captured by the survey. The researcher interviewed five staff from both the academic and non-academic divisions of the university. The goal of interviewing them was to gather more in-depth information about the change and to capture their own experiences, perceptions and interpretations of the reasons behind their university's successful change. Seidman (2006) wrote that interviewing offers the opportunity to make meaning out of personal experiences. He claimed that interviewing 'is deeply satisfying to researchers who are interested in others' stories (Seidman, 2006, p. 14). Patton (2002) suggested that the purpose of interviewing 'is to allow us to enter into the other person's perspective…to gather their stories' (p. 341). The interview participants were recruited based on the staff who showed interest in the study and through snowballing from personal contacts. This dissertation also incorporates Patton's (2002) 'interview guide' for designing an effective interview protocol (p. 343). Patton's (2002) approach guides the interviewer to 'list the questions or issues that are to be explored in the course of the interview' (p. 343). This tool ensures that the interviewer covers the same material with each participant to ensure that the same basic lines of inquiry are pursued in a systematic, comprehensive manner. Finally, regarding the interview process, this research study used Seidman's (2006) general guidelines regarding the purpose for interviews: familiarity, details and meaning. Concerning the sequencing of questions, Patton (2002) argued that there is no established sequencing of interview questions. However, he suggested that the interview should start with simple questions requiring little recall or interpretation such as, 'What courses do you teach here at the college?' From this starting point, probing questions will help to elicit greater detail (Patton, 2002). As the interviewee begins to describe the working environment, 'opinions and feelings can be solicited, building on and probing interpretations of experience' (Patton, 2002, p. 352). In addition, Patton (2002) noted the challenges associated with asking knowledge and skill questions as they can be threatening if asked abruptly or out of context. Therefore, knowledge questions should only be explored once the interviewer has established trust and rapport with the interviewee (Seidman, 2006). Finally, with reference to Patton's (2002) 'time frame of questions', this research approached change by considering experiences leading up to the action stage (past), experiences during the action and maintenance stages (present), along with opinions regarding the future of the organisation.

3.5 Data Analysis

The survey data for this study will be analysed quantitatively. The quantitative analysis will be conducted using descriptive measures. With regard to the MLQ (Form 5X) data analysis, the researcher used the MLQ scoring key to calculate the factors that are indicative of either a transformational or transactional leadership style for each leader (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MLQ scale scores are average scores for the items on the scale. The transformational and transactional leadership scores calculated for each leader range from zero (0), indicating that the executive manager does not display the behaviours indicative of that leadership style at all; on the other hand, scoring four (4) indicates that the leader frequently, if not always, displays the behaviours indicative of that leadership style. IBM©SPSS® Statistics Version 22 was also used to present data from the leadership style questionnaire such as calculating the means and standard deviations of a leadership style component for the chancellor and vice chancellor. On the other hand, the data analysis for the second questionnaire on leaders' effective change communication were analysed using IBM©SPSS® Statistics Version 22 also. The survey was analysed to generate descriptive results. SPSS was used to calculate the means and standard deviations of the staff response with regard to leadership communication before, during and after the change was implemented. Other relationship statistics were also calculated to get more insights into the staff perception of their leaders' effective change communication.

For the qualitative data, the researcher analysed the data through Heidegger's (1996) concept of 'Being and Time', along with a modified version of Smith, Flowers and Larkin's (2009, 2013) six-step process: In step one, the researcher reads and re-reads for codes in an effort to identify the structure and meaning of the experience with change. In step two, the researcher starts the initial noting. In step three, the researcher starts developing emergent codes. In step four, the researcher searches for similarities and differences across emergent codes. In step five, the researcher moves to the transcript. Finally, in step six, the researcher looks for similarities across codes to form categories, and likewise to form patterns.

3.6 Ethical Considerations

The researcher obtained ethical approvals from the research committees at both the British University in Dubai and from the university management. The researcher provided participants with all the information related to their rights as live participants, which included the purpose of the study, confidentiality and their right to withdraw from the study at any stage (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Anonymity and confidentiality were ensured for all participants through the data gathering procedure. After completing the surveys, the right of the individuals participating in the research to privacy was respected, so the research is valid and they will not be harmed by the release of the data (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). All data related to the study were stored in the researcher’s personal password protected laptop, and the data in paper format were stored in a locked file cabinet in the researcher’s home.

3.7 The Role of the Researcher

The researcher had no prior affiliation with the university under study. To the best of the researcher’s knowledge, she had never met the potential participants in the study other than the chancellor and vice-chancellor before the start of the data collection stage. The meeting with the chancellor and vice-chancellor was to discuss the study aims, objectives and scope for granting approval to conduct the study in the university. The two leaders gave the researcher access and permission to survey and interview employees willing to volunteer in the study. The researcher believed that there were no evident ethical concerns associated with this study. However, it is worth mentioning that the researcher played two roles when conducting this research. Glesne (2011) talked about two roles of a researcher when conducting a study: the researcher role and the learner role. She explains the two roles:

> As a researcher, you are a curious student who comes to learn from and with research participants. You do not come as an expert or authority. If you are so perceived, then your respondents will not feel encouraged to be as forthcoming as they can be. As a learner, you are expected to listen; as an expert or authority, you are expected to talk. The difference between these two roles are enormous. (p. 60)

3.8 Trustworthiness and Reliability

For the quantitative part of the study, the instrument used to assess leadership style, the MLQ (Form 5X), is considered to be a valid and reliable instrument for testing the transformational and transactional leadership styles as explored by the full range leadership model proposed and developed by Avolio and Bass (2004). The instrument's external validity has also been confirmed through meta-analyses in studies within and outside of the United States including the Middle East (Avolio & Bass, 2004). With regard to the instrument criterion-related validity, it has been shown by results that transformational leadership, as tested by the MLQ, has been found to be highly correlated with effectiveness; while transactional leadership, as indicated by the MLQ, has been found to be correlated with effectiveness to a lesser extent; and passive/avoidant behaviour has been found to have the relatively least strong correlation with effectiveness. It its worth mentioning that the MLQ (form 5X) was found to reflect the theory of the full range of the leadership model (Antonakis et al., 2003). However, when past studies have identified weaknesses in the construction and content of the MLQ (Carless, 1988; Den Harog, Van Muijen & Koopman, 1997; Tepper & Percy, 1994), the instrument authors improved their original version to the current MLQ (5X-form).

On the other hand, the researcher-developed instrument to assess the effectiveness of communication was validated through pilot testing. Content validity of the instrument was assured by the instrument testers to be relevant to the study purpose. Reliability in this situation is not confirmed because the event under investigation is a one-time event. However, the researcher has designed the study in accordance with accepted methodological practices and will be descriptive and transparent in how this research will be conducted, thus aiding in the replication of this study in similar scenarios.

3.8.1 Data Triangulation

Merriam (1998) explained data triangulation as the use of more than one form of data in order to enhance confidence in findings. Cohen et al. (2011) defined triangulation as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour. It is believed that in social and behavioural sciences research, triangulation reduces bias (Collins, Onwuegbuzie & Jiao, 2007). Researchers who use mixed method benefit from using more than one data collection tool to add more confidence to their study findings. Flick (2002) revealed that validation of data can be done by triangulation tools because the data is then collected from more than one source. Triangulation was found to be a useful technique where a researcher is engaged in a complex phenomenon case study (Adelman et al., 1980). Methodology triangulation refers to the use of multiple research strategies for a single problem (Flick, 2004). In order to make this research more reliable and valid, methodology triangulation was applied using survey questionnaires and interviews to increase the reliability and validity of the findings.

3.9 Delimitation of the Study

The research topic of managing and leading change and leadership is far too multifaceted, innumerable and complex to address in one research study. Therefore, the scope of this mixed method research study is limited to leadership style and communication during transformational change. Specifically, the scope of this study is limited to the examination of the employees' perception of their leaders' management and communication style during a change period. The delimitations of this study helped to establish the study boundaries, which prevented the researcher from setting goals that were impossible to reach (Simon & Goes, 2011). The delimiters for this study are the research questions, data collection plan and the data analysis method. The research questions focused on describing the leadership and communication style of two university leaders who successfully transferred their college to a university. This study also delimits a variety of different change models with a focus on Kotter's eight-step change model (Burke, 2014; Lippitt et al., 1958; Kotter, 1996; Pasmore, 2011), and uses a mixed method case study methodology to conduct the study. However, by using these delimiters, the researcher developed a more useful and interesting study to describe the university leaders' management and communication style.

Chapter Four: Results, Analysis & Discussion

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this mixed-method study was to describe the leadership styles of two leaders from one university in the UAE and to determine the effectiveness of their communication efforts during the implementation of change. This chapter presents the results of the analysis using descriptive inferential analysis. This chapter is divided into three main sections: First, the analysis of the quantitative data. Second, the analysis of the qualitative data. Third, the discussion of the findings in light with the literature review and Kotter's model.

4.2 Quantitative Data Analysis

The data analysis will include the leadership style survey (MLQ-Short 5X) followed by the change communication survey. The responses of the UoF staff on the leadership style survey and the leadership communication survey will be used to address the research objectives. IBM©SPSS® Statistics Version 22 was utilised to conduct the data analysis.

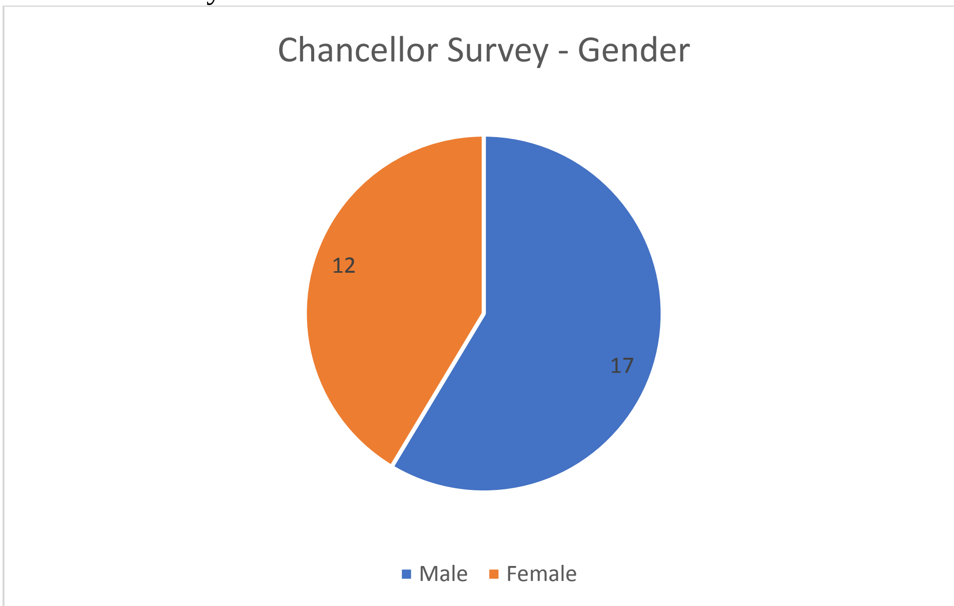
4.2.1 Leadership Style Survey

Summary of Demographic Information

The survey was completed by 29 staff members from both the academic and non-academic divisions and included six demographic questions: participants' gender, age group, education, number of years working at the university, number of years working under the chancellor and job role. The demographic data analyses were as follows:

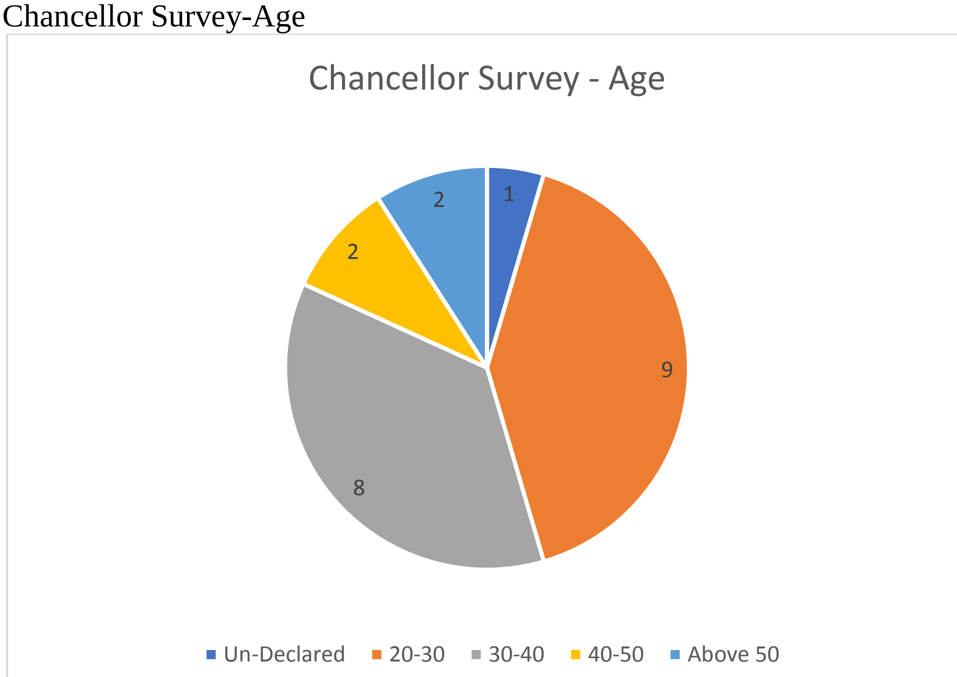
Chancellor Demographics: For gender, more than half (17; 58.6%) of the 29 participants were males, as indicated in Figure 9.

Figure 9. Chancellor Survey-Gender



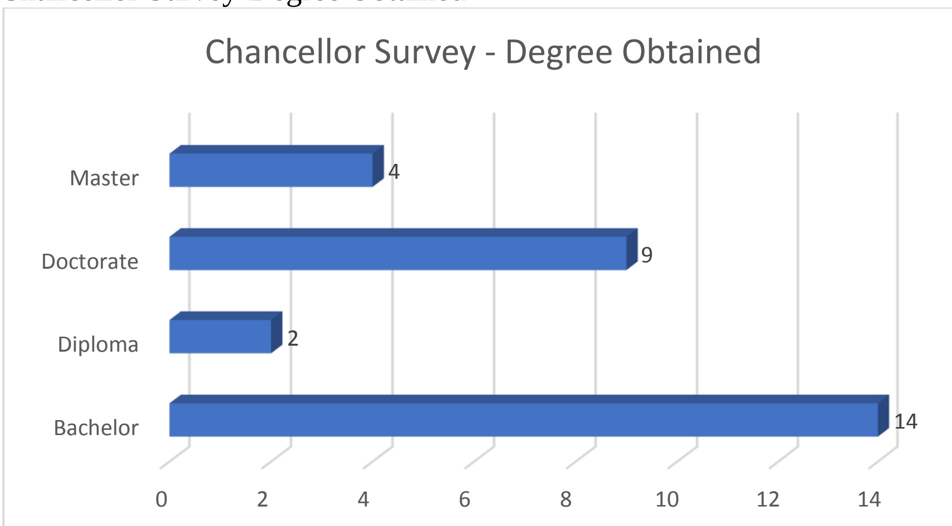
In the age group demographic (figure 10), nine participants (31%) were aged 20 to 30 years old; eight (27.6%) were aged 30 to 40 years old, two (6.9%) were aged 40 to 50 years old and two (6.9%) were aged 50 and older.

Figure 10. Chancellor Survey-Age



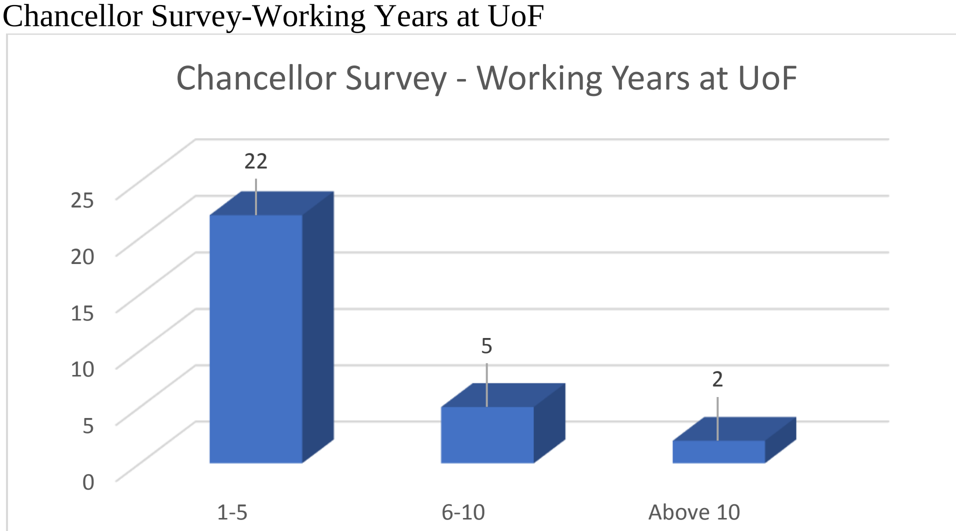
With regard to the participants' education (Figure 11), 14 (48.3%) of the 29 participants have a Bachelor's degree. Only four (13.8%) have a Master's degree and nine (31%) have a Doctorate degree.

Figure 11. Chancellor Survey-Degree Obtained



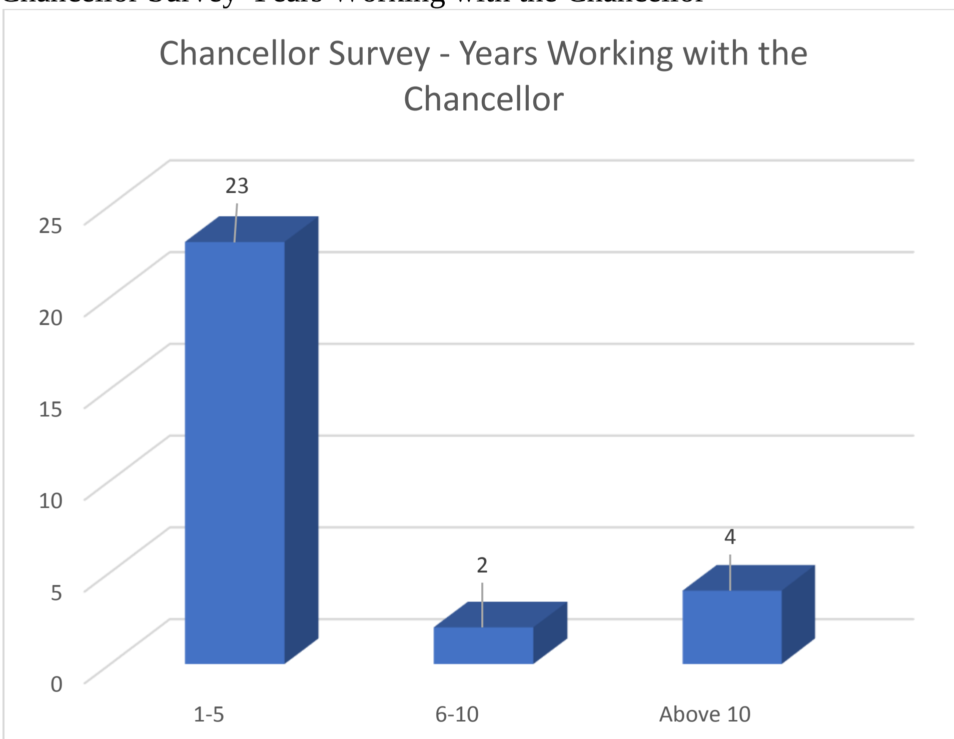
Regarding the number of years working for the University of Fujairah (figure 12), the majority (22; 75.9%) of the 29 participants have worked at the university between 1 and 5 years. This is likely due to management hiring new staff in different departments to support the change initiative.

Figure 12. Chancellor Survey-Working Years at UoF



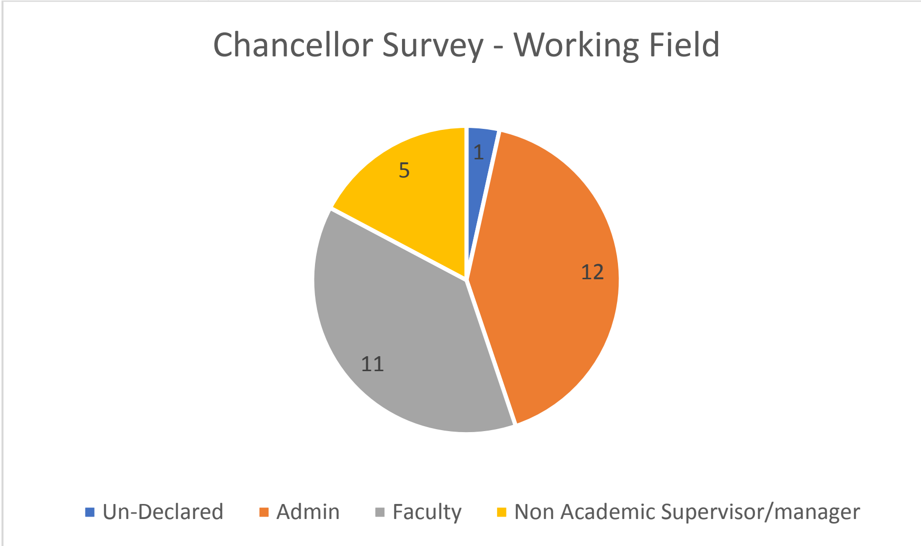
Regarding the number of years working under the leadership of the chancellor (figure 13), the majority (22; 75.9%) of the 29 participants have worked with the chancellor between 1 and 5 years because the chancellor started working at the university about a year and a half ago. Those who have worked with him for more than 5 years worked with him at his previous institution and moved with him to UoF.

Figure 13. Chancellor Survey-Years Working with the Chancellor



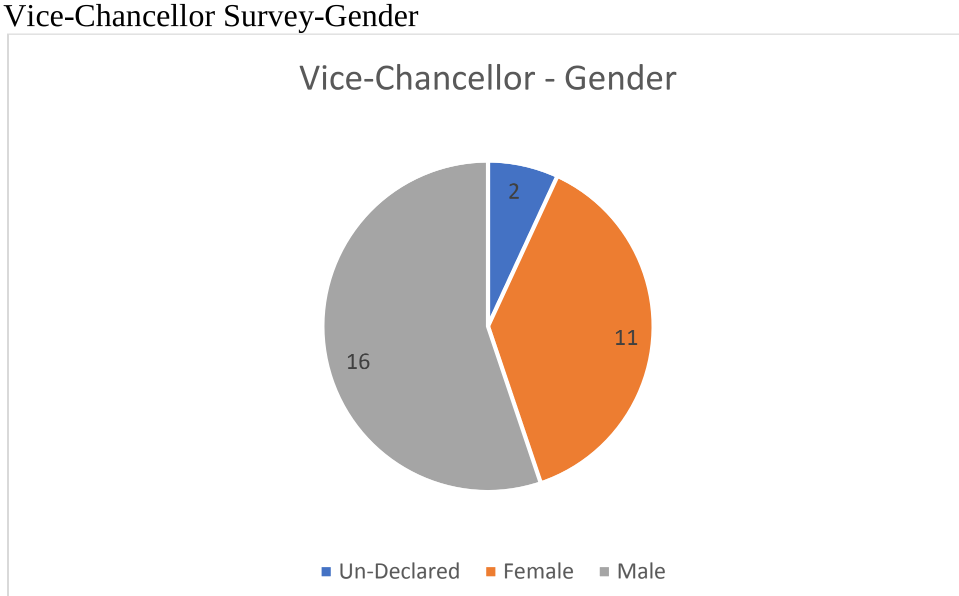
The participants who rated the leadership traits of the chancellor were mostly administration (12; 41.4%) or faculty (11; 37.9%) see figure 13. The college is relatively small with a total staff of 40, so it is expected that the majority of participants would be from the administration and faculty departments (see figure 14).

Figure 14. Chancellor Survey-Working Field



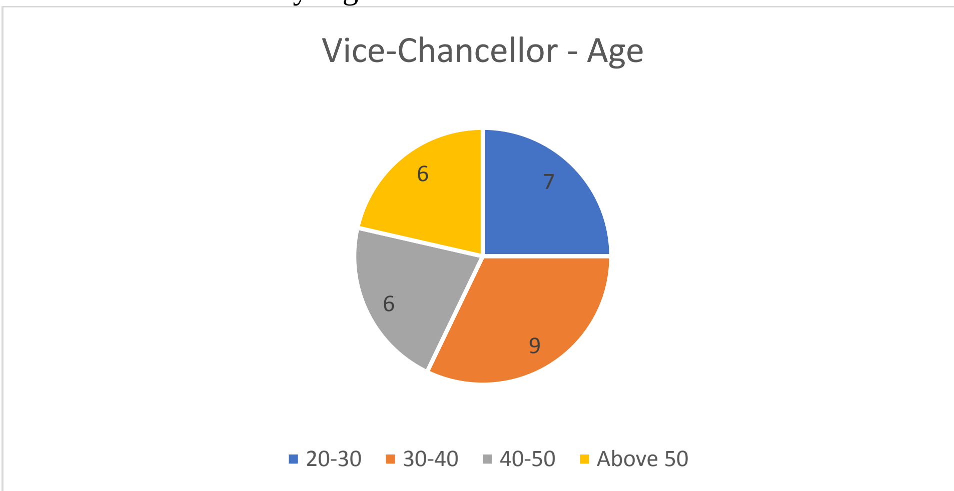
Vice-Chancellor Demographics: The demographic information of the 29 participants from the vice-chancellor survey revealed the following information. More than half (15; 55.2%) of the 29 participants rating the vice-chancellor were male, which was the same demographic information as the chancellor (figure 15).

Figure 15. Vice-Chancellor Survey-Gender



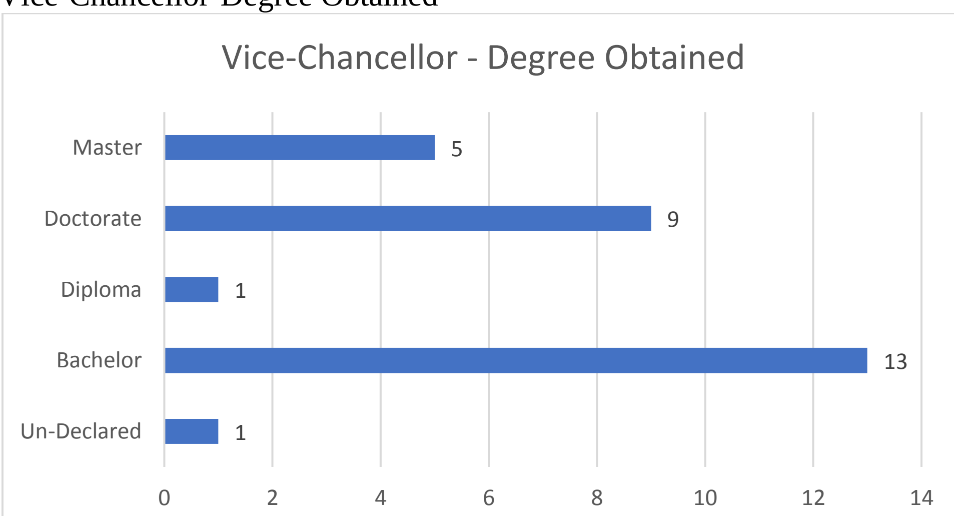
Regarding the age of the participants in the vice-chancellor survey (figure 16), nine (31%) were aged 30 to 40 years old; seven (24.1%) were aged 20 to 30 years old, six (20.7%) were aged 40 to 50 years old and six (20.7%) aged 50 and older.

Figure 16. Vice-Chancellor Survey-Age



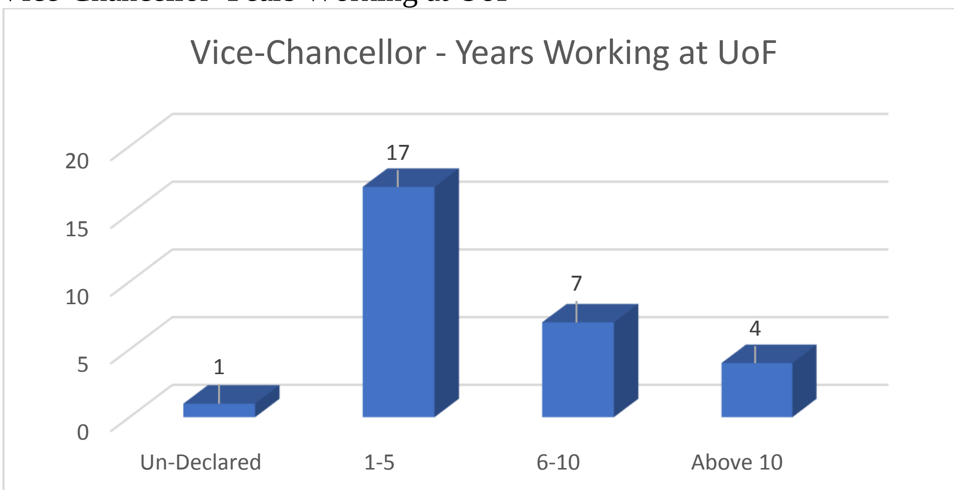
For education (figure 17), 13 (44.8%) of the 29 participants in the vice-chancellor survey have a Bachelor's degree. Five (17.2%) have a Master's degree and nine (31%) have a Doctorate degree.

Figure 17. Vice-Chancellor-Degree Obtained



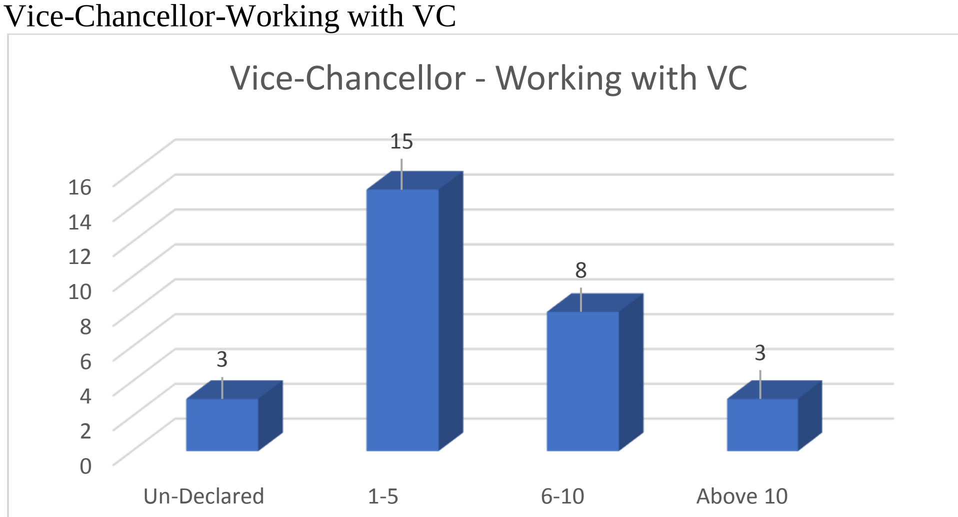
More than half (17; 58.6%) of the 29 participants rating the vice-chancellor worked at the University of Fujairah for 1 to 5 years, and seven (24.1%) worked at the university for 6 to 10 years (figure 18).

Figure 18. Vice-Chancellor-Years Working at UoF



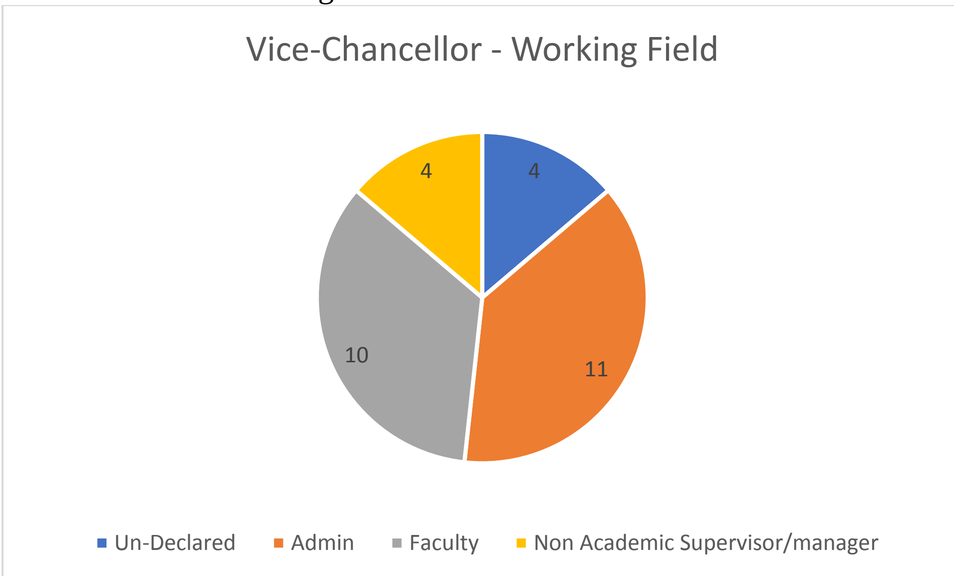
Regarding the number of years working with the leader they are rating (figure 19, more than half (15; 51.7%) of the 29 participants worked with the vice-chancellor between 1 and 5 years.

Figure 19. Vice-Chancellor-Working with VC



The participants rating the leadership traits of the vice-chancellor were mostly administration (11; 37.9%) or faculty (10; 34.5%) see figure 20.

Figure 20. Vice-Chancellor-Working Field



Leadership Styles of the University of Fujairah's Chancellor and Vice-Chancellor

This section addresses research question one to determine the leadership style of the University of Fujairah chancellor and vice-chancellor. Prior to answering research question one, each of the 45 items or questions in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X Short) are categorised in terms of the dimensions of leadership style. There are three types of leadership styles measured by the MLQ survey: transformational, transactional and non-transactional leadership or passive-avoidant (Laissez-faire) leadership. The survey questionnaire contains nine leadership components and three outcomes of leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2002). Each of the dimensions are quantified through the means of the questions in the survey. The questions are grouped together according to their relationship to each of the nine dimensions of leadership styles and the three outcomes of leadership components. The identification of the questions according to the respective dimensions are based on the literature of Bass and Avolio (2000). The scale score for each dimension will be the average of the items of the scale for a particular dimension. Table 10 summarises the dimensions and outcomes of each leadership style and the corresponding questions/items for each dimension.

Table 10. Questions/Items about Leadership Style Dimensions and Outcomes of Leadership in the MLQ Survey Questionnaire

Leadership Style	Dimensions	Abbreviation	Number of items/questions	Questions No.
	Intellectual Stimulation	IS	4	#2,8,30,32
	Idealised Influence (behaviour)	II(B)	4	#6,14,23,34
	Idealised Influence (attributed)	II(A)	4	#10,18,21,25
	Inspirational Motivation	IM	4	#9,13,26,36
	Individual Consideration	IC	4	#15,19,29,31
	Contingent Reward	CR	4	#1,11,16 35
	Management-by-exception (active)	MBEA	4	#4,22,24,27
	Management-by-exception (passive)	MBEP	4	#3,12,17,20
	Laissez-faire leadership	LF	4	#5,7,28,33
	Extra Effort	EE	3	#39,42,44
	Effectiveness	EFF	4	#37,40,43,45
	Satisfaction	SAT	2	#38,41

Tables 11 and 12 summarise the MLQ scores of the leadership styles of the University of Fujairah chancellor. The results of the descriptive statistics analysis showed that the chancellor's leadership style is transformational leader (*M* = 2.85; SD = 0.91). He has the highest mean scores in this type of leadership style, which means that the chancellor of the University of Fujairah mostly practices a transformational style of leadership compared to other leadership styles. Specifically, the chancellor practiced the transformational leadership style of Inspirational Motivation (*M* = 3.03; SD = 0.92), Idealised Behaviours (*M* = 2.96; SD = 1.02) and Idealised Attributes (*M* = 2.93; SD = 1.02). On the other hand, he practiced the transactional form of leadership the least (*M* = 1.49; SD = 1.01). He had the lowest mean score in this type of leadership style. Specifically, the chancellor least practiced the passive avoidant leadership style of management-by-exception (*M* = 1.60; SD

= 1.21) and laissez-faire (*M* = 1.38; SD = 1.10).

Table 11. Descriptive Statistics Summary of Leadership Styles of the Chancellor

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Transformational	29	0	4.00	2.85	0.91
Transactional	29	0	3.50	2.56	0.80
Passive Avoidant	29	0	3.38	1.49	1.01

Table 12. Descriptive Statistics Summaries of MLQ Scores for each Component of the Chancellor's Leadership Style

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Idealised Attributes	29	0	4	2.93	1.02
Idealised Behaviours	29	0	4	2.96	1.02
Inspirational Motivation	29	0	4	3.03	0.92
Intellectual Stimulation	29	0	4	2.62	1.07
Individual Consideration	29	0	4	2.71	1.10
Contingent Reward	29	0	4	2.89	1.07
Mgmt-by-Exception (Active)	29	0	3.75	2.22	1.02
Mgmt-by-Exception (Passive)	29	0	3.75	1.60	1.21
Laissez-Faire	29	0	3.5	1.38	1.10

Table 13 summarises the MLQ scores for the outcomes of the chancellor's leadership. The results of the descriptive statistics analysis showed that the chancellor had the highest rating in effectiveness (*M* = 3.08; SD = 1.09) and the lowest rating in extra effort (*M* = 2.86; SD = 1.02). However, the ratings of the three outcomes of leadership of the chancellor for extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction were all between the 'sometimes' (2) and 'fairly often' (3) ratings, indicating that the chancellor has above average ratings for these outcomes.

Table 13. Descriptive Statistics Summary of MLQ Scores for each Component of Outcomes of the Chancellor's Leadership

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Extra Effort	29	.33	4.00	2.86	1.02
Effectiveness	29	.25	4.00	3.08	1.09
Satisfaction	29	.50	4.00	3.00	1.04

On the other hand, tables 14 and 15 summarise the MLQ scores of the University of Fujairah vice-chancellor. The results of the descriptive statistics analysis showed that the vice-chancellor is also a transformational leader (*M* = 2.71; SD = 0.85). He had the highest mean scores in this leadership style, which means that the vice-chancellor of the University of Fujairah mostly practices transformational leadership compared to other leadership forms. Specifically, the vice-chancellor mostly practiced the transformational leadership style of Inspirational Motivation (*M* = 2.88; SD = 0.95), Idealised Attributes (*M* = 2.74; SD = 1.04), Intellectual Stimulation (*M* = 2.74; SD = 0.97) and Idealised Behaviours (*M* = 2.71; SD = 0.96). On the other hand, he less practiced transactional leadership (*M* = 1.47; SD = 1.06); he had the lowest mean scores in this leadership style. In addition, the vice-chancellor least practiced the passive avoidant leadership style of management-by-exception (*M* = 1.61; SD = 1.16) and Laissez-faire (*M* = 1.32; SD = 1.07).

Table 14. Descriptive Statistics Summary of Leadership Styles of the Vice-Chancellor

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Transformational	29	0.78	4.00	2.71	0.85
Transactional	29	1.50	3.63	2.59	0.68
Passive Avoidant	29	0.00	3.25	1.47	1.06

Table 15. Descriptive Statistics Summary of MLQ Scores for each Component of Leadership Style of the Vice-Chancellor

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Idealised Attributes	29	0	4	2.74	1.04
Idealised Behaviours	29	0.67	4	2.71	0.96
Inspirational Motivation	29	1	4	2.88	0.95
Intellectual Stimulation	29	0.75	4	2.74	0.97
Individual Consideration	29	0.5	4	2.49	0.95
Contingent Reward	29	1	4	2.78	0.94
Mgmt-by-Exception (Active)	29	0	3.75	2.40	1.01
Mgmt-by-Exception (Passive)	29	0	3.75	1.61	1.16
Laissez-Faire	29	0	3.25	1.32	1.07

Table 16 shows the MLQ scores for the outcomes of the vice-chancellor's leadership. The results of the descriptive statistics analysis showed that the vice-chancellor had the highest rating in satisfaction (M = 2.78; SD = 1.15) and had the lowest rating in extra effort (M = 2.57; SD = 1.08). The ratings of the three outcomes of leadership of the vice-chancellor—extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction—were all between the 'sometimes' (2) and 'fairly often' (3) ratings, indicating that the vice-chancellor has above average ratings for those outcomes.

Table 16. Descriptive Statistics Summary of MLQ Scores for each Component of Outcomes of Leadership of the Vice-Chancellor

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Extra Effort	29	0.33	4.00	2.57	1.08
Effectiveness	29	0.50	4.00	2.71	1.09
Satisfaction	29	0.00	4.00	2.78	1.15

However, comparing the MLQ scores for the outcomes of leadership between the chancellor and vice-chancellor showed that the chancellor had better ratings of outcomes of leadership than the vice-chancellor.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X) Reliability Analysis

Chancellor

An Alpha reliability analysis was conducted to evaluate the internal consistency of the subscales included in the MLQ-5X and assess the leadership practices adopted by the chancellor of University of Fujairah, as perceived by staff members. Results indicated highly satisfactory reliability for all subscales and interested readers may consult Table 17 for further information on the Cronbach's alpha values reported.

Table 17. Reliability Analysis on Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire for Chancellor.

Subscales	N Participants	N Items	Cronbach's α
Transformational Leadership			
1. Inspirational Motivation	27	4	.85
2. Idealised Influence (Attributed)	25	4	.93
3. Idealised Influence (Behaviour)	26	4	.82
4. Intellectual Stimulation	24	4	.89
5. Individualised Consideration	26	4	.86
Transactional Leadership			
1. Contingent Reward	27	4	.91
2. Management-by-Exception (Active)	26	4	.75
3. Management-by-Exception (Passive)	27	4	.83
Laissez-Faire	26	4	.76

Outcome Criteria

Subscales	N Participants	N Items	Cronbach's α
1. Extra Effort	28	3	.70
2. Effectiveness of Leader's Behaviour	27	4	.93
3. Followers' Satisfaction	28	2	.84

Vice Chancellor

An Alpha reliability analysis was used to assess the internal consistency of the subscales included in the MLQ-5X and evaluate the leadership practices adopted by the vice chancellor of University of Fujairah as perceived by staff members. Results revealed highly satisfactory reliability for all subscales, apart from the management-by-exception (active) subscale, which displayed a less satisfactory, although acceptable, internal consistency. Interested readers may consult Table 18 for further information on the Cronbach's alpha values reported.

Table 18. Reliability Analysis on Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire for Vice Chancellor.

Subscales	N Participants	N Items	Cronbach's α
Transformational Leadership			
1. Inspirational Motivation	28	4	.84
2. Idealised Influence (Attributed)	27	4	.84
3. Idealised Influence (Behaviour)	26	4	.70
4. Intellectual Stimulation	27	4	.73
5. Individualised Consideration	28	4	.72
Transactional Leadership			
Subscales	**N Participants**	**N Items**	**Cronbach's α**
1. Contingent Reward	28	4	.79
2. Management-by-Exception (Active)	29	4	.68
3. Management-by-Exception (Passive)	27	4	.81
Laissez-Faire	27	4	.83
Outcome Criteria			
1. Extra Effort	29	3	.72
2. Effectiveness of Leader's Behaviour	29	4	.84
3. Followers' Satisfaction	29	2	.85

4.2.2 Change Communication

The purpose of the current research is to explore the perceived effectiveness of leadership communication before, during and after the implementation of transformational change at the University of Fujairah (UoF). To this aim, 28 participants who had an active role in the change initiative were recruited and asked to complete a questionnaire evaluating the leadership communication during the three stages of organisational change. Demographic data and further information pertaining to the transformational change at the UoF were also collected. To assess if there were any significant differences or relationships regarding the perceived effectiveness of leadership communication among demographic groups and staff roles, the following analyses were completed: (a) An independent samples t-test to examine differences between men and women (Hypothesis 1), (b) A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to investigate differences among age groups (Hypothesis 2), (c) A Spearman's rho correlation analysis to assess a potential relationship to educational level (Hypothesis 3), (d) A Spearman's rho correlation analysis to examine a potential relationship to working experience (Hypothesis 4) and (e) An independent samples t-test to explore differences between change implementers and participants (Hypothesis 5).

The researcher attempted to perform a thorough analysis of the available data. A frequency analysis was initially conducted to gain preliminary insight into the demographic characteristics of the sample and certain details relevant to the transformational change at the UoF. A comprehensive account of the items included in the communicating change questionnaire was subsequently done by comparing mean agreement levels among the items assessing leadership communication at each implementation phase, as well as across implementation stages. Afterwards, a reliability analysis of the three subscales of the communicating change questionnaire was performed and the assumptions of the statistical tests were assessed. Finally, inferential statistical analyses were conducted and a summary of the findings was prepared.

Demographic characteristics. A frequency analysis was conducted to investigate the demographic characteristics of the sample (N = 28). An almost equal distribution of men and women was observed, with a slightly higher percentage of men (54%). The ages of most participants were either between 20 and 30 years (39%) or between 30 and 40 years (25%). An overrepresentation of individuals holding a bachelor's degree (71%) and an underrepresentation of diploma holders (4%) were also identified, and the majority of respondents had been working at UoF between 1 and 5 years (79%) (see Table 19 for further information on demographic characteristics and Figures 21-24 for an illustrative display of demographic information).

Table 19 Frequency Analysis of Demographic Characteristics of the Sample (N = 28).

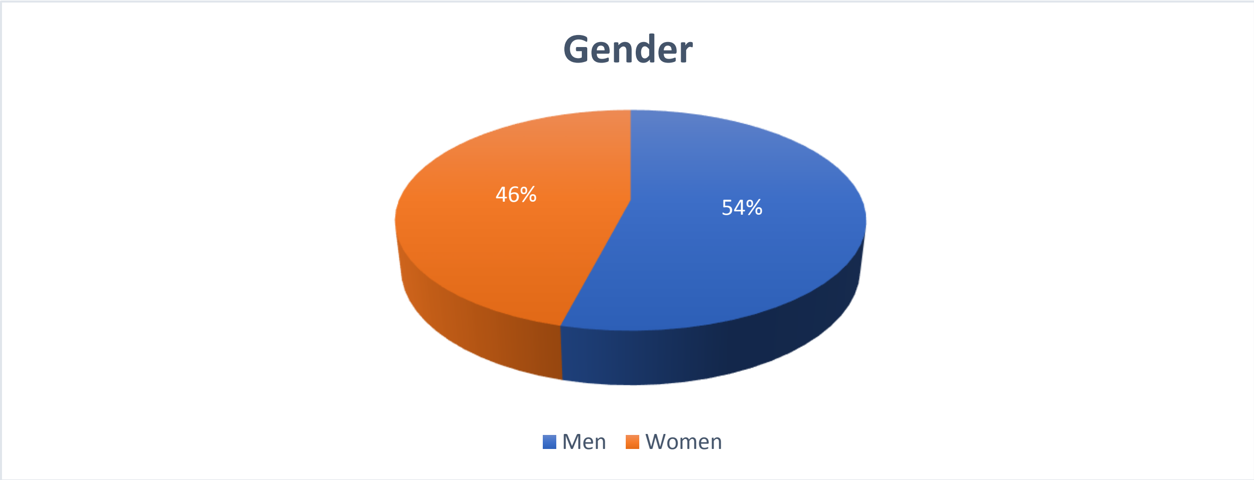
	n	%
Gender		
Male	15	54%
Female	13	46%
Age		
20–30 years	11	39%
30–40 years	7	25%
40–50 years	5	18%
Over 50 years	5	18%

	n	%
Education		
Diploma	1	4%
Bachelor	20	71%
Master	2	7%

Doctorate	5	18%
Years of Working at UoF		
1–5 years	22	79%
6–10 years	5	18%
More than 10 years	1	4%

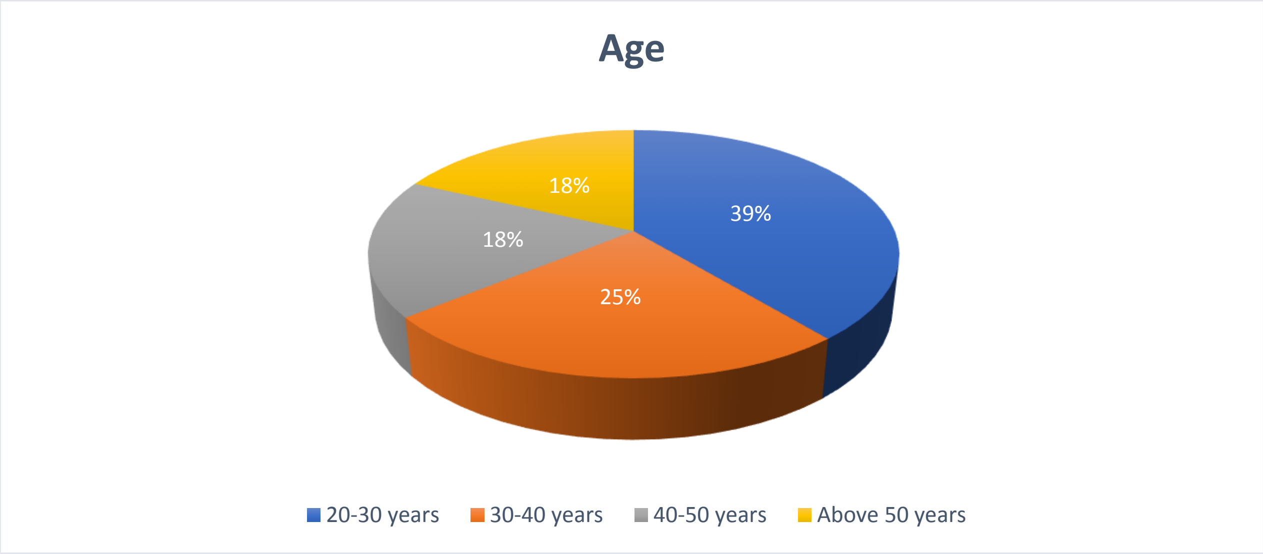
Notes. UoF = University of Fujairah; Due to rounding procedures, certain cumulative percentages in the present and following analyses are marginally above 100%

Figure 21. Communication survey by Gender



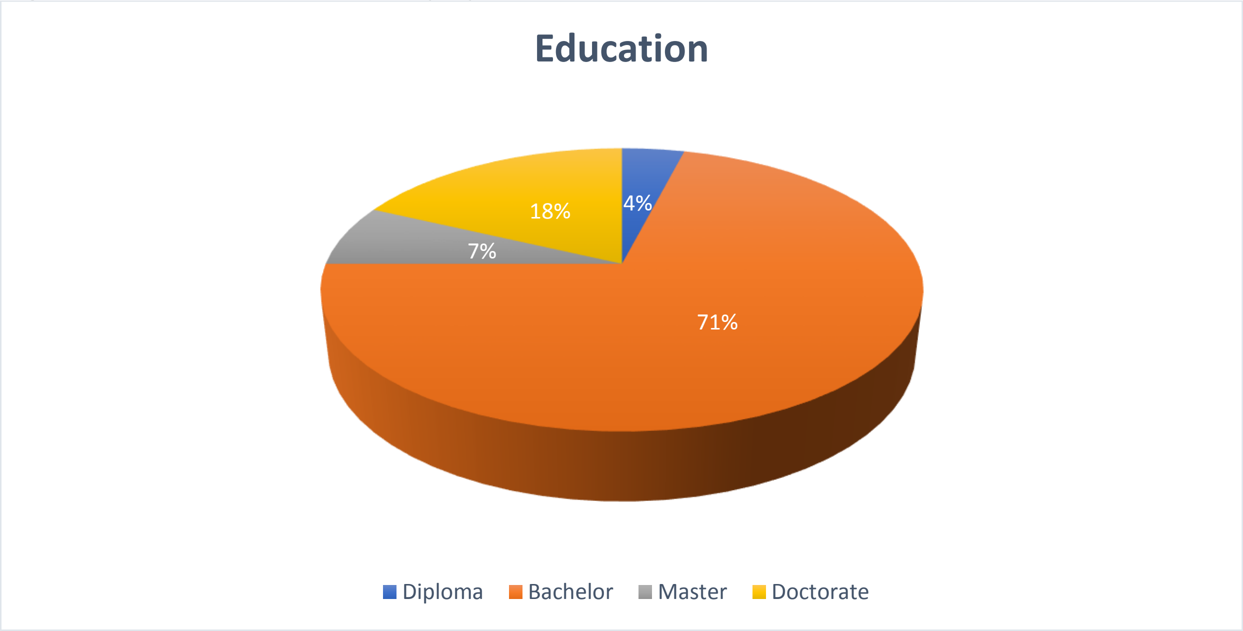
An almost equal distribution of men and women was observed, with a slightly higher percentage of men (54%).

Figure 22. Communication Survey by Age



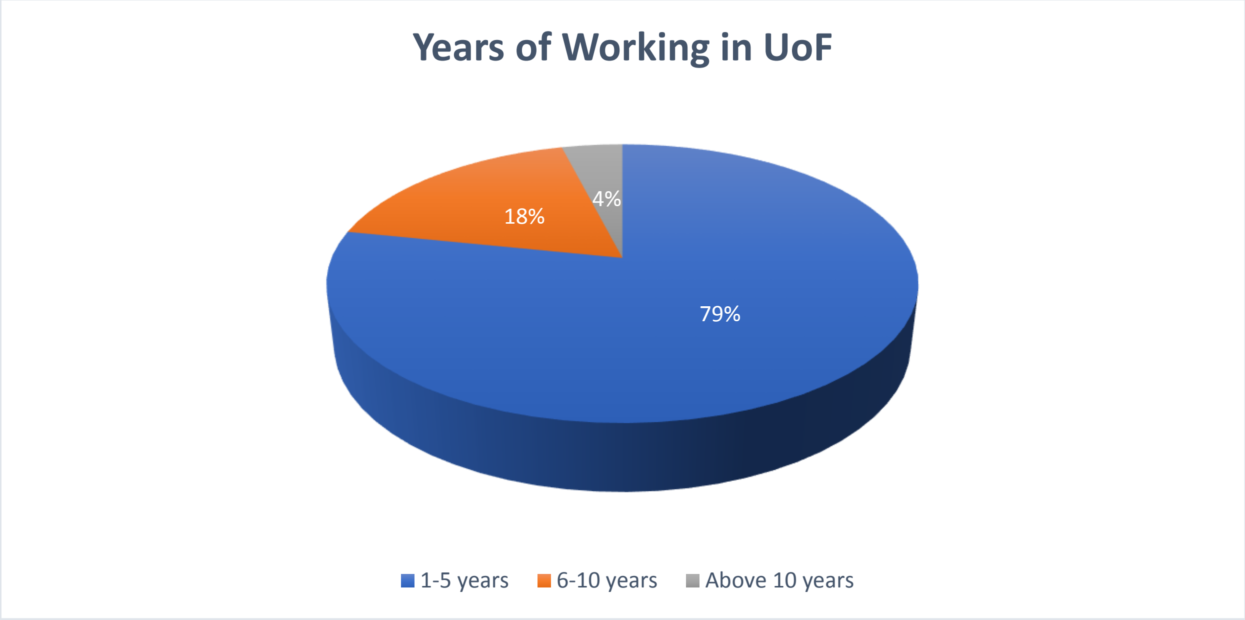
The ages of most participants were either between 20 and 30 years (39%) or between 30 and 40 years (25%).

Figure 23. Communication Survey by Education Level



An overrepresentation of individuals holding a Bachelor's degree (71%) and an underrepresentation of Diploma holders (4%) were also identified.

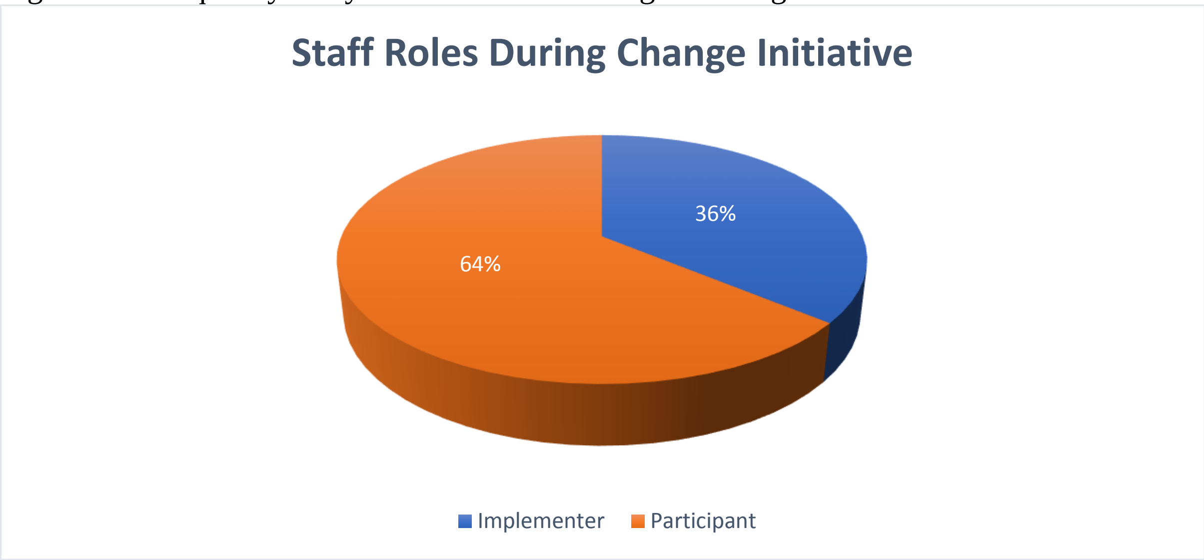
Figure 24. Communication Survey by Number of Years Working at UoF



The demographic analysis showed that the majority of respondents had been working at the UoF between 1 and 5 years (79%). This is because UoF needed to hire more staff to adhere to the ministry regulations on changing from a college to a university.

Staff Role during Transformational Change at UoF. A frequency analysis pertaining to the transformational change at UoF was also done, and it showed that more than half of the staff members had a participatory role during the change initiative (64%), with the rest acting as implementers (36%) (see Figure 25 for an illustrative display of staff roles during the change initiative).

Figure 25.. Frequency analysis of staff roles during the change initiative.



Concerning the organisational challenges faced at the beginning of the implementation phase, a lack of facilities was indicated as the top challenge (32%), followed by organisational culture (21%) and complexity of the change (18%) (see Figure 26 for further information on the first organisational challenges). The UoF's top management recognised and addressed the need for a bigger facility, which led to the move from the old location to its current new campus.

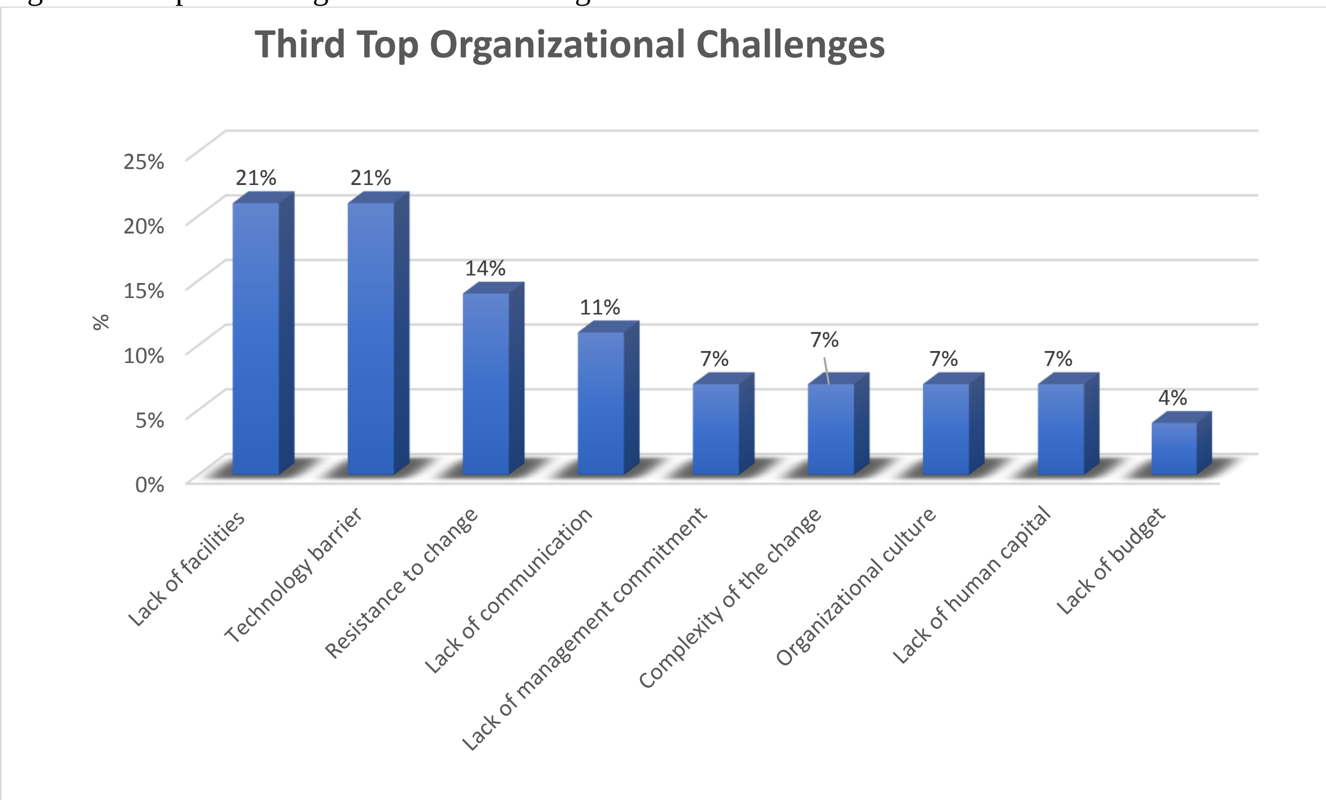
Figure 26.. Frequency analysis of the first top organisational challenges at the beginning of the implementation phase.

The lack of budget was noted as the second top challenge (32%) followed by complexity of the change (18%). Lack of facility and lack of human capital came third (4%). Money had to be invested to support the change plan and to address the need for new recruits (see Figure 27 for further information on second top organisational challenges).

Figure 27. Second Top Organisational Challenges

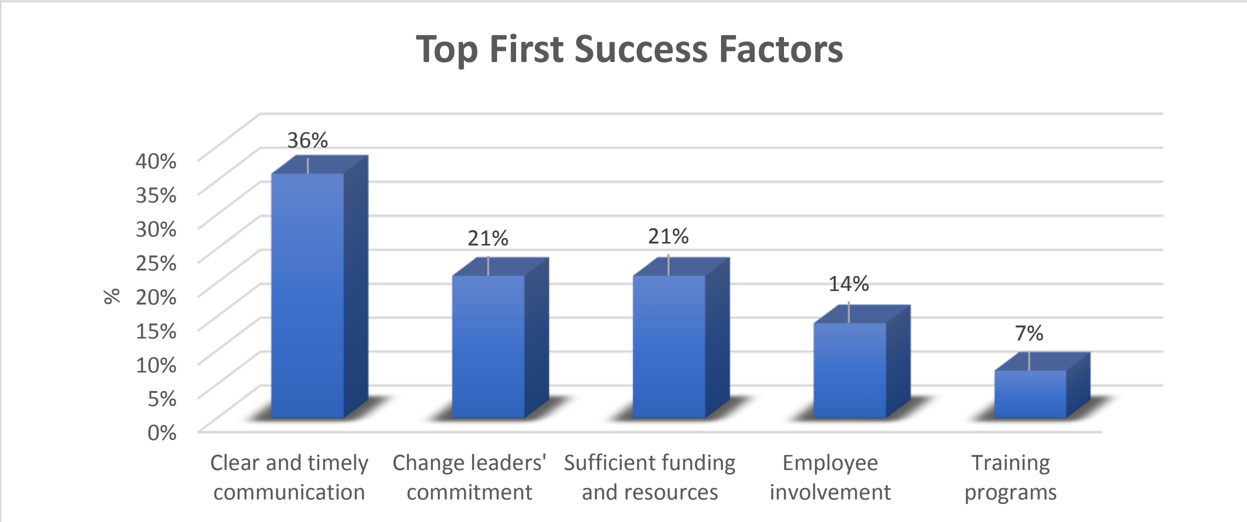
The survey participants chose lack of facilities and technology barriers as the third top challenges (21%). The UoF was aware of the need to invest in new IT infrastructure and had to invest in this area to support the change plans. See Figure 28 for further information on the third top organisational challenges.

Figure 28. Top Third Organisational Challenges



Participants were also asked to list the top three factors that contributed to the successful transformation of the UoF from a college to a university. Clear and timely communication was identified as the top contributing factor (36%), followed by change leaders' commitment (21%) and sufficient funding/resources (21%). The result of this question illustrates clearly the importance of clear and timely communication to achieve a successful change (see Figure 29 for further information about the top contributing factors).

Figure 29. Top First Success Factors



The second and third top contributing factors were employee involvement, organisational culture support and training programmes (18%). Employee involvement is critical to any change success before, during and after the change initiative is announced (see figures 30 and 31 for further information on the second and third top success factors).

Figure 30. Second Top Success Factors

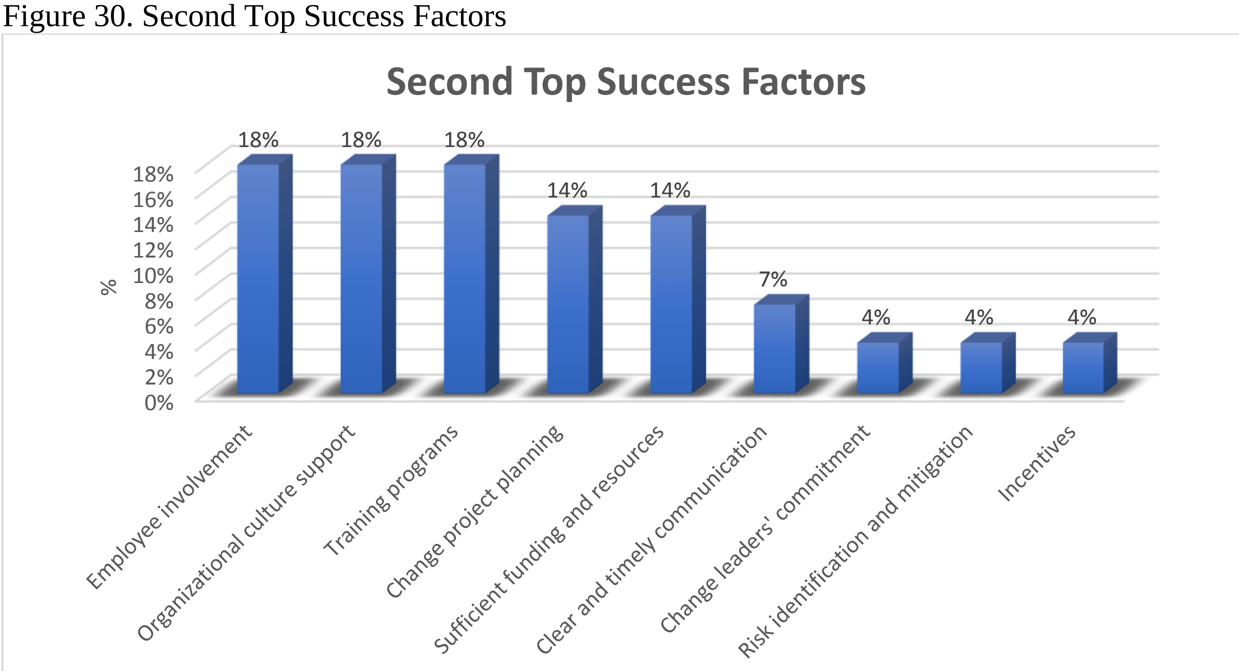
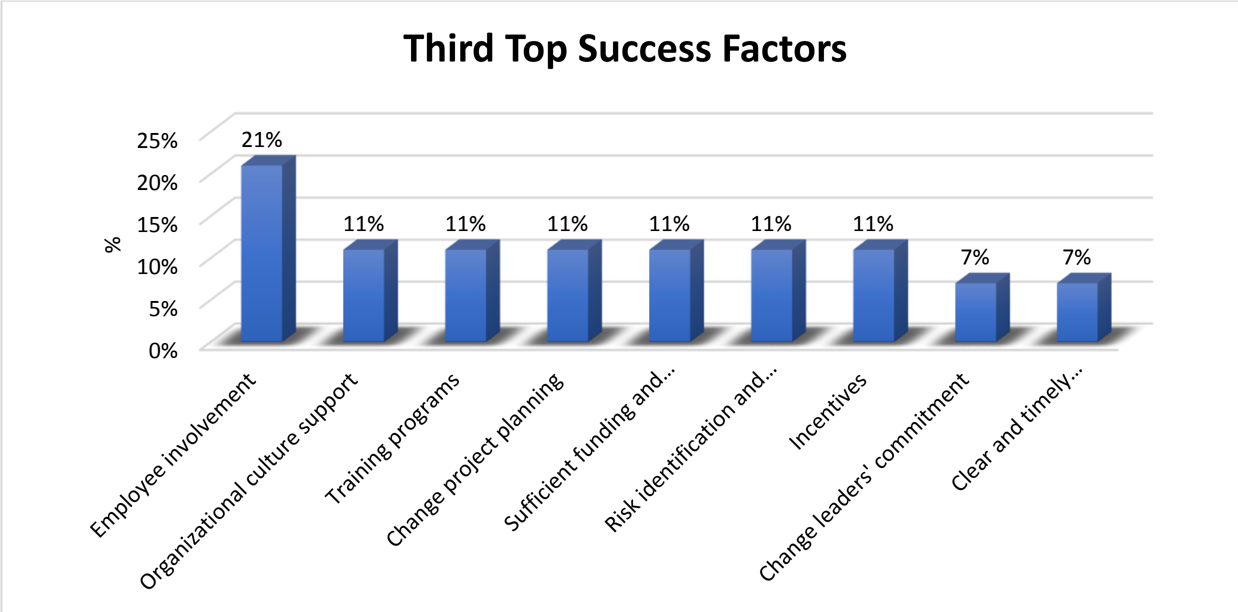
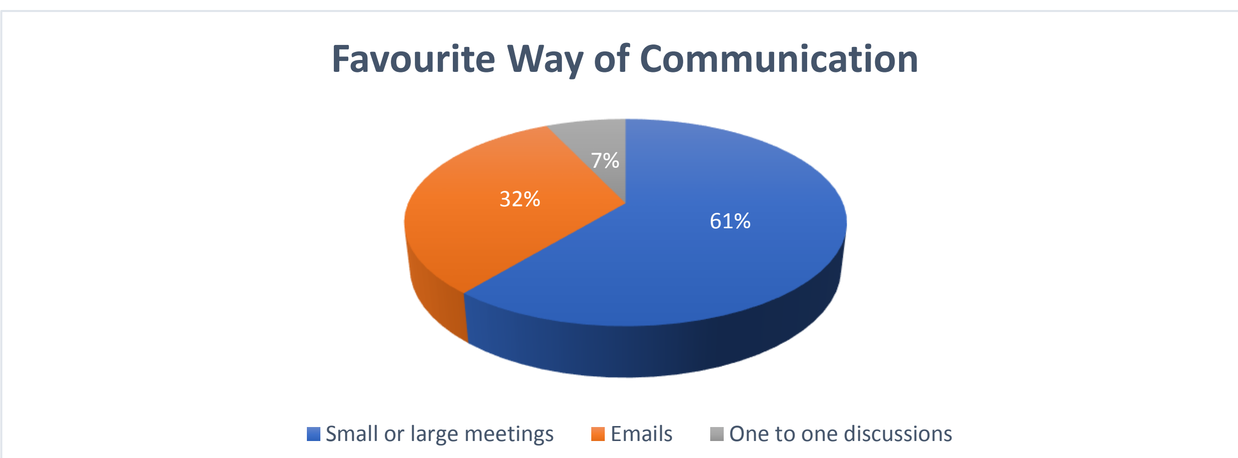


Figure 31. Top Third Success Factors



Finally, small or large meetings were ranked as the most favourable way to communicate during the change process (61%), followed by emails (32%) and one-to-one discussions (7%). It should be noted, though, that no participant indicated memos or newsletters as preferable means of communication. Employees value face-to-face change communication between themselves and management (see Figure 32 for an illustrative display of favoured ways to communicate).

Figure 32. Favourite Ways to Communicate



Communicating change questionnaire. A descriptive analysis was also done to compare mean agreement levels among the items assessing leadership communication at each implementation phase and across implementation stages. Means and standard deviations for each statement were initially calculated to identify the highest and lowest mean agreement levels per implementation phase. Responses for all items were provided on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree)* to 5 *(strongly agree)*.

Creating a Climate for Change. ***Creating a climate for change.*** This section assessed leadership communication before the implementation of transformational change. Ten items were included, with one negatively worded statement ('I thought that management was making a mistake by introducing this change').

Our organisational leaders were committed to immediate change. The staff was supportive of leaders' commitment to change, as most of them either agreed (39%) or strongly agreed (32%) with the statement.

Our organisational leaders showed us compelling evidence as to why we need to change. The quality of evidence presented was deemed satisfactory, as the majority of participants expressed their agreement (46%) and strong agreement (25%) with the statement.

To stay ahead or competitive, we had to change; I thought that management was making a mistake by introducing this change. Considering the high rates of agreement (54%) and strong agreement (36%), transformational change was treated as essential by respondents. This was further supported by the high percentage of disagreement (50%) and low percentage of agreement (29%) with the second statement.

The leaders of change had the power and influence within the organisation needed to implement the change; the leaders of change publicly demonstrated their commitment to the change plan. Seventy percent of the staff members considered the change leaders capable of implementing the change, and 64% noted the public commitment of leaders to the change plan as adequate.

The leaders of change had my trust and respect. The leaders of change seemed to inspire trust and respect in participants (79%), and disagreement was expressed in only one case (4%).

The leaders of change worked effectively and efficiently as a team to implement a successful change. Most of the staff were satisfied with the teamwork of the change leaders (79%), with only one respondent reporting disagreement with the statement (4%) and five respondents displaying a neutral attitude (18%).

As a staff member, I understood the new organisational vision we were driving towards; the new vision increased my motivation towards the change. It could be inferred that the organisational vision was effectively communicated, as most participants agreed with both statements (see Table 20 for further information on the frequency analysis regarding leadership communication prior to the implementation phase).

Table 20. Frequency Analysis Regarding Leadership Communication Prior to the Implementation Phase.

Creation of a Climate for Change	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree or agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. Our organisation leaders were committed to an immediate change.	-	7%	21%	39%	32%
2. Our organisation leaders showed us compelling evidence as to why we need to change.	-	11%	18%	46%	25%
3. To stay ahead or competitive, we had to change.	4%	-	7%	54%	36%

4. I thought that management was making a mistake by introducing this change.	39%	11%	21%	21%	7%
5. The leaders of the change had the power and influence within the organisation needed to implement the change.	-	4%	25%	39%	32%
6. The leaders of change publicly demonstrated their commitment to the change plan.	-	7%	29%	43%	21%
7. The leaders of change had my trust and respect.	-	4%	18%	50%	29%
8. The leaders of change worked effectively and efficiently as a team to reach a successful change.	-	4%	18%	36%	43%
9. As a staff member, I understood the new organisational vision we were driving towards.	-	11%	21%	21%	46%
10. The new vision increased my motivation about the change.	4%	7%	18%	21%	50%

Engaging and enabling the whole organisation. This section examined leadership communication during the implementation of transformational change. Nineteen items were included, with two negatively worded statements ('I felt pressured to go along with this change'; 'Organisational change within the department did not add anything to the quality of my work').

Meetings, information sessions, informal conversation and/or an 'open-door policy' were made available to me so my opinions regarding organisational change initiatives could be expressed; My supervisor listened to my concerns regarding the potential effects of proposed organisational change initiatives on my ability to perform my job, and we often communicated one-on-one regarding the organisational change plan and process. The leaders of change communicated effectively, giving everyone a solid understanding of the future; *the change initiative was explained in clear terms, and the leaders of change kept employees informed about the overall progress of the change initiative. During the change process, there were constant dialogues among all levels* *of the organisation regarding the change initiative.* Satisfactory communication between staff members and change leaders was observed, as most respondents agreed with the above statements.

I felt pressured to go along with this change; I felt a sense of duty to work towards this change. Conflicting attitudes were presented in this case, as 46% of the staff felt pressured to accept the change, whereas a prevailing 75% expressed agreement with the latter statement.

We have been given the right training or education to make us successful. Overall, training was considered appropriate and efficient, as more than half of the participants agreed with the statement (64%).

Organisational change within the department generally improved the quality of my work; Organisational change within the department did not add anything to the quality of my work. Staff members treated organisational change as important to improve their work, as indicated by the high (68%) and low (18%) rates of agreement with the first and second statement, respectively.

The leaders of change rewarded staff for their commitment to the change plan, and the reward system promoted the behaviour needed to make the change effort successful. The leaders of change supported the behaviour, skills and attitudes needed to attain the change initiative, and the leaders of change have celebrated the organisation's success as we have hit major milestones. It was observed that the leaders of change managed to reward staff in an adequate manner and were regarded as supportive by most respondents, although several neutral attitudes were expressed towards the first (43%) and second (39%) statement.

The leaders of change utilised measurement systems and procedures to measure the change plan process, and the leaders of change acted as role models by demonstrating the new desired *behaviours to sustain the change*. In both cases**,** 61% of the participants agreed, but a considerable percentage of neutral attitudes was indicated.

I saw resistance to change decrease as we celebrated short-term wins. Divided opinions were identified regarding resistance to change, as almost half of the participants agreed with the statement (39%), while the rest expressed neutral attitudes (36%) or disagreement (25%) (see Table 21 for further information on frequency analysis regarding leadership communication during the implementation phase).

Table 21. Frequency Analysis of Items Assessing Leadership Communication during Implementation.

Engaging and Enabling the Whole Organisation	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree or agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. 'Open-door policy'	4%	-	21%	54%	21%
2. My supervisor listened to my concerns regarding the potential effects of the proposed organisational change initiatives on my ability to perform my job.	-	7%	25%	46%	21%
3. My supervisor and I often communicated one-on-one regarding the organisational change plan and process.	-	21%	21%	43%	14%
4. The leaders of change communicated effectively, giving everyone a solid understanding of our future.	-	-	32%	46%	21%
5. The change initiative was explained in clear terms.	-	7%	25%	39%	29%
6. The leaders of change kept employees informed on the overall progress of the change initiative.	-	7%	14%	54%	25%
7. During the change process, there were constant dialogues among all levels of the organisation regarding the change initiative.	-	7%	29%	43%	21%
8. I felt pressured to go along with this change.	7%	7%	39%	36%	11%
9. I felt a sense of duty to work towards this change.	4%	-	21%	57%	18%

10. We have been given the right training or education to make us successful.	4%	4%	29%	46%	18%

Engaging and Enabling the Whole Organisation	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree or agree	Agree	Strongly agree
11. Organisational change within the department generally improved the quality of my work.	-	14%	18%	36%	32%
12. Organisational change within the department did not add anything to the quality of my work.	39%	14%	29%	11%	7%
13. The leaders of change rewarded staff for their commitment to the change plan.	4%	7%	43%	43%	4%
14. The reward system promoted the behaviour needed to make the change effort successful.	4%	7%	39%	39%	11%
15. The leaders of change supported the behaviour, skills and attitudes needed to attain the change initiative.	4%	11%	14%	50%	21%
16. The leaders of change have celebrated the organisation's success as we have hit major milestones.	4%	4%	18%	50%	25%
17. The leaders of change utilised measurement systems and procedures to measure the change plan progress.	-	11%	29%	43%	18%
18. The leaders of change acted as role models by demonstrating the new desired behaviours to sustain the change.	-	4%	36%	32%	29%
19. I saw resistance to change decrease as we celebrated short-term wins.	11%	14%	36%	29%	11%

Implementing and sustaining the change. The last section assessed leadership communication after the implementation of transformational change. Eight items were included, with one negatively worded item ('Although the change was successful, I still believe that the change was not needed').

The behaviour of staff in positions of power who acted against the change initiative were corrected. Thirty-nine percent of the participants indicated that resistance to change had been decreased in those with positions of power, whereas another 39% reported neutral attitudes about the statement.

The leaders of change brought in additional staff and resources to assist with the transformation. More than half of the respondents expressed their agreement with this statement (64%), although instances of neutrality and disagreement were also observed.

The leaders of change did a good job of planning, organising and implementing specific changes to support the transformation, and *I felt that our organisational structure, appraisal system and culture were all coordinated in support of the transformation.* Most staff members expressed a positive attitude towards the efforts of change leaders (82%), which aligns with their favourable attitude (71%) towards the latter statement.

I saw managers and supervisors exhibiting new behaviours in line with the new vision; I saw my colleagues exhibit new behaviours in line with the new vision. Similar opinions were identified for both statements, with more than half of the participants reporting their agreement and the rest expressing neutral attitudes.

This change transformed the organisation into a better place for staff and students. Although the change was successful, I still believe that it was not needed. Staff members seemed to be in favour of the transformational change as noted by the high rates of agreement with the first statement (82%) and the low agreement rates with the second (21%) (see Table 22 for further information on the frequency analysis regarding leadership communication after the implementation phase).

Table 22. Frequency Analysis of Items Assessing Leadership Communication after Implementation.

Implementation and Sustainability of Change	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree or agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. The behaviour of staff in positions of power who acted against the change initiative was corrected.	18%	4%	39%	25%	14%
2. The leaders of change brought additional staff and resources on board to assist with the transformation.	-	7%	29%	43%	21%
3. The leaders of change did a good job of planning, organising and implementing specific changes in support of the transformation.	-	7%	11%	50%	32%
4. I felt that our organisational structure, appraisal system and culture were all coordinated in support of our transformation.	-	7%	21%	50%	21%
5. I saw managers and supervisors exhibiting new behaviours in line with the new vision.	-	4%	25%	54%	18%
6. I saw my colleagues exhibit new behaviours in line with the new vision.	-	7%	32%	39%	21%
7. This change has transformed the organisation into a better place for staff and students.	-	7%	11%	32%	50%
8. Although the change was successful, I still believe that the change was not needed.	43%	11%	25%	7%	14%

A descriptive analysis was subsequently conducted to compare mean agreement levels among the items assessing leadership communication at each implementation phase and across implementation stages. Means and standard deviations for each statement were first calculated to identify the highest and lowest mean agreement levels per implementation phase.

Referring to leadership communication prior to the implementation of change, the statement ‘The leaders of change were working effectively and efficiently as a team to reach successful change efforts’ revealed the highest levels of agreement ($M = 4.18$), whereas the statement ‘I thought that management was making a mistake by introducing this change’ revealed the lowest ($M = 2.46$). Consequently, it may be assumed that staff members were satisfied with the teamwork of the change leaders and considered the transformational change necessary (see Table 23 for further information on mean agreement levels among items assessing leadership communication prior to the implementation of change; means are presented in descending order for ease of comparison).

Table 23. Mean Agreement Levels among Items Assessing Leadership Communication Prior to the Implementation of Change

Leadership Communication Prior to Implementation of Change	*M*	*SD*
1. The leaders of change worked effectively and efficiently as a team to ensure successful change efforts.	4.18	.86
2. To stay ahead or competitive, we had to change.	4.18	.86
3. The new vision increased my motivation towards the change.	4.07	1.15
4. As a staff member, I understood the new organisational vision we were driving toward.	4.04	1.07
5. The leaders of change had my trust and respect.	4.04	.79
6. The leaders of change had the power and influence within the organisation needed to implement the change.	4.00	.86
7. Our organisation leaders were committed to an immediate change.	3.96	.92
8. Our organisation leaders showed us compelling evidence as to why we need to change.	3.86	.93
9. The leaders of change publicly demonstrated their commitment to the change plan.	3.79	.88
10. I thought that management was making a mistake by introducing this change.	2.46	1.40

Regarding leadership communication during the implementation of change, the statement, ‘The leaders of change kept employees informed on the overall progress of the change initiative’ displayed the highest levels of agreement ($M = 3.96$), while the statement, ‘Organisational change within the department did not add anything to the quality of my work’ displayed the lowest ($M = 2.32$). Therefore, it could be inferred that respondents were satisfied with the amount of information communicated during the change implementation and treated organisational change as beneficial to their quality of work (see Table 24 for further information on the mean agreement levels among items assessing leadership communication during the implementation of change; means are presented in descending order for ease of comparison).

Table 24. Mean Agreement Levels among Items Assessing Leadership Communication during the Implementation of Change.

Leadership Communication during the Implementation of Change	*M*	*SD*
1.The leaders of change kept employees informed on the overall progress of the change initiative.	3.96	.84
2. The leaders of change communicated effectively, giving everyone a solid understanding of our future.	3.89	.74
3. ‘Open-door policy’	3.89	.88
4. The leaders of change have celebrated the organisation’s success as we have hit major milestones.	3.89	.96
5. The change initiative was explained in clear terms.	3.89	.92
6. The leaders of change acted as role models by demonstrating the new desired behaviours to sustain the change.	3.86	.89
7. Organisational change within the department generally improved the quality of my work.	3.86	1.04
8. I felt a sense of duty to work towards this change.	3.86	.85
Leadership Communication during the Implementation of Change	*M*	*SD*
9. My supervisor listened to my concerns regarding the potential effects of the proposed organisational change initiatives on my ability to perform my job.	3.82	.86
10. During the change process, there was constant dialogue among all levels of the organisation regarding the change initiative.	3.79	.88
11. The leaders of change supported the type of behaviour, skills and attitudes needed to attain the change initiative.	3.75	1.04
12.We have been given the right training or education to make us successful.	3.71	.94
13. The leaders of change utilised measurement systems and procedures to measure the change plan progress.	3.68	.91
14. My supervisor and I often communicated one-on-one regarding the organisational change plan and process.	3.50	1.00
15. The reward system promoted the behaviour needed to make our change effort successful.	3.46	.92

16. The leaders of change rewarded staff for their commitment to the change plan.	3.36	.83
17. I felt pressured to go along with this change.	3.36	1.03
18. I saw resistance to change decrease as we celebrated short-term wins.	3.14	1.15
19. Organisational change within the department did not add anything to the quality of my work.	2.32	1.31

Finally, as far as leadership communication after the implementation of change, the statement ‘This change transformed the organisation into a better place for staff and students’ revealed the highest levels of agreement (*M* = 4.25), whereas the statement ‘The behaviour of staff in positions of power who acted against the change initiative was corrected’ revealed the lowest (*M* = 3.14). Consequently, the transformational change was considered valuable to the advancement of staff and students, but a neutral attitude towards the behavioural change from those who were against the change was reported (see Table 25 for further information on mean agreement levels among items assessing leadership communication after the implementation of change; means are presented in descending order for ease of comparison).

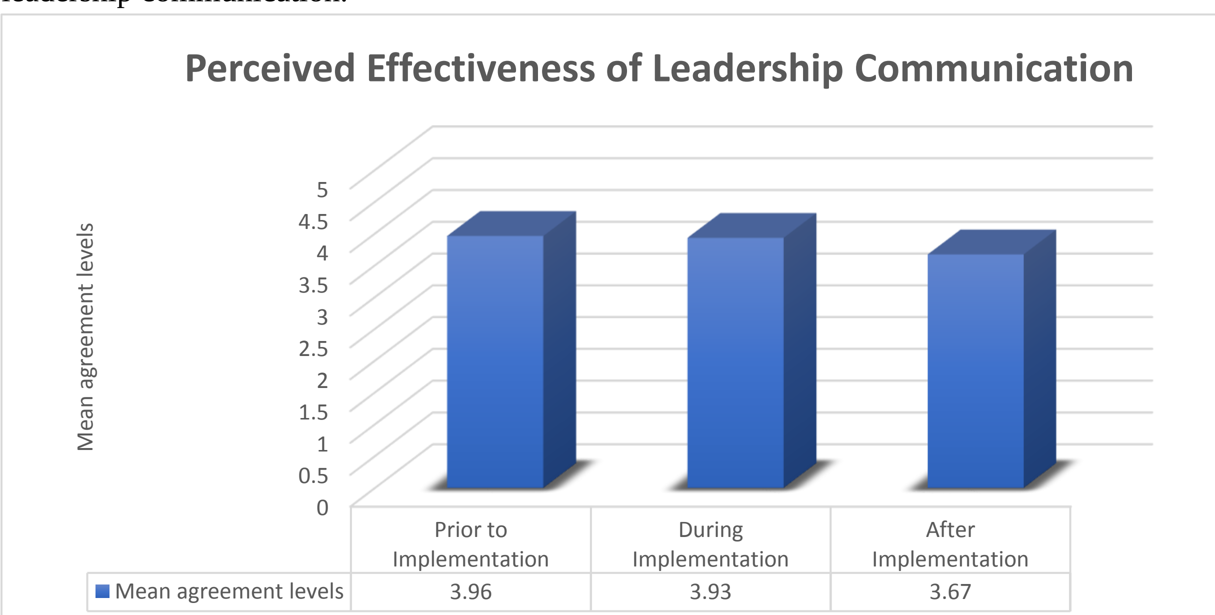
Table 25. Mean Agreement Levels among Items Assessing Leadership Communication after the Implementation of Change.

Leadership Communication After the Implementation of Change	*M*	*SD*
1. This change transformed the organisation into a better place for staff and students.	4.25	.93
2. The leaders of change did a good job of planning, organising and implementing specific changes in support of our transformation.	4.07	.86
3. I saw managers and supervisors exhibiting new behaviours in line with the new vision.	3.86	.76
4. I felt that our organisational structure, appraisal system and culture were coordinated in support of the transformation.	3.86	.85
5. The leaders of change brought additional staff and resources on board to assist with the transformation.	3.79	.88

6. I saw my colleagues exhibit new behaviours in line with the new vision.	3.75	.89
7. Although the change was successful, I believe that the change was not needed.	3.61	1.47
8. The behaviour of staff in positions of power who acted against the change initiative was corrected.	3.14	1.27

The second step involved the presentation of means across implementation phases to compare mean agreement levels before, during and after the implementation phase. It should be mentioned that items were reverse coded, where needed, so that higher mean values consistently reflected more positive attitudes towards leadership communication. The descriptive analysis indicated that leadership communication prior to implementation of change concentrated the highest agreement levels (M = 3.96), while leadership communication after the implementation of change the lowest (M = 3.67). Thus, it may be concluded that leadership communication was perceived as effective prior to implementation stage, but attitudes were more neutral after the transformational change (see Figure 33 for mean agreement levels across implementation phases).

Figure 33. Mean agreement levels across implementation phases regarding effectiveness of leadership communication.



Reliability analysis. To evaluate the internal consistency of the three subscales assessing leadership communication before, during and after the implementation of transformational change, an Alpha reliability analysis was conducted. The following four items were reverse scored, so higher values reflect higher levels of perceived effectiveness of leadership communication:

1. 'I thought that management was making a mistake by introducing this change', included in the subscale evaluating leadership communication prior to implementation of organisational change.
2. 'I felt pressured to go along with this change'.
3. 'Organisational change within the department did not add anything to the quality of my work', involved in the subscale assessing leadership communication during the implementation of transformational change.
4. 'Although the change was successful, I still believe that the change was not needed', included in the subscale evaluating leadership communication after the implementation of organisational change.

The Alpha reliability analysis revealed highly satisfactory internal consistency for the subscales assessing leadership communication prior to and during change implementation, but a marginally acceptable reliability was identified for the subscale evaluating leadership communication after change implementation. A descriptive analysis also indicated positive attitudes towards leadership communication before and during transformational change, while neutral attitudes were expressed towards leadership communication after the organisational change (see Table 26 for further information on reliability and descriptive analysis).

Table 26. Alpha Reliability and Descriptive Analysis on Subscales Assessing Leadership Communication Before, During and After the Implementation of Transformational Change.

Leadership Communication	N Items	Cronbach's α	Min	Max	M	SD
1. Prior to change implementation	10	.83	1	5	3.96	.62
2. During change implementation	19	.87	1	5	3.93	.60
3. After change implementation	8	.65	1	5	3.67	.52

Note. For ease of comparison, minimum (min) and maximum (max) values represent the subscale range and not the mean minimum and maximum values observed in the sample.

Considering the low internal consistency identified for the subscale evaluating leadership communication after transformational change, the researcher inspected the issue further and observed that the item 'The behaviour of staff in positions of power who acted against the change initiative had been corrected', if deleted, would substantially increase Cronbach's α from .65 to .73. Furthermore, the analysis revealed a particularly low correlation of this item with the sum of the other items (r = -.005), weak intercorrelations, as well as an inadequate amount of variance explained in other items (R2 = .36) (see Table 27 for inter-item correlations of the subscale assessing leadership communication after change implementation).

Table 27. Inter-Item Correlations of Subscale Assessing Leadership Communication After Change Implementation.

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. The behaviour of staff in positions of power who acted against the change initiative had been corrected.	1							
2. The leaders of change brought in additional staff and resources to assist with the transformation.	.26	1						
3. The leaders of change did a good job of planning, organising and implementing specific changes in support of our transformation.	.30	.32	1					

4. I felt that our organisational structure, appraisal system and culture were all coordinated in support of our transformation.	-.015	.31	.37	1				
5. I saw managers and supervisors exhibiting new behaviours in line with the new vision.	-.36	.064	.13	.37	1			
6. I saw my colleagues exhibit new behaviours in line with the new vision.	-.20	.31	.27	.39	.66	1		
7. This change transformed the organisation to a better place for staff and students.	-.063	.57	.44	.57	.37	.66	1	
8. Although the change was successful, I still believe that the change was not needed.	.011	.22	.38	.10	.081	.035	.10	1

Therefore, it was considered appropriate to exclude that item and repeat the reliability analysis. The internal consistency of the subscale improved and a Cronbach's alpha value of .73 was reported, but it was observed that the item 'Although the change was successful, I still believe that the change was not needed', if deleted, would increase Cronbach's α from .73 to .79. Results also indicated a low correlation of this item with the sum of the other items ($r = .22$), weak intercorrelations as well as an inadequate amount of variance explained in other items ($R2 = .19$) (see Table 28 for inter-item correlations of the subscale assessing leadership communication after change implementation).

Table 28. Inter-Item Correlations of Subscale Assessing Leadership Communication After Change Implementation.

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. The leaders of change brought in additional staff and resources to assist with the transformation.	1						
2. The leaders of change did a good job of planning, organising and implementing specific changes in support of our transformation.	.32	1					

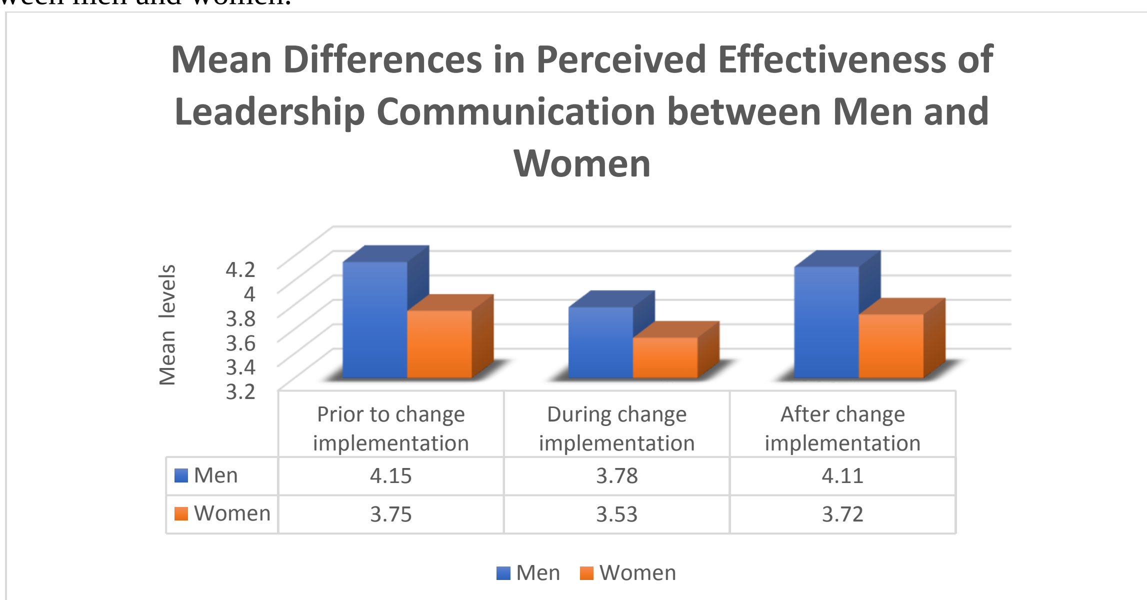
3. I felt that our organisational structure, appraisal system and culture were all coordinated in support of our transformation.	.31	.37	1				
4. I saw managers and supervisors exhibiting new behaviours in line with the new vision.	.064	.13	.37	1			
5. I saw my colleagues exhibit new behaviours in line with the new vision.	.31	.27	.39	.66	1		
6. This change transformed the organisation to a better place for staff and students.	.57	.44	.57	.37	.66	1	
7. Although the change was successful, I still believe that the change was not needed.	.22	.38	.10	.081	.035	.10	1

Consequently, it was decided to drop that item from subsequent analyses, and the reliability analysis was conducted one last time. Results revealed a Cronbach's alpha value of .79, satisfactory intercorrelations and correlations with the sum of items, as well as an acceptable amount of variance explained in all items. Therefore, the researcher proceeded with the examination of the assumptions for the statistical tests used.

Assumption testing. Prior to conducting inferential statistical analyses, the assumptions were assessed. Referring to the independent samples t-tests, normal P-P plots denoted normally distributed data in all dependent variables both for men and women, as well as for change implementers and participants. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was also met in all cases, as indicated by the Levene's test. As far as the one-way ANOVA is concerned, normal P-P plots denoted normal distributions in the three dependent variables for all age groups, and Levene's test revealed homogeneity of variance in all cases. Finally, the relationship of educational level and working experience with the variables of interest was investigated by the non-parametric Spearman's rho correlation analysis. The equivalent parametric Pearson's r statistical test could not be used because the prerequisite assumption of continuous variables was not met due to the ordinal measurement level of education and working experience.

Hypothesis 1. To examine if there is a statistically significant mean difference in the levels of perceived effectiveness of leadership communication between men and women across implementation stages, an independent samples t-test was conducted. A descriptive analysis indicated slightly higher mean levels of perceived effectiveness of leadership communication for men across implementation stages compared to women (see Figure 34 for mean differences in the levels of perceived effectiveness of leadership communication between men and women).

Figure 34. Mean differences in levels of perceived effectiveness of leadership communication between men and women.



However, independent samples t-tests revealed non-statistically significant mean differences in perceived effectiveness of leadership communication between men and women:

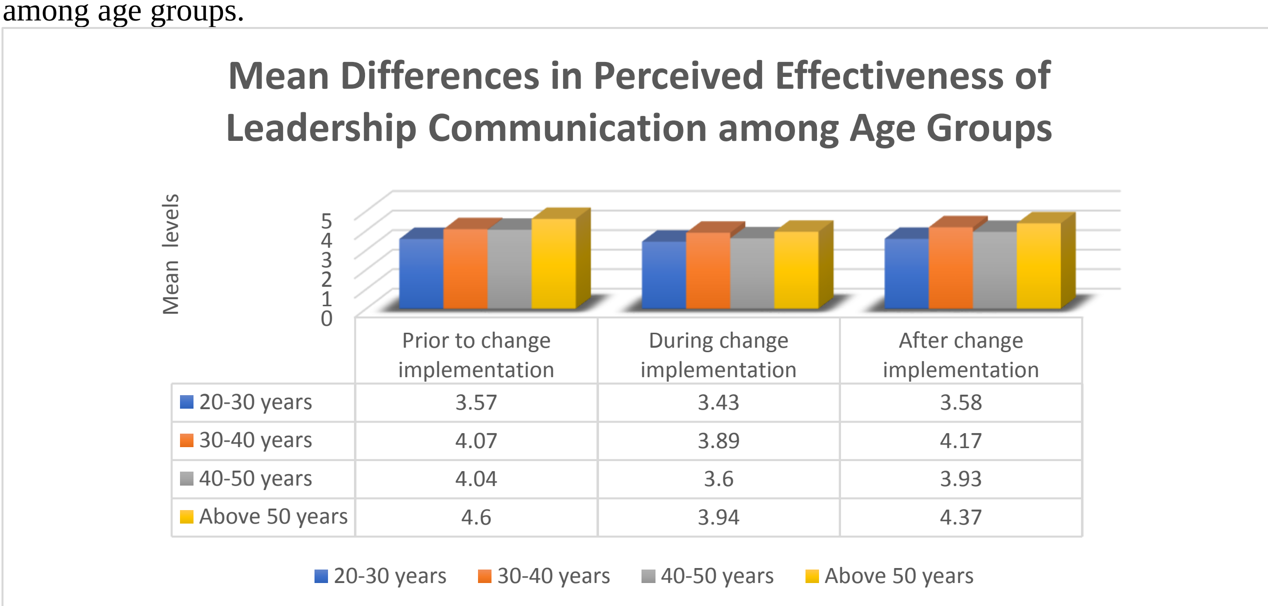
- Prior to change implementation, $Mdf = .41$, 95% CI [-.057, .87], $t(26) = 1.80$, $p = .083$, $d = 0.71$

- During change implementation, Mdf = .25, 95% CI [-.15, .65], t (26) = 1.30, p = .20, d = 0.51
- After change implementation, Mdf = .39, 95% CI [-.060, .85], t (26) = 1.79, p = .086, d = 0.70.

Therefore, despite the higher mean levels of perceived effectiveness of leadership communication identified in men across implementation phases, those mean differences were not indicated as statistically significant. Thus, hypothesis 1 is not supported.

Hypothesis 2. To investigate if there are any statistically significant mean differences in the levels of perceived effectiveness of leadership communication among age groups, a one-way ANOVA was used. A descriptive analysis revealed that individuals who were older than 50 years had more positive attitudes about the effectiveness of leadership communication across implementation phases compared to the rest of the age groups (see Figure 35 for mean differences in levels of perceived effectiveness of leadership communication among age groups).

Figure 35. Mean differences in levels of perceived effectiveness of leadership communication among age groups.



	Prior to change implementation	During change implementation	After change implementation
20-30 years	3.57	3.43	3.58
30-40 years	4.07	3.89	4.17
40-50 years	4.04	3.6	3.93
Above 50 years	4.6	3.94	4.37

A one-way ANOVA indicated a statistically significant effect of age on the perceived effectiveness of leadership communication prior to change implementation, $F\ (3, 24) = 4.65$, $p = .011$, $\eta p2 = .37$. Particularly, Hochberg's post hoc test revealed significantly higher mean levels in individuals older than 50 years compared to those aged 20–30 years, $Mdf = 1.03$, 95% CI [.22, 1.83), $p = .008$. It should be noted that Hochberg's post hoc procedure was selected because it is recommended in instances with unequal group sizes, as in this case (Field, 2013). Nevertheless, a non-statistically significant effect of age on perceived effectiveness of leadership communication during change implementation was reported, $F\ (3, 24) = 1.89$, $p = .16$, $\eta p2 = .19$, while a statistically significant effect of age on perceived effectiveness of leadership communication after change implementation was identified, $F\ (3, 24) = 3.06$, $p = .048$, $\eta p2 = .28$. However, Hochberg's post hoc test did not reveal any significant mean differences among age groups. Consequently, although individuals older than 50 years reported more positive attitudes towards the effectiveness of leadership communication across implementation stages, significant mean differences were denoted only before the implementation of transformational change. Therefore, hypothesis 2 is partially supported. The different perceptions of effective communication between the young and old could be due to their involvement in the change at different stages. The young are probably new hires in low positions who were not very involved in planning and implementing the change. The less involvement, the less communication received by this group compared to older staff, which explains the scoring.

Hypothesis 3. A Spearman's rho correlation analysis was conducted to identify if there is a statistically significant relationship between educational level and perceived effectiveness of leadership communication across implementation stages. Results indicated:

- A statistically significant relationship between educational level and perceived effectiveness of leadership communication prior to change implementation, rs (26) = .44, p =.020.
- A non-statistically significant relationship between educational level and perceived effectiveness of leadership communication during change implementation, rs (26) = .20, p =.32.
- A non-statistically significant relationship between educational level and perceived effectiveness of leadership communication after change implementation, rs (26) = .30, p =.12.

Consequently, it was indicated that individuals with more education perceived the effectiveness of leadership communication prior to change implementation more positively. Nevertheless, non-significant relationships were identified during and after implementation stages, so hypothesis 3 is partially supported.

Hypothesis 4. A Spearman's rho correlation analysis was conducted to identify if there is a statistically significant relationship between working experience and perceived effectiveness of leadership communication across implementation stages. Results indicated:

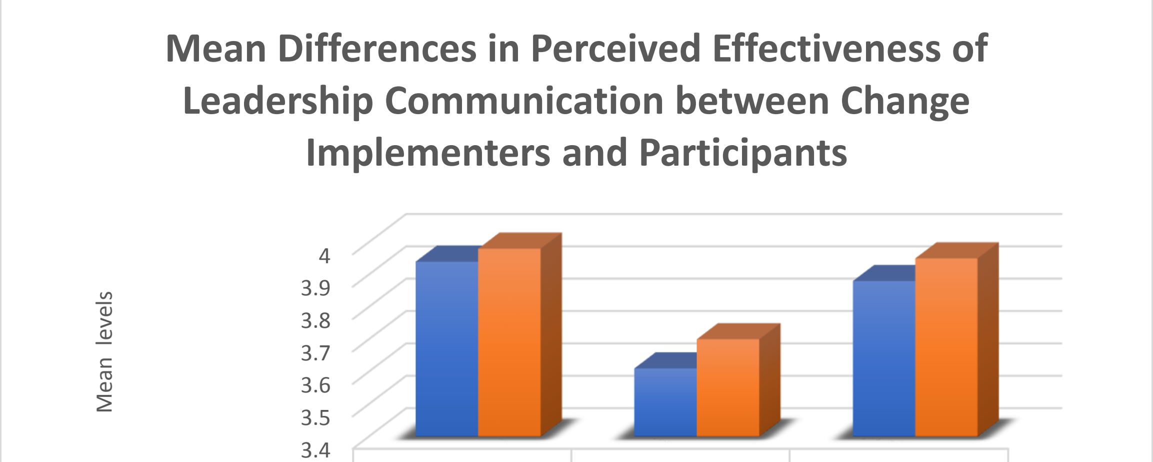
- A non-statistically significant relationship between working experience and perceived effectiveness of leadership communication prior to change implementation, rs (26) = .14, p =.47.
- A non-statistically significant relationship between working experience and perceived effectiveness of leadership communication during change implementation, rs (26) = .20, p =.32.

- A non-statistically significant relationship between working experience and perceived effectiveness of leadership communication after change implementation, rs (26) = .12, p =.55.

Therefore, hypothesis 4 is not supported.

Hypothesis 5. To examine whether there is a statistically significant mean difference in levels of perceived effectiveness of leadership communication between change implementers and participants across implementation stages, an independent samples t-test was conducted. A descriptive analysis indicated slightly higher mean levels of perceived effectiveness of leadership communication for change participants across implementation stages compared to change implementers (see Figure 36 for the mean differences in levels of perceived effectiveness of leadership communication between change implementers and participants).

Figure 36. Mean differences in levels of perceived effectiveness of leadership communication between change implementers and participants.



	Prior to change implementation	During change implementation	After change implementation
Change implementers	3.94	3.61	3.88
Participants	3.98	3.7	3.95

However, results indicated non-statistically significant mean differences in perceived effectiveness of leadership communication between change implementers and participants:

- Prior to change implementation, Mdf = -.038, 95% CI [-.55, .47], t (26) = -.15, p = .88, d = -0.06
- During change implementation, Mdf = -.094, 95% CI [-.52, .33], t (26) = -.45, p = .66, d = -0.18
- After change implementation, Mdf = -.070, 95% CI [-.57, .43], t (26) = -.29, p = .77, d = -0.11.

Consequently, despite the higher mean levels of perceived effectiveness of leadership communication identified in change participants across implementation phases, the mean differences were not statistically significant. Thus, hypothesis 5 is not supported.

Summary

The results indicated that men and staff with a participatory role during the change initiative held more positive attitudes towards the effectiveness of leadership communication across implementation stages compared to women and change implementers, respectively. However, those differences did not emerge as statistically significant. Moreover, individuals who were older than 50 years considered leadership communication before and after change implementation significantly more effective compared to the rest of the age groups. Nevertheless, non-significant differences were identified during the implementation phase. Lastly, individuals with more education were more favourable towards leadership communication only prior to change implementation, whereas non-significant relationships between working experience and attitudes towards leadership communication were revealed (see Table 29 for the research hypotheses and corresponding results).

Table 29. Research Hypotheses and Corresponding Results.

Hypotheses	Status
1. There will be significant mean differences in perceived effectiveness of leadership communication between men and women across implementation stages.	Not supported
2. There will be significant mean differences in perceived effectiveness of leadership communication among age groups across implementation stages.	Partially supported
3. There will be a statistically significant relationship between educational level and perceived effectiveness of leadership communication across implementation stages.	Partially supported
4. There will be a statistically significant relationship between working experience and perceived effectiveness of leadership communication across implementation stages.	Not supported
5. There will be significant mean differences in perceived effectiveness of leadership communication between change implementers and participants across implementation stages.	Not supported

However, conclusions should be drawn carefully, as certain methodological limitations were present. Specifically, a non-probability purposive sampling was collected, so generalisations to the population of interest should not be attempted. A small sample size was also obtained (N= 28), and it might be argued that it is not sufficient in terms of the statistical power and statistical significance to be achieved. However, the above observations should not undermine the value of the data analysed and presented, as even descriptive analyses can be useful in formulating transformational guidelines.

4.3 Interview Analysis

This part of the study used interviews for the qualitative methodology. The in-depth interviews used narrative inquiry to better understand the change experience of five staff members from both the academic and non-academic divisions of the university. The main purpose of using interviews in this study is to validate and triangulate the data collected via questionnaires. In addition, the interviews help the researcher gain a more in-depth understanding of the phenomena under study and highlight change success factors that were not captured by the survey. Seidman (2006) wrote that interviewing offers the opportunity to make meaning out of personal experiences. He argued that interviewing 'is deeply satisfying to researchers who are interested in others' stories' (Seidman, 2006, p. 14). The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed.

The researcher analysed the data using Smith, Flowers and Larkin's (2009; 2013) six-step process: In step one, the researcher reads and re-reads for codes in an effort to identify the structure and meaning aspects of the experience with change. In step two, the researcher starts the initial noting, and in step three, the researcher starts developing emergent codes. In step four, the researcher searches for similarities and differences across emergent codes, and in step five, the researcher moves to the next transcript. Finally, in step six, the researcher looks for similarities across codes to form categories and to form patterns (see table 30 for coding process sample).

Table 30. Coding Process Sample Page

Participants' Transcripts	**Narratives**	**Codes**	**Categories**	**Themes**
P2-Q5	Open and Democratic management style	Democratic	Management style Leadership style	
P2-Q5	Open and encourage all opinions	Competent		
P1-Q5	chancellor is competent	experienced		
P2-Q5	long experience in directing	trusted		
P4-Q5	trusted his employees	maestro		
P3-Q5	a musician maestro			
P3-Q5	very transparent in his management style			
P3-Q5	Supports his management team			
P3-Q5	encourages autonomy			
P5-Q5/P3-Q5	open-door			

P4-Q5	Very professional			
P4-Q5	Share and participate			
P1-Q4	full information about the university vision and mission	clear vision	Vision Communication mission communication	
P4-Q4	The chancellor offered continuous meetings and workshops on the new university vision and mission	clear mission		
P5-Q4	staff in formulating the university vision and mission	Staff involvement		
P2-Q4	received clear and full information about the university vision			
P2-Q4	we all worked in coming up with the new vision			
P3-Q6/P4-Q6/P5-Q6	excellent two-way communication	communication		
P3-Q6	open to all ideas and opinions	clear		
P5-Q6	Open-door	timely		
P5-Q4	quality and timely information			

Interview Demographics Data Analysis

The demographic data will be presented for the five interviewees as a group to avoid the risk of revealing the identity of the participants because of the small population of the university. The participants have worked at the university between 1 and 12 years. However, they have been working under the leadership of the chancellor between 1 and 1.5 years. The chancellor joined UoF in February 2016 and managed to turn the college into a university in June 2016.

Interview Themes

The transcript and analysed interview data of all five participants revealed eight major themes: 1) leadership style, 2) change communication, 3) change announcement, 4) vision, 5) combating resistance, 6) implementation plan, 7) benefits and 8) lessons. Each theme is presented below.

Leadership Style

Leadership style is the focus of this study, so when interviewees were asked to describe the leadership style of their chancellor, they all agreed on two words: ‘open-door’. They admired his open-door policy and his ease of communication as well as other qualities such as being knowledgeable, participating and encouraging autonomy. They all agreed they had nothing to dislike about his management style. Although none of the participants described the chancellor as a transformational leader, they all agreed that he had the will to change and the knowledge and experience of transforming colleges to universities. Below are quotes from interview participants:

> *PR2. He has an open and democratic management style. He is open and encourages all opinions. The chancellor is competent in both aspects of the university: the academic and non-academic sides. He also has long experience in directing colleges. There is nothing to dislike about his management style. The chancellor trusted his employees to carry out and implement the change in their own departments. He encourages autonomy.*

> *PR3. I would describe him as a musician maestro who runs the college without micro-managing. He is very transparent in his management style; he supports his management team and encourages autonomy. He follows an open-door policy with all, staff and students alike. He is very knowledgeable about quality management in higher education. No, I don’t have anything to dislike about his leadership style.*

> *PR4. He is very professional in his dealings and knowledgeable about transforming a college into a university. He shares and participates in all committee meetings,*

sometimes as a leader, other times as a member. There is nothing to dislike about his management style.

Change Communication

When the participants were asked to describe the change communication of their chancellor, they all agreed they received quality and timely information about the change. They all described the communication before, during and after the change as adequate and satisfactory. The participants had different opinions on the best channel to use for change communication. Three preferred face-to-face communication while two preferred emails. Below are quotes from interview participants:

> *PR1. It was open door, two-way communication between staff and management. Yes, we had quality and timely information about the change before it started. We were also kept informed of the change plan progress through frequent meetings. The communication used different channels. One channel was meetings, which I prefer over emails because in meetings you can voice your opinions and concerns.*

> *PR3. Two-way communication. The chancellor is open to all ideas and opinions that help make the university a better place for all its stakeholders. I prefer meetings when communicating to discuss and resolve issues on the spot.*

> *PR5. Open-door, two-way communication. He offered opportunities for everyone to speak their minds and voice their concerns. I prefer using emails for documentation purposes.*

Change Announcement

Kotter (1996) spoke about the importance of creating a sense of 'urgency' with staff to understand and support the university's need for change. When the researcher asked the participants about how they first heard about the change, most of them said they heard about it when they joined the university but learned about it in a formal meeting as soon as top management decided to start the change process. The participants all knew why the college needed to change, mainly to stay competitive in the market. Below are quotes from interview participants:

> *PR1. I heard about it in a formal meeting, where the top college management gave us full details about the plan. During the meeting, we started to formulate small committees to implement the plan and to enhance its integration in the local community, to offer quality education and to fulfil a need in the market. In addition, it's important to the survival of the university. The college had difficulties enrolling students for its bachelors' programmes because students did not want to study at a college.*

> *PR2. Since I started working, I knew the college was planning to change to a university. I felt very happy when I heard this because by becoming a university, new majors and graduate degrees can be offered. The first and main reason was that the Ruler (Fujairah Emirate Ruler) wanted a university with the name of the Emirate Fujairah. Secondly, he wanted to be able to offer new majors. Thirdly, he wanted to attract new Fujairah students who applied to other universities in other Emirates. Finally, he wanted to upgrade the college infrastructure to offer quality education.*

PR5. In 2009, there were talks about changing to a university. Then again in 2016, I learnt about the plan to change during a formal meeting with the top college management. This was a step in the right direction as it had been a goal since the college was established.

Vision

Vision communication is critical to the success of change plans (Kotter, 1996). All five participants agreed that they received a clear communication of the university vision and mission. Two of them mentioned that the clarity could be attributed to their participation in formulating the new vision for the university. Below are quotes from interview participants:

PR2. The chancellor offered continuous meetings and workshops on the new university vision and mission. The chancellor included all college staff in formulating the university vision and mission as well as writing the college implementation plan. Yes, we received adequate, satisfactory and timely information.

PR4. Yes, the chancellor started offering orientation sessions about the change and the new vision to introduce the change plan to all staff.

PR5. Yes, we have clear and full information about the university vision as we all worked together to create the new vision.

Combating Resistance

The researcher was surprised to learn from the participants that in general they did not experience change resistance from their staff or their colleagues for two reasons. The first reason was top management offered the right number of orientation sessions and workshops to all staff about the need for change before starting the phase. Secondly, all staff was able to see how the change would benefit them. Below are quotes from interview participants:

PR2. I did not face resistance from my staff because they all were involved in coming up with the college's new vision, mission and plan to change to a university. The management team involved all college staff in orientation meetings to make sure they understood the need for change and supported the plan. Any change effort will face resistance, but the way management introduced the change plan through meetings and workshops reduced the staff resistance. The doubtful staff came along to support the change when they started seeing that the new way of doing business is better than the old way. The chancellor and vice-chancellor's attendance at all workshops also encouraged the staff to support the change.

PR3. No, I did not face any resistance from my staff with regard to the change as they know that change is not avoidable and change will bring positive outcomes to them and to the work.

PR4. I did not face resistance, but I had to deal with different points of view. Some staff were sceptical of the change as they have been hearing about it for a long time but there has been no real action plan. The new spirit that the chancellor brought with him changed people's thoughts and reactions towards the change plans.

Implementation Plan

When asked about facing any difficulties or surprises during the implementation plan, four of the participants agreed that they did not experience any difficulties because the implementation plan was well prepared and executed by top management and all staff concerned. Only one participant talked about difficulty with staff from different nationalities and backgrounds. Below are quotes from interview participants:

> *PR2. We did not have difficulties. The chancellor asked each supervisor/dean before the change implementation about their department's needs and made sure that they got what they needed to support the implementation plan. New qualified staff were hired and new technology systems were adopted to support the change.*

> *PR3. We did not face any difficulties implementing the change as it was well planned by the university management team.*

> *PR4. Having staff from different nationalities and backgrounds caused difficulty to implement the change at first because the staff had different thoughts about how to tackle things. We needed to learn about the UAE requirements to change from a college to a university. It took us a while to learn and adapt to the new ministry requirements.*

Benefits

The change experience from a college to a university benefited all college staff, as mentioned and explained by the interview participants. Besides knowledge sharing and developing staff skills via training, the participants talked about how the change experience strengthened their relationships with each other. Below are quotes from interview participants:

> *PR2. Yes, in a positive way. The change process highlighted the importance of knowing each one of your staff; what motivates them and what discourages them at*

work. Knowing your staff helps in getting them to reach their goals by pressing the right buttons. Yes, in a positive way. The chancellor's open-door policy helped in getting to know each other and work well together.

PR3. The relationship between the chancellor and me and between my department staff and me became stronger as we had to spend a lot of time meeting to plan, prepare and execute the change plans and review the progress.

PR4. Generally speaking, the relationship became better with time, despite having to deal with some difficulties in bridging the gap between different people's ideas and way of doing things. The relationship between the chancellor and me improved as we communicated more and more.

PR5. In general, the change plans and implementation helped in strengthening the relationship between the chancellor and me and between the department staff and me.

Lessons

Some participants, when asked if there is any information that they would like to share about their experience with the change, talked about the importance of hiring the right leader for change. They also spoke about the importance of having a supportive culture and using motivational language. In addition to the critical importance of giving and receiving feedback, celebrating wins and giving credit to staff accomplishments, PR2 talked about the supportive culture of the university and the spirit of unity and teamwork that was shared by all staff. He said, 'We never competed against each other, we only competed to finish the assigned duties first'. He also talked about the importance of motivational language and convincing the staff of how the change will benefit them.

He discussed the chancellor and management team celebrating wins and giving constructive feedback on the change process. ‘Hiring the right people who will add value to the university and help in improving the university education experience to all staff and students. Hiring the right person for the job will ensure its success’. PR3 said, ‘Change requires strong will and taking risks from the leader to land a successful change’. PR4 said, ‘The size of the university helped in managing and implementing the change successfully. The open-door policy and university culture also were successful factors’.

The data analysis of the interviews explained and confirmed the data findings of the survey regarding the staff’s perceptions of their management’s communication before, during and after the change. The interviewees agreed with the survey findings on the clarity of management’s communication and on their preferred channel of choice. The survey result that showed low resistance to the change was explained by the interview participants as management presenting an excellent implementation plan. The survey analysis also showed staff’s general acceptance and support of the university change, which was also agreed upon by the interview participants. Therefore, the interviews triangulated and validated the survey data findings.

4.3 Discussion

There are many successful factors that led to the successful transformation from a college to a university in less than six months. Those factors are the result of the transformational leadership style of the chancellor and his effective communication before, during and after the change implementation process. The study findings confirm with the result of Covin and Kilmann (1990) study findings on successful and failure factors of organisation change. Covin and Kilmann conducted a study to find the many reasons for the failure or success of change programmes in organisations, and they found eight themes that emerged as having the most impact on results (see table 31).

Table 31. Factors Predicting Failure and Success of Change Programmes

Factors Predicting Failure	Factors Predicting Success
Top Managers Forcing change Behaving inconsistently Having unrealistic expectations Lack of enthusiastic support *Responsibilities* Misplaced or unclear Lack of openness to change Fear or anxiety about change *High Unresolved Uncertainty and Stress* About job security, pay, rewards, job evaluation, personal competency, social and work-related priorities *Lack of Good Communication* Poor communication Purpose/vision of programme unclear Lack of meaningful participation *Threats to Power* Political tactics *Organisational Structure/Resources* Role conflict and role ambiguity Status differences Reward structures Limited resources *Resistance Encountered* Active discouragement of change Non-use of change Ignorance of change Social influence against change Negative attitude about change	*Presence of Change Champion* *Top Managers* Demonstrated support for change *Willingness and Readiness for change* High value congruence *Good Communication* Establishing a clear vision/purpose Establishing legitimacy of programme Use of widespread participation Active solicitation of input Active dissemination of information *Effectiveness of Implementation Team* Availability of resources

Adopted from Lewis, L. (2011), Organizational change: creating change through strategic communication, p. 136.

All the success factors in this study are discussed below in light of the literature review and Kotter's (1996) eight step change model.

Transformational Leaders

According to Smircich and Morgan (1982), leaders define and shape their followers' work environment. Leaders are an important part of followers' immediate social environment, on which followers rely when making judgements about their work environment (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). The University of Fujairah chancellor is a transformational leader according to the MLQ survey results and the interview participants. Although the interview participants did not use the word transformational in their description of the chancellor's management style, their views about him fall under a transformational leader. According to novel findings of Warrick (2011), in contemporary organisational change or reforms, transformational leaders are key personnel, as this type of leader has abilities to reinvent the structure of organisations according to need. Hence, according to Antaraman (1993), transformational leadership works well in an environment that has undergone or needs to undergo a complete change. Transformational leadership is about changing the paradigm and therefore it focuses on creating and managing large-scale change (Sweeney & McFarlin, 2002). According to this theory, the transformational leader's goal is to change the status quo by promoting the idea of a greater good. That's what happened at UoF: the chancellor, through many orientation sessions, showed university staff the importance and benefits of the change to the college, to the students and to them. Transformational leaders exert their influence by transforming followers' attitudes, for example, towards the leader, the organisation or the job (e.g. Bono & Judge, 2003; Kark, Shamir & Chen, 2003). Social information transmitted by leaders has a powerful influence on employees' interpretations of their work experiences (Goffman, 1974; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Schutz, 1967; Smircich & Morgan, 1982). Herold et al. (2008) found that determinants of transformational leadership and subordinate commitment to peruse change are strongly related.

There are many benefits of being a transformational leader. Transformational leadership can influence followers' work outcomes, such as job performance, creativity and voice behaviour (e.g. Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009; Liu, Zhu & Yang, 2010; Walumbwa & Hartnell, 2010). For example, Liu et al. (2010) found that transformational leadership facilitates voice behaviour via enhancing employees' identifications; Walumbwa and Hartnell (2010) found that transformational leadership promotes performance via enhancing employees' identifications as well as self-efficacy; and Gumusluoglu and Ilsev (2009) suggested that transformational leadership influences employees' creativity by promoting psychological empowerment.

Moreover, transformational leaders recognise followers' individual needs and abilities and stimulate their intellectual development (Bass 1985; House 1977). Transformational leaders treat followers as individuals with their own needs and abilities (Bass 1985) and tend to focus followers' attention on improving their own skills rather than comparing themselves with others. In addition, this type of leader is seen to motivate subordinates to look at their work from new angles (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Baker, 2001; De Vries, 2001; Sweeney & McFarlin, 2002; Vecchio, 2002). Research has shown that transformational leaders provide meaning for the work the followers perform (Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway & McKee, 2007; Nielsen, Yarker, Brenner, Randall & Borg, 2008). Transformational leaders may encourage followers to actively increase their own resources, for example, by stimulating followers to think on their own and make their own decisions. Tims and Bakker (2010) argue that control over work is an important condition for employees to actively change their work environment to their benefit. UoF talked about the chancellor promoting staff autonomy. Transformational and transactional leadership behaviours influence the actual availability of followers' job resources. Tuckey, Bakker and Dollard (2012) showed that empowering leaders influence followers' work engagement because they positively influence their followers' cognitive job demands and job resources.

The UoF staff talked about the how the transformational change strengthens their relationship with their chancellor and with each other. According to Yukl (2006), transformational leadership is more effective because it is sufficiently powerful to establish long-term relationships between employees and employers. Transformational leaders are willing to listen to employees' complaints and needs. Transformational leaders can act as trainers, advisors and consultants (Yukl, 2006; Northouse, 1997). Bass and Avolio (1995) characterise transformational leadership as comprising four unique but interrelated behavioural components. These components include: (1) idealised influence, in which a leader influences followers by inspiring strong admiration, respect and loyalty and by fostering a collective sense of mission; this was evident in how the UoF staff talked about their chancellor with admiration; (2) inspirational motivation, in which a leader communicates high expectations, articulates a compelling vision for the future, shows followers how to achieve stated goals and expresses confidence in their ability to accomplish these goals; (3) intellectual stimulation, in which a leader heightens the attention of followers to problems and encourages them to view old problems from new perspectives; and (4) individualised consideration, in which a leader supports, mentors and develops followers. Leaders who are inspirational and have an intellectual stimulus have these characteristics and will undoubtedly be able to motivate employees to develop new methods in solving problems in an organisation (Northouse, 1997). Bass (1990) describes charismatic leaders as agents of radical change. The focus of transformational leadership is placed on what is accomplished rather than on the personal charm of the leader (Dubrin & Dalglish, 2003). It is known, for example, that leaders influence how followers interpret job characteristics (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). Transformational leadership involves communication of purpose that transcends followers’ short-term goals and self-interests, and stimulation and encouragement to perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1985).

Transformational leaders empower employees and enhance their feelings of self-confidence and control (Kark, Shamir & Chen, 2003; Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993). They transmit their belief in followers' abilities and skills and solicit creative solutions to meet work demands (Bass, 1985). Essentially, both empirical and meta-analytic studies on transformational leadership suggest that followers working with transformational leaders are more involved, satisfied, empowered, motivated, trusted and committed to their organisations (Bono & Judge, 2003; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler & Shi, 2004). Research indeed supports that transformational leadership is positively related to follower autonomy (Jung & Sosik, 2002; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). A charismatic leader is 'a person who arouses emotions in his people which motivates them to act beyond the framework of what may be described as exchange relations, of give and take' (Popper & Zakkai, 1994, p. 4). It is reasoned that by being a role model to employees, helping them to fulfil their potential by building their self-esteem, making them feel valued, encouraging them to think and providing them with hope, this type of leader will have a loyal and hard-working team of subordinates (De Vries, 2001; Dubrin & Dalglish, 2003).

Combating Resistance

Generally speaking, the UoF did not deal with strong staff resistance to change. The interview participants explained this phenomena as a result of employees' involvement in the change implementation from the start of the process. They were involved in coming up with the vision and they were involved in writing the change implementation plan. This early involvement by top management and their trust in their staff motivated the staff to work in support of the change by not resisting it.

Vision

Kotter (2012) said, 'vision plays a key role in producing useful change by helping to direct, align, and inspire actions on the part of large numbers of people' (p. 8). The UoF chancellor not only communicated a strong vision, but he also assigned all staff to come up with the university's new vision. This staff involvement helped in supporting the change initiative introduced by top managers. From Kantabura's conceptualiation, '[Strategic] vision is ultimately defined as a cognitive construction or specifically a mental model, a conceptual representation used to both understand system operations as well as guide actions within the system' (Kantabutra, 2008, p. 132). Westley and Mintzberg (1989) noted that '*How* the vision is communicated becomes as important as *what* is communicated' (Westley & Mintzberg, 1989, p. 19). Top leaders are focal interpreters who scan the environment to craft a strategic vision that is shared by, reduces uncertainty about and generates meaning for stakeholders (Daft & Weick, 1984). A similar view, that leadership visioning that is effectively communicated elicits improved organisational performance, was later asserted by Conger (1991). Accordingly, given the presumably strong overlap between vision, mission and collective sense of purpose, they are typically highly correlated in the empirical research and are often combined into one 'charisma' factor (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Such leaders serve as role models for perseverance and self-sacrifice to build morale, instil pride in followers and communicate confidence, which enables followers to achieve goals beyond expectations (Bass, 1985). The transformational leader is represented as having a vision and being ethical by promoting organisational values that include justice, freedom and equality (Dubrin & Dalglish, 2003). In addition, transformational leaders are perceived as having a conscience and selfless motives.

According to Ireland and Hitt (1999), effective strategic vision is based on an organisational purpose, which is well-articulated and thoroughly disseminated by top leaders. Such a well-communicated strategic vision also transmits key organisational values to enhance external stakeholder understanding and acceptance (Porter, 1996). Moreover, a superior organisational reputation that attracts more talented employees, builds their pride and draws external stakeholder support—has been hypothesised to be fostered by a well-stated strategic purpose vision (Dowling & Moran, 2012). Transformational leadership influences job satisfaction, and this is strengthened when the leader has a vision of the company mission and is supported by personnel who feel trust, admiration, loyalty and respect toward the leader (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990). Transformational leaders communicate an appealing vision of the future and show confidence in their followers' ability to contribute to the realisation of this vision (Seibert, Wang & Courtright, 2011). Therefore, inspirational visions crafted from strong values improve internal stakeholders' work lives (Berson, Shamir, Avolio & Popper, 2001; Dolan & Garcia, 2002).

Motivation

The UoF chancellor's involvement of staff in the new vision motivated the staff to work in support of the change goals. Indeed, leadership is generally acknowledged to involve influencing followers' motivation and moving followers towards collective goal attainment (e.g. Bass, 1990; Stogdill, 1950; Bryman, 1996; House, 1971). A study by Atkinson-Smith (2011) found that transformational leaders often assume the roles of 'promoting teamwork among staff, encouraging positive self-esteem, motivating staff to function at a high level of performance, and empowering staff to become more involved in the development and implementation of policies and procedures' p. 44). Transformational leaders demonstrate an extraordinary influence (Northouse, 2013) on followers to motivate them to perform beyond ordinarily expected outcomes, thus transforming both the followers and the organisation to a more desirable state. The existing leadership literature suggests that transformational leadership is one of the most influential approaches of leadership in this century (Antonakis, 2012; Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Thus, transformational leadership is 'the process whereby a person engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower' (Northouse, 2013, p. 186). Specifically, it involves intrinsic motivation of the leader and development of the follower (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Transformational leaders tend to prime a promotion motivational focus among their followers, so that followers become particularly sensitive to the presence or absence of positive factors and perceive their work in terms of its implications to goal achievement and growth. Tu and Lu (2013) explain that transformational leaders share personal morality and organisational ethics with their employees and, accordingly, the employees' intrinsic motivation becomes stronger and their organisational commitment increases. Intrinsic motivation highlights the long-term vision that unites team members (Chen, Farh, Campbell-Bush, Wu & Wu, 2013) by promoting innovative problem solving and better team performance. According to Gill et al., (2006), for the achievement of desired results, the quality of leadership can drive recognition, encouragement and motivation for followers. Transformational leaders contribute to employees' intrinsic motivation because they provide a meaningful rationale for their followers' work (Avolio & Yammarino, 2002).

Trust in Leadership & Commitment

The data analysis results showed that trust and commitment of UoF leaders towards the change led to their successful change implementation. Leadership trust can facilitate belief in the leader's integrity and acceptance of his or her influence in the workplace, which promotes affective reactions to the job itself among personnel (Braun et al., 2013). Leadership trust is directly affected by the leader because trust is naturally based on the interdependent leader–personnel relationship (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Podsakoff et al., 1990, 1996). Dolphin (2005) affirmed that ‘sound relationships can only be developed on the basis of trust and reliable information’ (p. 185). Leadership trust is commonly viewed as a social bond in which personnel have faith in their leader’s fairness, integrity and loyalty in the workplace (Podsakoff et al., 1990, 1996). Leadership trust helps increase job satisfaction, productivity and performance (Akdere et al., 2012; Vineburgh, 2010, p. 18). Trust is an important factor that supports the knowledge sharing process (Davenport & Prusak, 1998). Previous researchers have suggested that followers’ trust in their leader is one of the most important attitudes towards the leader and can serve as the underlying mechanism to ensure effective transformational leadership (Jung & Avolio, 2000; Kark et al., 2003). Previous empirical researchers have suggested that trust mediates the association between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour (e.g. Pillai, Schriesheim & Williams, 1999; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990; Zhu & Akhtar, 2014). The relationships among transformational leadership, employee job attitudes of organisational trust and organisational commitment and job satisfaction are well established in the existing literature (Agarwal, DeCarlo & Vyas, 1999; Hsu, 2006; Liu, Siu & Shi, 2010; Paine, 2007; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996; Tremblay, 2010; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang & Lawler, 2005; Yang, 2012). Levels of perceived job satisfaction, trust and loyalty have been identified as significant predictors of organisational commitment for business managers (Turnley & Feldman, 1999).

The UoF staff’s trust in their leadership encouraged them to commit to the change process. Their commitment to the change process was also due to them being involved in implementing the plan.

Commitment is a psychological state that ‘(a) characterizes the employee’s relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization’ (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). Organisational commitment, on the other hand, is ‘the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization’ (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 27). Research suggests that transformational frameworks have significant effects on the commitment of employees (Avolio et al., 2004). Previous studies have reported empirical results supporting the idea that change commitment is the antecedent of leadership trust (Neves & Caetano, 2009). The argument is that change commitment, influenced by leadership, commonly helps employees understand proposed changes and thus strengthens the attitude of respect for the leader (leadership trust). In addition, change commitment within the workgroup is present due to emotional cohesiveness (affective commitment), shared common interests (continuance commitment) and a sense of job outcome (normative commitment), which work together to enhance job satisfaction (Golden et al., 2008; Yang, 2012c).

Podsakoff et al. (1990, 1996), Dirks and Ferrin (2002) and Yang (2011, 2014) reported that leadership trust and change commitment played individual mediating roles in relation to the leadership–job satisfaction connection (Braun et al., 2013; Anwar & Ahmad, 2012). Trust has a positive effect on commitment in leadership (Zhu et al., 2013). Leadership trust generally refers to the psychological willingness of personnel to rely on the leader (Braun et al., 2013; Podsakoff et al., 1990, 1996), and the leader’s influence helps foster change commitment, promoting workgroup cohesiveness and mutual interest among members (Herold et al., 2008), ultimately leading towards improving job satisfaction in the form of pleasurable responses to work. Influential leadership encourages positive workgroup attitudes and the understanding of member needs, and thus motivates employees and improves job satisfaction (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Indeed, meta-analytic studies show that with transformational leadership, leadership trust and change commitment are statistically significant mediators of job satisfaction (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Transformational leadership helps uplift leadership trust and change commitment (Herold, Fedor, Caldwell & Liu, 2008). With this type of leadership, commitment to change generally occurs because of the employees' vital bond, where they can work together to accomplish specific change initiatives (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Similarly, job satisfaction is also associated with leadership trust (Braun et al., 2013) and change commitment (Golden, Veigad & Dino, 2008). Employees' perception of the leader's personal commitment to fairness in the workplace (leadership trust) as well as their acceptance of the leader's role in the implementation of change (change commitment) leading to the conviction that the leader is concerned with their common interests, which also leads to job satisfaction (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Yukl, 2013). A study by the Great Place To Work Institute found that employees enjoy working in an environment where they 'trust the people they work for, have pride in what they do and enjoy the people they work with' (Carroll, 2006, p. 1). Such positive work environments are typically characterised by open communication. Carroll further argued that employees trust their managers to the extent that they demonstrate honesty, transparency, genuine caring, support and a willingness to listen. More recently, the Edelman Trust Barometer (2012) also found that businesses that are more trusted 'treat employees well' and openly share information. Internal communication has also been shown to improve trust between employees and managers (Gavin & Mayer, 2005). As Chia (2005) affirmed, 'trust and commitment are by products of processes and policies which are designed to make the relationship satisfactory for both parties, such as open, appropriate, clear and timely communication' (p. 7). Ki and Hon (2007) concluded that 'trust is one of the main constructs used to measure a successful relationship between parties' (p. 422).

Team Spirit

One of the success factors at the University of Fujairah was the team spirit and unity among the staff to achieve the university change goals. The team spirit is part of the culture at the university and is supported by top management. The time, spirit and unity among the staff members of the university increased its sense of community. McMillan and Chavis (1986) defined sense of community as ‘a feeling that members have of belonging, a feeling that members matter to one another and to the group, and a shared faith that members’ needs will be met through their commitment to be together’ (p. 9). This definition has four core elements that capture expectations of individuals from their community and their feelings towards it. The first element is membership. Individuals have feelings of belonging or of sharing a sense of personal relatedness when they become a member of a community. Membership is the ‘feeling of acceptance by the group and a willingness to sacrifice for the group’ (McMillan & Chavis, 1986, p. 19). The second element is influence. It refers to a sense of mattering, of making a difference to a group, and of the group mattering to its members. It taps into issues of power that members can influence community and community can influence members. The third element is integration and fulfilment of needs. This is the notion that members feel their needs will be met by the resources received through community membership. The final element is shared emotional connection. This is the commitment and belief that members have shared and will share history, common places and time. Many researchers have adopted this concept of sense of community because it has a viable theoretical base and found empirical support in various settings (e.g. Burroughs & Eby, 1998; Obst & White, 2004; Rovai, 2002). Burroughs and Eby (1998) argued that through a sense of community, members recognise that ‘the organization represents a vehicle through which individual needs can be met and that members see themselves as part of a larger network of relationships. (p. 513).

In workplaces, the elements of sense of community thus focus on whether the members of an organisation honestly communicate and have deep relations with one another and whether the organisation serves as an important place for meaning, growth and connection for workers (Burroughs & Eby, 1998). Several studies have examined sense of community in workplaces. Klein and D'Aunno (1986) identified the workplace as relational community and proposed that a member's sense of community could be determined by employee characteristics (how long employees worked for their employer), job characteristics (autonomy, skill variety), and supervisor/management characteristics (feedback, participative decision making). They argued that these characteristics would affect members' perceptions of community identity, their positive appraisal of workgroup, and thus, their motivation to become active members in the workplace community. Similarly, Pretty and McCarthy (1991) found both individual (e.g. gender, job status) and environmental characteristics such as peer cohesion, supervisor support and job involvement to be positively related to a sense of community among organisational members. Group norms are 'socially negotiated and contextually dependent modes of conduct' (Rimal & Lapinski, 2015, p. 394). From this perspective, as members more closely adhere to the norms of the community, their bond to the community increases (Sarason, 1974).

Past researchers have revealed that leadership style is the most vital determinant of team effectiveness and organisational performance (Burke et al., 2006; Carson, Tesluk & Marrone, 2007). Leaders' behaviours impact their teams' structure, working process and effectiveness (Burke et al., 2006; Carson et al., 2007; Hoch, 2013). Leaders need to encourage cooperation and build trust among members to ensure that they communicate and cooperate effectively as a team (Wang & Howell, 2010). Team members with intrinsic motivation consider themselves as a single body and share with each other their understanding of work tasks and how best to complete these, articulating many innovative ideas at every step of team-level work and, thus, increasing team effectiveness (Aryee et al., 2012). Transformational leadership helps team members to think outside the box, enabling them to visualise a much bigger picture and ensuring their commitment to the effective accomplishment of this vision (To, Tse & Ashkanasy, 2015). Transformational leadership encourages team members to be innovative in line with the team goals, consequently contributing to team effectiveness (Braun et al., 2013; To et al., 2015). Moreover, transformational leaders act as role models for team members by sharing creative ideas and knowledge to facilitate working cooperatively and efficiently (Aryee et al., 2012). Employees who consider their leader as their role model will seek to innovate and be proactive in sharing their ideas with the team, ultimately increasing team effectiveness (Pearce & Sims, 2002). Transformational leadership and Shared Leadership are important determinants of perceived team effectiveness (Braun et al., 2013; To et al., 2015). The transformational leader is more likely than leaders using other styles to emphasise that the team completes its task and commitments on time, making this the desired style of leadership for promoting better output (To et al., 2015). Besides, transformational leaders stimulate followers to prefer the interests of the group over their self-interests (Avolio & Yammarino, 2002). Group-focused transformational leadership is based on the idea of a collective leadership style, which suggests that effective leaders motivate their followers with the group as a collective, and their influences apply consistently across all members (Wu et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2013).

According to the input-process-output model (Mathieu et al., 2008), sharing task-relevant ideas and information among team members is a vital process for team innovation (Srivastava et al., 2006). The group engagement model argues that people engage in greater behavioural effort on behalf of the groups with which they identify as a way of maintaining or reciprocating the group's fulfilment of their social-identity-related needs (Blader & Tyler, 2009). The group engagement model explains that team members with strong social identities based on their team are intrinsically motivated to facilitate the success of their team (Blader & Tyler, 2009). Because their team is integrated with their self-concept, these individuals are inherently concerned about their team's welfare and are therefore likely to behave on behalf of the team's interests (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Individuals with a high level of identification with a team can develop a deep concern about meeting the needs of the team and advancing team goals (Blader & Tyler, 2009).

Therefore, when team members hold shared team goals, they are likely to invest a greater concerted effort in effective communication and smooth collaboration (Van Woerkom & Sanders, 2010), which stimulates them to share knowledge with each other. Team members working under conditions of high task interdependence and goal interdependence have to work together and need each other to achieve collective goals (Van Der Vegt et al., 2003). When team interdependence is high, greater communication and cooperation among team members are necessary for goal accomplishment (Liden et al., 2006). In this condition, team members believe that goal attainment by other team members facilitates movement towards their own individual goals (Van Der Vegt et al., 1999). Conversely, if team interdependence is low, there is no need for them to work together or to communicate with each other (Kratzer et al., 2006). Positive interdependence has been found to be related to strengthened mutual relationships (Van Der Vegt et al., 1999).

Individualism

The LMX theory argues that because leaders have limited time, attention and resources, they usually assign varying roles to subordinates and treat them differently (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Zhang et al., 2014). Hersey et al. (2001) specifically suggest that effective leaders vary their behaviours based on followers' individual differences and contextual factors, resulting in differentiated leadership for team members. Individual-focused transformational leadership behaviours aim to empower individual followers to develop their full potential, enhance their abilities and skills and improve their self-efficacy and self-esteem (Wang & Howell, 2010). Individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation, the other two components of transformational leadership, appear to focus more on individual needs, potentials and capabilities (Kark & Shamir, 2002). These two components are expected to build strong connections between the leader and each member, and leaders tend to focus on each follower as a unique individual rather than the follower group as a whole (Wang et al., 2012). Jiang et al. (2015) extend this finding by showing that displaying varying levels of individual-focused transformational leadership to different members within a group has negative effects on team knowledge sharing and team innovation. Jiang et al.'s (2015) findings resonate with Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1995) contention that leaders should develop high-quality relationships with all followers to increase the perceptions of fairness among employees and to enhance team effectiveness. Effective leaders should vary their behaviour on the basis of followers' individual differences (e.g. cognitive styles) and contextual factors (e.g. task structure) (Wu et al., 2010). However, leaders need to avoid behaviours that give one follower special attention while ignoring others (Wang & Howell, 2010). Hersey et al. (2001) specifically suggested that effective leaders vary their behaviours based on followers' individual differences and contextual factors, resulting in differentiated leadership for team members. Individual-focused transformational leadership behaviours aim to empower individual followers to develop their full potential, enhance their abilities and skills and improve their self-efficacy and self-esteem (Wang & Howell, 2010). During the interview with PR2, a dean and a change implementer talked about the importance of knowing each one of your staff and treating them differently. Balancing individuality while at the same time being fair to all is very important to the overall work environment.

Specifically, idealised influence refers to behaviours that develop a shared, energizing vision; such leaders manipulate verbal and nonverbal cues that reveal their beliefs, values, sense of mission and purpose and moral orientation (Bass, 1985). Inspirational motivation refers to behaviours that facilitate the vision implementation process. Such leaders serve as role models for perseverance and self-sacrifice to build morale, instil pride in followers and communicate confidence, which enables followers to achieve goals beyond expectations (Bass, 1985). Individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation, the other two components of transformational leadership, appear to focus more on individual needs, potentials and capabilities (Kark & Shamir, 2002). These two components are expected to build strong connections between the leader and each member, and leaders tend to focus on each follower as a unique individual rather than the follower group as a whole (Wang et al., 2012). Specifically, transformational leaders should show a keen interest in all team members to stimulate team knowledge sharing and team innovation. Otherwise, team members who are ignored by the leader may undermine the knowledge sharing and innovative performance of the team as a whole. These findings contribute to the ongoing discourse regarding the contradictory results of the relationship between transformational leadership and team innovation (Jiang et al., 2015). Leaders need to encourage cooperation and build trust among members to ensure that they communicate and cooperate effectively as a team (Wang & Howell, 2010). Effective leaders should vary their behaviour based on followers' individual differences (e.g. cognitive styles) and contextual factors (e.g. task structure) (Wu et al., 2010).

Knowledge Sharing

The UoF interview participants talked about knowledge sharing as one of the successful factors in the change process from a college to a university. Many previous studies, both quantitative and qualitative, have provided evidence that knowledge sharing has many benefits, such as increasing the innovation ability and accelerating the work performance of a team (Tsai, 2001; Dyer & Nobeoka, 2000; Darroch, 2005; Srivastava et al., 2006; Liao et al., 2007; Lin, 2007). According to Kamasak and Bulutlar (2010), knowledge sharing is inseparable from knowledge creation. Without knowledge sharing, knowledge will be underutilised (Srivastava et al., 2006). Past research also suggests that creativity of employees be influenced by elements of transformational leadership (Wang, et al., 2014). In the modern age, organisations focusing on transformational leadership approach have been identified as an organism of transforming and changing people's behaviour (Hall et al., 2008). This fact followed the inquiry of Tse and Chiu (2014), who identified that job performance of employees and supervisor's transformational leadership have a direct relationship.

A good working environment encourages knowledge sharing between its members (Politis, 2004). A leader who becomes a consideration source can create a good working environment. The UoF interview participants talked about the importance of having a chancellor who is an expert in transforming a college into a university. The chancellor's knowledge was the main source for the university staff during the change process. Gorelick, Milton and Apri (2004) state that a charismatic, powerful, symbolic, exciting and strong-willed leader who has a strong future vision will be the most suitable leader for developing and managing organisational knowledge as a primary resource. However, previous empirical research has supported the idea that a leader functions as a main factor in accelerating knowledge sharing in one organisation (Xue, Bradley & Liang, 2010; Singh, 2008; Srivastava et al., 2006). Bryant (2003) and Crawford (2005) believe that the transformational leadership style positively affects knowledge management, including knowledge sharing activities. Studies conducted by Xue et al. (2010) and Srivastava et al. (2006) reveal that an empowering leader positively impacts knowledge sharing. Moreover, Bryant (2003) explains that an effective transformational leadership style affects activities in sharing knowledge. The UoF chancellor used knowledgeable staff in certain subjects to further develop other staff's knowledge and skills. The university knowledge sharing through workshops and training sessions helped the university staff develop their skills to meet their change achievement goals. Knowledge sharing can occur through individual activities such as contributing ideas, suggestions, advice, information, experiences and skills to other team members in an organisation (Hoof & Ridder, 2004; Bartol & Srivastava, 2002; Davenport & Prusak, 1998). The UoF chancellor made knowledge sharing a biweekly activity that interested staff and students could attend. Knowledge sharing is key to successfully translating individual learning to organisational capability (Frey & Oberholzer-Gee, 1997). Interview participants talked about staff training as a tool in reducing staff resistance to change during the transformation from a college to a university. Research has shown that organisations that invest in employees are viewed more favourably by external audiences as being better employers (Gill et al., 2010).

Previous research centring on knowledge management (Massey et al., 2002), creativity and innovation (Gilson et al., 2005) has generally demonstrated that team knowledge sharing is an important team process that allows diverse expertise to be 'cross-fertilized' among team members for knowledge generation and creative work (Huang et al., 2014). According to the input-process-output model (Mathieu et al., 2008), sharing task-relevant ideas and information among team members is a vital process for team innovation (Srivastava et al., 2006). Team members are more likely to generate novel and creative ideas if they are able to access diverse knowledge and information by interacting with others (Huang et al., 2014). Knowledge sharing does not happen automatically in a team, and the team leader plays an important role in making it happen (Srivastava et al., 2006). Interactions may involve an exchange of information, ideas, materials or other resources (Saavedra et al., 1993). Deluga (1990) and Xue et al. (2010) also strongly emphasise that a transformational leadership style can establish emotional bonds between superiors and subordinates, which also encourages the behaviour and attitudes of employees to share knowledge However, Lam and Lambermont-Ford (2010) warn that knowledge sharing is difficult because it depends on the individual's willingness to share. However, individuals share knowledge when they have a strong sense of community at their workplace.

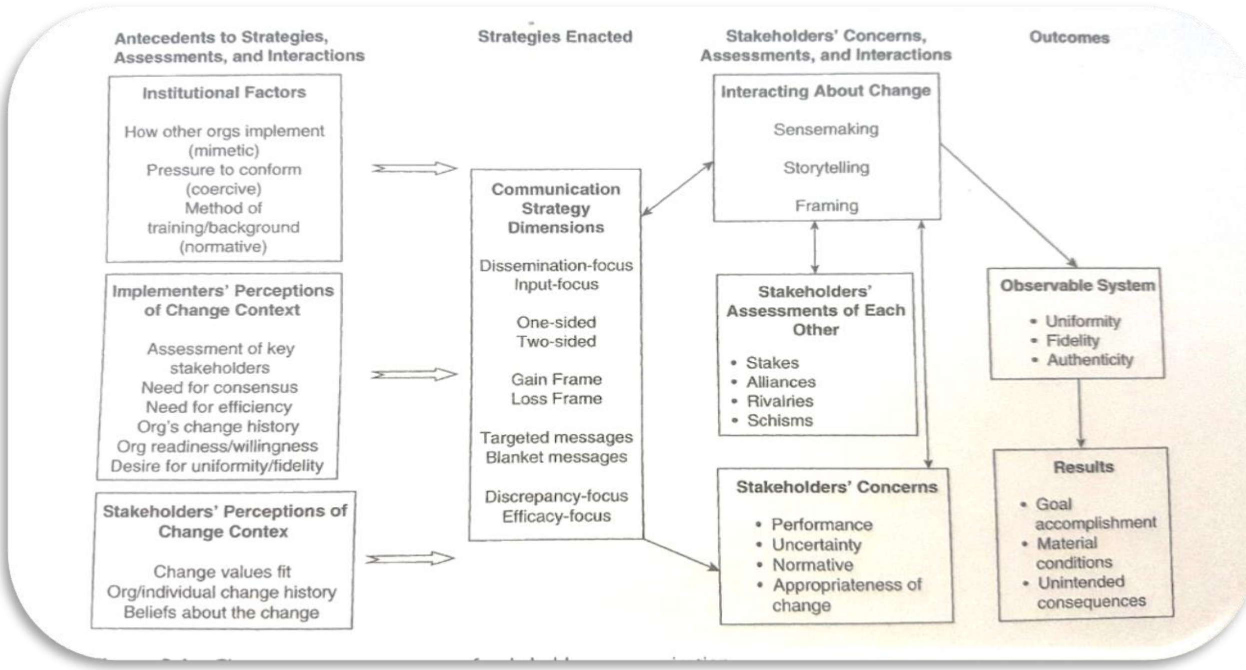
Leadership Communication

Leadership communication before, during and after the change implementation at the UoF was considered the first factor in reaching a successful change. All five interview participants talked about the two-way internal communication between the university leaders and staff. Internal communication is communication between the organisation’s leaders and one of its key publics: the employees (Dolphin, 2005). D’Aprix (2009) posited that ‘communication is the undoubted lubricant to prevent the corporate machinery from self-destructing from the friction of change’ (p. xxiii). Quirke (2008) noted that the role of internal communication is to ‘illuminate the connections between different pieces of information’ (p. xv), and its job is ‘to provide employees with the information they need to do their job’ (p. xv). Strong internal communication between university management and staff directed by the organisation's public relations or human resource professionals built trust and commitment with employees, which in turn lead to employee engagement (Mishra et al., 2014). Cameron (2012) observed that employees perform better in a work climate of emotionally supportive communication. Because the relationship between an organisation and its employees is affected by the quality and nature of the internal communication (Kim, 2007). The effectiveness of organisations, therefore, strongly depends on the internal communication quality (White, Vanc & Stafford, 2010). Communication is one critical factor influencing both trust and relationships, but in some cases 'management credibility and trust are under attack from confused and poorly integrated communications' (Quirke, 2008, p. 15).

Internal communication enhances a number of important bottom line outcomes for the organisation, including increased productivity and profitability (Gallup, 2012). Internal communication boosts productivity by streamlining organisational roles and duties (Benner & Tushman, 2003). Management scholars Thomas, Zolin and Hartman (2009) indicated, however, that 'when employees perceive that they are getting information from their supervisors and co-workers that is timely, accurate, and relevant, they are more likely to feel less vulnerable and more able to rely on their co-workers and supervisors' (p. 302). The data analysis in this study highlighted the importance of receiving quality and timely information about the change initiative. Several scholars have highlighted the positive influence of internal communication on employee engagement (Chong, 2007; Saks, 2006; Welch & Jackson, 2007). Kitchen and Daly (2002) argued that internal communication is crucial for both organisational success and for its day-to-day existence. This may be because internal communication can engage employees' 'intellectual and creative assets to produce value' (Quirke, 2008, p. xv). Kalla (2005) also maintained that integrated internal communications involved both formal and informal communication taking place at all levels in the organisation.

The data analysis in this study also revealed the importance of leaders' motivational language use during the change implementation. An increasing body of research is studying leadership by looking at language and approaching the phenomenon as an act of social constructionism (Alvesson & Kärreman, 2000; Fairhurst, 2007, 2009). Robinson (2001) said, 'Leadership is exercised when ideas expressed in talk or actions are recognized by others as capable of progressing tasks or problems which are important to them' (p. 93). According to Fairhurst (2008), this definition enables us to understand leadership as a process of influence and meaning management that advances a talk or goal, an attribution made by followers or observers, and a process, in which influence may shift and distribute itself among several organisational members. This is because individuals in leadership relations do not relate and then communicate; instead, they relate through communication (McDermott & Roth, 1978). However, motivating language is a measure of leader speech communication composed of three diverse forms of leader talk: direction-giving language, empathetic language, and meaning-making language (Austin, 1975; Searle, 1969; Sullivan, 1988). It is the strategic application of these forms of leader talk used with the intentional/deliberate tailoring of messages by leaders to the unique needs and personalities of their employees (Hindman et al., 2013) that positively and significantly improves follower/employee behaviours (M. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2016; Sullivan, 1988) as well as organisational outcomes (Holmes, 2012). Sullivan's (1988) motivational language theory asserted that a more versatile strategic leader language repertoire would serve to better engage, motivate, build commitment and create a shared organisational vision with workers, thus improving firm-level performance and quality of work life. Meaning-making oral language use is especially important during cultural sense making of employees (Weick, Sutcliffe & Obstfeld, 2005) and times of organisational change, for example, when new strategic initiatives arise. See figure 37 for more information on stakeholders' communication during change process.

Figure 37. Change Process in Context of Stakeholder Communication.



Adopted from Lewis, L. (2011). Organizational change: creating change through strategic communication. p. 87.

Results from numerous studies show significant and positive relationships between high leader motivational language and such critical organisational outcomes as employee innovation, job performance, self-efficacy, job satisfaction, effective decision-making, perceived leader effectiveness and leader communication satisfaction (Holmes, 2012; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2012; J. Mayfield, Mayfield, & Kopf, 1998; M. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2004, 2009, Sharbrough et al., 2006; Sun, Yang, Liao, & Wang, 2008; Wang et al., 2009; Zorn & Ruccio, 1998). Moreover, research has identified significant links between high motivational language use and lower costly employee withdrawal behaviours, including absenteeism and intent-to-turnover (J. Mayfield &

Mayfield, 2007, 2009). Results from the Mayfield et al. (2009) study indicate significant and positive relationships between motivational language theory and key organisational outcomes, especially between the oral messages of teachers and school academic performance. Wang et al. (2009) study found out that motivational languages positive relationship with a team's creative idea generation was supported in written leader communication. Direction-giving language also includes performance feedback, a key leader communication that improves goal attainment (Robbins & Hunsaker, 2012). As top leaders utilise clear and concise direction-giving language, employees are better able to understand their tasks and accomplish them more efficiently and effectively. Empathetic language refers to a leader's shared humanity and unconditional respect for the needs of others (Sullivan, 1988). With employees, it can be expressed by recognition, appreciation, even commiseration about the difficulty of working to attain a challenging goal or compassion regarding a personal setback (Miller, 2013). But as Lee Thayer (1968) aptly noted in his foundational work in this area, 'we can't afford to assume we understand all there is to be known about even the most elementary and obvious aspects of human communication. . . . If we do, there is no way for us to communicate very successfully about communication' (p. 5). However, as Watzlawick, Beavin and Jackson (1967) noted, 'One cannot *not* communicate' (p. 49). According to Hackman and Johnson (2013), for example, leadership may be considered a special form of communication that reflects who you are, how you act, what you do and how you work with others. Their synthesis of the literature leads the authors to define leadership accordingly: 'Leadership is human (symbolic) communication that modifies the attitudes and behaviors of others in order to meet shared group goals and needs' (p. 11).

Leadership Integrity & Credibility

Holmes et al. (2017) demonstrated that behavioural integrity and credibility are essential to a leader's use of motivating language (Hackman & Johnson, 2013; McCroskey & Teven, 1999; Simons, 2008). The Holmes et al. (2017) study found that there were statistically significant correlations between behavioural integrity and motivating language, credibility and motivating language, and between behavioural integrity and credibility. The Holmes et al. study illustrated the need for a walk and talk alignment (J. Mayfield, 2009; Simons, 2008), the importance of credibility (Crossland & Clarke, 2008; Hackman & Johnson, 2013; Kouzes & Posner, 2011) and the importance of leader speech communication (Hindman et al., 2013; Holmes, 2012; J. Mayfield, 2009). One vital and precursory element necessary for effective leader talk is the alignment between a leader's talk and a leader's walk (Crossland & Clarke, 2008; J. Mayfield, 2009; Simons, 2008); in other words, between a leader's speech communications and a leader's behaviours and actions. If the organisation's employees perceive their leaders' actions contradicting their talk, they will ignore the leader talk and focus primarily on the leader walk or actions (J. Mayfield, 2009; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2007; M. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009). Therefore, leaders' integrity is critical in organisational success. Simons (2008) defined behavioural integrity as, 'keeping your words lined up with your actions keeping promises and living by the same values you talk about—seamlessly. It means being seen as living by your word' (p. 5). The behavioural integrity definition stems from the concept of integrity as walk and talk alignment (Audi & Murphy, 2006; Palanski & Yammarino, 2009). Thus, behavioural integrity has two key elements: (a) word and action alignment and (b) keeping your promises and living by the values you articulate (Simons, 2008) even if those values and promises are not appropriate [moral] by societal, organisational or personal standards (Simons, 1999).

Moreover, Hackman and Johnson (2013) as well as Richmond, McCroskey and McCroskey (2005) asserted credibility is about the believability of leaders and is foundational to leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2011). Crossland and Clarke (2008) remarked, 'Your voice [as a leader] and credibility are inseparably linked' (p. 133). Source credibility [is viewed] primarily as a tool for a communicator to use; if you have credibility with an audience, you will influence the audience; if you do not have credibility with them, you tend to have a relatively minimal impact. (p. 24). Credibility deals with source credibility (McCroskey & Teven, 1999) and focuses on a leader's competence [expertness], their trustworthiness [character] and their goodwill [caring] as the dimensions of source credibility (McCroskey & Teven, 1999; Myers & Martin, 2015). McCroskey (1998) reported that leaders can rate higher in one of the dimensions than others but for source credibility to be [truly] effective [and to be seen as credible], leaders must rate high in all three dimensions.

Communication Channels

The current study's data analysis reveals that most study participants prefer face-to-face communication over electronic communication. Face-to-face communication is considered the richest form of communication with employees because it has the greatest potential for resolving ambiguity and uncertainty (Daft, Lengel & Trevino, 1987). Quirke (2008) and D'Aprix (2009) define face-to-face communication as a combination of information and interaction, noting as well that it is the most valuable technique for providing credible communication. Cheney (1999) also observed that face-to-face communication is considered more reliable than written communication in a business context because it provides greater information to the other party. Face-to-face communication, for example, includes verbal cues such as tone of voice and nonverbal cues such as body language and facial expressions. While studies have suggested that face-to-face communication is more credible (D'Aprix, 2009; Quirke, 2008), there may be times and circumstances in which employees prefer to receive certain types of information via the intranet or company newsletters. Although the majority of UoF staff prefers face-to-face communication, especially small or large meetings, some staff prefer emails for documentation purposes.

Cultural Sensitivity

The University of Fujairah, like any other organisation in UAE, employs staff from different countries and backgrounds. They have eight nationalities working for them. The study data analysis highlighted some difficulties in managing staff from different cultures. However, recent research suggests that managerial attitudes, beliefs, behaviours and ongoing effectiveness are different across cultures and that these differences call for differences in management practices (Newman & Nollen, 1996; Klein, Waxin & Radnell, 2009; Duyar, Aydin & Pehlivan, 2010). It is essential, therefore, that leaders of multicultural employees be aware of potential difficulties and be open-minded and interested in the different national cultures of workers (Fish, Bhanugopan & Cogin, 2008). Despite all the cultural differences in a workforce, leadership behaviour ideally should result in all employees being motivated and committed to their workplace (Amagoh, 2009). Hence, in organisations with a multicultural workforce, there can be either innovative creativity due to different ideas and points of view or conflict, frustration and stress due to poor management (Dadfar & Gustavsson, 1993; Parvis, 2003; Suliman & Abdulla, 2005; Stahl, Maznevski, Voight & Jonsen, 2010). Differences in leadership styles often cause frustration and conflict in multicultural organisations, and the result can be disastrous for both the manager and the organisation (Gabrielsson, Darling & Seristo, 2009). Because supervisor–subordinate relationships impact the performance of organisations (Butler 2009), it is essential for leaders to understand what their multicultural subordinates expect of them. Cultural conditioning challenges the idea of universal management practices because organisational values, beliefs and norms vary across countries (Klein et al., 2009). Managerial attitudes, beliefs, behaviours and effectiveness are different across cultures, and these differences call for differences in management practices according to context (Newman & Nollen, 1996; Duyar et al., 2010). 'A multicultural leader is a leader with the skills and attitudes to relate effectively to, and motivate people across race, ethnicity, social attitudes, and lifestyles . . . the leader must be aware of overt and subtle cultural differences' (Dubrin & Dalglish, 2003, p. 406). Consequently, internal stakeholder buy-in to cultural beliefs (such as oral language practices) support a strong organisational culture that research shows to be linked to higher organisational performance through employee retention, performance, loyalty and organisational commitment (Robbins & Judge, 2012). More specifically, we analyse how particular leadership communication styles may either exacerbate or resolve some of the problems associated with working in intercultural groups in diverse organisational settings (Earley & Gibson, 2002; Earley & Mosakoski, 2000; Jehn et al., 1999; Ravlin et al., 2000). The five communication styles then included (a) decisive and task oriented; (b) involved others in decision-making process; (c) modest, compassionate, and supportive; (d) independent and self-reliant; and (e) status-conscious and procedural. The awareness of leadership as a dialogic skill can empower any group not only to deepen trust and understanding of the cultural 'Other' (Bargiela-Chiappini, 2004; Witteborn, 2011) but also to enable better joint decision making. High organisational performance arises from top leader communication via 'articulating values, metaphors, symbols, and concepts that guide the daily activity of creating value' (Dolan & Garcia, 2002, p. 103).

Fish et al. (2008) believe that in countries that rely on a largely expatriate workforce, recruitment costs are significant, so it is beneficial to organisations for employees to be motivated and remain with their organisations for the long-term. Managers need to be aware of the different views and attitudes of a multicultural workforce consisting of employees with a wide range of backgrounds and the effect that leadership practices have on them (Newman & Nollen, 1996; Duyar et al., 2010; Klein et al., 2009). This awareness has the potential to improve the behaviour (Shin & Zhou, 2003) and commitment of multicultural employees in organisations. When it comes to communication in multicultural organisations, studies have shown that moderately heterogeneous groups experience significant communication problems and do not reach their performance potential (Earley & Gibson, 2002; Earley & Mosakoski, 2000; Franklin, 2007; Jehn, Northcraft & Neale, 1999; Ravlin, Thomas & Ilsev, 2000). Previous studies have shown that cultural preferences for length of turns, pauses between turns, simultaneous talk or discrete turns specifically affect group performance and lead to communication difficulties (Clyne, 1994; Du-Babcock, 1999, 2005, 2006; FitzGerald, 2003; Graham, 1985; Scollon & Scollon, 1995; West & Graham, 2004; Yamada, 1992). However, the emerging communication scholarship on intercultural dialogue has adopted a working definition of the term as promoting ‘an open and respectful exchange or interaction between individuals, groups, and organizations’ (Ganesh & Holmes, 2011, p. 81).

4.5 Summary

The purpose of this mixed-method study was to describe the leadership style of two leaders of one university in UAE and determine the effectiveness of the leaders’ communication efforts during the implementation of change. This chapter presented the results, analysis and discussion of the study findings. Results of the analysis of research question one showed that the leadership style of the University of Fujairah chancellor and vice-chancellor was transformational leadership. Results of the analysis for research question two showed that the University of Fujairah staff members perceived communication from leadership as a means of ‘Creating a Climate for Change’ and ‘Engaging and Enabling the Whole Organisation’. The staff also indicated that they preferred small meetings when communicating change information. Chapter 5 will present the conclusion and recommendations.

Chapter Five: Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to describe the leadership style of two leaders of one university in UAE and determine the effectiveness of the leaders' communication efforts during the implementation of change. The main research question guiding this mixed-method study was: *To what extent does leadership style and change communication influence the success of organisational change?* To address the main research question, the following sub-questions were proposed:

1. What leadership style is the best to secure a successful organisational change?
2. Does effective change communication play a significant role in implementing a successful change?
3. What type of communication channel is preferred by staff in communicating change news?

The study used mixed-methodology to answer the above questions. The researcher used both questionnaires and interviews in its data gathering technique.

5.2 Key Findings

The study data analysis in chapter 4 presented the following major findings. With regard to question number one, the findings were that both the UoF chancellor and vice-chancellor were transformational in their leadership style. This transformational style helped them implement a successful change from a college to a university in less than six months. Effective communication before and during the change implementation of the university was evident as per the survey results and interviews. Communication during the change process was categorised as two-way communication with a chancellor who practices an open-door policy. UoF staff not only received clear and timely information about the change, but they were also involved in transforming the college to a university, from formulating a vision to writing the implementation plan. This finding answer question number two about the importance of effective communication in implementing a successful change. For question three, the majority of the staff prefer face-to-face small or large meetings as a communication channel.

Using a mixed-method to study change management proved a good strategy in this research as it helped to triangulate the data findings. Using qualitative research such as interviews aid in understanding the phenomena of change in a more in-depth way. However, using more than one quantitative instrument would have added more valuable insights and information to the study.

5.3 Implications

The results of this study found several implications. Before we state the implications, it is worth mentioning that the change at the Uof would most likely be referred to as a 'positive' kind of change where the intended change means more programmes, a bigger facility and new technology. The UoF change was perceived by staff as an opportunity to grow into a larger university offering competitive programmes. Because the change is about growth, that translated into more staff recruitment, leading to less staff resistance to the change. The UoF change is different from other changes in which organisational culture is threatened, where employees have to be sacked, where physical facilities are reduced and where key programmes must be eliminated. Therefore, management skills to manage a positive change may be different than skills to manage a challenging change. The study result is not meant to be generalised but to document an organisational change in which transformational leadership and effective communication were key to its success in the Middle East. The study implications are as follows:

1. Although the UAE business world is changing all the time, researchers still face difficulty receiving acceptance from employers to conduct studies because the culture of research is still very weak in the country, especially when employers are unsure of the research outcome. More effort should be made to spread knowledge about the importance of research to the country's economy.

2. The research about change management in the Middle East is considered a very sensitive topic by organisation leaders, and this view makes it hard for researchers to get approval to study the phenomena. The researcher in this study was given access to only questionnaires and interviews as means of data collection. Other forms of data collection such as observation and document analysis were not possible. Therefore, concerned government officials should promote this type of research and its benefit to the success of change projects.

3. The empirical evidence in this study was the best that could be obtained under the above-mentioned circumstances, which is not proof that the theory is substantiated but that it is reasonable approximation of how it might work in the culture of higher education in the UAE and under the circumstances of 'change' when the threat to the professional status quo is low.

4. The study findings revealed that both the chancellor's and vice-chancellor's leadership styles are transformational. However, credit for the successful change was mainly

attributed to the chancellor, which highlights the importance of hiring the right leader for the job. Being a transformational leader does not lead to successful change without prior experience, knowledge of how to change a college to a university and the will to do so.

5. It also shows the importance of human resources offering training to their leaders. Research has shown that leaders can be trained in transformational leadership (Barling, Weber & Kelloway, 1996; Dvir, Eden, Avolio & Shamir, 2002). Barling et al. (1996) designed a transformational leadership training consisting of five sessions. Managers in the training group were rated by their followers as more intellectually stimulating, charismatic and individually considerate five months after the training sessions compared with two weeks before the training and compared with the no-training control group.

6. Communication is critical to the success of any change initiative. The study confirmed the importance of communication before and during the change process. However, the study did not attempt to learn about the language that was used to make the communication effective.

7. Finally, the study findings revealed the positive effect of employee engagement in reducing staff resistance to change. Staff talked about their involvement in formulating the university vision, but the researcher is curious to know how the management succeeded in this area of the change.

5.4 Recommendations

After completing the data analysis and determining the findings, the researcher developed several recommendations as follows:

Recommendations for the Organisation under study:

1. Although the study findings confirm that leaders' communication was effective before and during the transformational period, the researcher would advise the management to focus on improving communication during the change sustainable stage as they continue to transform their organisation to a research university.

2. Some university deans talked about imitating their chancellor's approach to change with their own staff, and the university's top management should consider offering official training sessions on leadership style, communication and change management to interested staff.

Recommendations for Human Resource Professionals:

1. Internal communication is critical in achieving successful change initiatives. However, most leaders do not take a leadership communications course (Kowalski & Brunner, 2011) and often underestimate the need for communication (Kotter, 1995). Kowalski (2000, 2013) and Kowalski and Brunner (2011) indicated the importance of teaching oral communication skills and providing professional development to current leaders and giving explicit instruction to future leaders.

2. Managers working in a multi-cultural country like the UAE must have certain skills to help them manage a multicultural staff. Pless et al. (2011) wrote that few managers have had any sort of leadership training, especially about leading in a multicultural setting.

3. Motivational language use was a successful factor is this study. It is recommended that leaders receive training in this area. Mayfield et al. (2015) recommend that comprehensive motivational language theory training be conducted for the following reasons: (a) It is difficult to segregate strategic vision and related values from other forms of leader to

employee oral communication and (b) The benefits of motivational language at the organisational level have support from prior research and are expected to improve multiple organisational outcomes (Holmes, 2012; M. Mayfield & Mayfield, in press; Sharbrough et al., 2006).

5.5 Limitations

The study limitations are the factors that create the boundaries, expectations, reservations and qualifications inherent in every study (Castetter & Heisler, 1977 cited in Creswell, 2003). Limitations of the study refer to the researcher's difficulties with uncontrollable events that might affect the progress of the research and its outcomes. Kumar (2011) added that these uncontrollable events are usually related to resources, methodology or analysis. The first major limitation of this study was the lack of literature on resistance to change in the Middle East. Second, the results of this study are not necessarily generalizable to other higher education institutions in the UAE, Middle East and Arab World. Although the study results are limited to the university under study, the study results can be valuable information for leaders of colleges and universities who are planning to transform their institutions. The third limitation is that the UoF conducted its change more than six months ago. Even though this change is recent, because it occurred in the past, data collection relied on participants' ability to recollect the details associated with that change, including how they felt at the time of the change. Finally, although the study used a mixed-method to study the phenomena of change, the researcher used only one qualitative method, interviews. Using more than one qualitative method would have added more value to the data analysis and findings.

5.6 Scope for Further Research

1. The current study used a mixed-method approach to answer the study questions on leadership style and communication. However, Argenti showcases the strength of structured qualitative methods to capture the messy process of leadership communication (Smeltzer & Werbel, 1986; Waller & Conaway, 2011). Therefore, it is recommended to use a qualitative phenomenology study to get a more in-depth analysis about change communication in the Middle East and Arab world.

2. Empirical studies on leadership styles involving expatriate and national managers across cultures are scarce, particularly in the Middle East region. Leadership researchers have rarely done cross-cultural studies to learn the limitations of their theories (Ayman & Korabik, 2010). Therefore, it is recommended to conduct more research in this area.

3. More research is needed to study how leaders manage or mismanage change in their organisations in the Arab world and the Middle East. AlDossari (2016) wrote, ‘The need for more literature that helps Saudi Arabian organizations is essential to lead successful organizational change. Identifying leaders’ traits that can serve as a guidebook for change will help Saudi Arabian leaders succeed’ (p. 130).

4. Research should be conducted about how change leaders communicate their vision for buy-in. Little has been done to develop a model for *how* leaders communicate effective strategic vision (Kantabutra, 2008).

5.7 Concluding Note

The ultimate goal of this study was to document a successful change initiative from the Middle East to add to the literature. Unfortunately, there is not much information documented about change in the Middle East and the Arab world to help leaders and mangers manage their change projects. Haughey (2010) argued that there is a need for a gradual and continuous rise in project success rates, especially in developing countries where the situation is more alarming. According to Korrapati and Rapaka (2009), most of the projects succeed because of the managerial skills and leadership styles of project managers. Moreover, Bass and Riggio (2006) confirmed that transformational leadership behaviours may be ideal for project success in any culture, industry or settings. Belassi and Tukel (1996) and Young and Jordan (2008) argued that top management support is the most critical success factor in project success. Various authors have agreed on the necessity of top management support as an independent variable for accomplishing a project successfully (Dong et al., 2004; Jugdev, 2004; Jugdev & Müller, 2005; Murray, 2001; O'Brochta, 2002, 2008; Shenhar et al., 1997; Thamhain, 2004), while infrequent studies have investigated the interactive effect of top management support, especially in higher education projects of a developing country. Moreover, Ofer (2007) argued that top management support is the main ingredient in a 'project success recipe'. In addition, top management must avoid bias and should realise the importance of project success because it ultimately contributes to organisational success (Swink, 2000). Effective top management support gives confidence to the project managers to successfully execute their projects through effective leadership skills (Morgan, 2012).

Kuchler (2008) proclaimed that leadership has been the world's most debated topic by researchers. Lok and Crawford (2004) think that organisational success and failure depend on leadership capacity. Leadership has been discussed with different theories in the literature; however, transformational leadership is contemporary amongst them (Keegan & Den Hartog, 2004; Robbins & Coulter, 2007; Turner & Muller, 2005; Nixon et al., 2012). This study results also confirm that transformational leadership behaviours have long been considered an important factor for better performance in various organisations (Keegan & Den Hartog, 2004; Yang et al., 2011), Furthermore, Ergeneli, Gohar and Temirbekova (2007) emphasised that comparatively, transformational leadership theories are considered most effective because they have widened the scope of leadership theories by recognising the importance of emotional, symbolic and highly motivating behaviours. Moreover, they have the ability to appeal to the followers' minds and hearts directly and account for the results over and above ordinary leadership.

However, Bass and Riggio (2006) assert that every leader uses both transformational and transactional leadership. Moreover, Bass (1985, as cited in Yukl, 2006) argues that transformational and transactional leadership suggest different styles but that these styles are perfectly blended in a leader. Although every leader uses both transactional and transformational leadership to some extent, the most effective leaders use transformational leadership more frequently than transactional leadership. The Breevaart et al. (2014) study results confirm this and show that, in terms of work engagement, leaders are most effective on days that they show transformational leadership most frequently, followed by contingent reward, which is transactional leadership style. A transformational leader encourages others to work for the good of the organisation, searches for self-actualisation and generally invests workers with a sense of urgency (Dubrin & Dalglish, 2003). In summary, the image presented of a transformational leader is someone who transforms the organisation by raising people's awareness of the need for change and the rewards it will bring (Bealer & Bhanugopan, 2014).

On the other hand, communication is a topic frequently linked to leadership; however, the linkage is often limited to a view of communication as a strategic mechanism, or technique, to be used by leaders in efforts to achieve specific purposes (Ruben & Gigliotti, 2016). Recent scholarship has begun to re-examine the important relationship between leadership and communication (e.g. Fairhurst & Connaughton, 2014a, 2014b; Tourish, 2014). Thayer (2003) characterised communication as the ‘sine qua non’ of the behavioural sciences. A communication orientation allows us to better understand leadership as planned and unplanned, intentional and unintentional, shaped by both the leader and the follower (Ruben & Gigliotti, 2016). Recent scholarship goes so far as to suggest that leadership itself is co-constructed between the interactions of leaders and followers through communication (Barge & Fairhurst, 2008; Witherspoon, 1997) and notes that in the most basic sense, without followers there are no leaders (Ruben & Gigliotti, 2016). As a leader, you can never not communicate (Hackman & Johnson, 2013, p. 10). ‘Communication is important: without communication, there can be no motivation, no leadership, no productivity, and no organization’ (Goldhaber, Dennis, Richetto & Wiio, 1984, p. 335). Prior studies have found that managers’ internal communication with their employees motivates their subordinates to provide superior service to customers (Lowenstein, 2006). It is true that satisfied employees will in turn make external customers happy, which is the ultimate goal for every organisation (Kelleher, 2008). However, this study findings confirm with other studies discussed earlier that leadership style and effective communication are critical factors for successful change in organisations.

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APPENDIX 1-Study Site Permission Letter

From: Dr. Rifat
Sent: Wednesday, February 22, 2017 10:36 AM
To: Naeimah; amira.alnaqbi@hotmail.com
Subject: RE: FW: Doctoral research

Dear Amira
Sorry for the late reply.

We will be more than happy to host your research in the University of Fujairah.

You may consider this as official concent from UoF.

Kind regards
Dr. Rifat

APPENDIX 2- Mind Garden Permission Letter

For use by Amira Alnaqbi only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on February 20, 2017

mind garden

www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material for his/her thesis or dissertation research:

Instrument: ***Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire***

Authors: ***Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass***

Copyright: ***1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass***

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

APPENDIX 3- Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form

Thank you for participating in this research study on organizational change conducted by Ms. Amira Alnaqbi a doctoral candidate from The British University of Dubai, College of Education. By completing this survey, you will help us understand better the relationship between change leadership and change communication during a change event.

Completion of this survey involves no foreseeable risks. Participation is voluntary and you may stop at any time without penalty. No one will see individual responses other than the researcher. Any data will be reported only on a group basis. If you have any questions or concerns, please contact: amira.alnaqbi@hotmail.com.

This questionnaire is to describe the leadership style of **Professor Mohamed Gharseldin-Chancellor** as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. Please answer this questionnaire anonymously, so please don't write your name or position.

Part One: Demographics

1. Gender: ❒ Male ❒ Female
2. Age Group: ❒ 20 – 30 ❒ 30 – 40 ❒ 40 – 50 ❒ above 50
3. Degree obtained: ❒ Diploma ❒ Bachelor ❒ Master ❒ Doctorate
4. Number of years working for University of Fujairah: ❒ 1 – 5 ❒ 6 – 10 ❒ above 10 years
5. Number of years working with the leader you are rating: ❒ 1 – 5 ❒ 6 – 10 ❒ above 10 years
6. Are you working as
   - ❒ Administrator
   - ❒ Faculty member
   - ❒ Academic supervisor/manager
   - ❒ Non-Academic supervisor/manager

Part Two: Leadership Style Questionnaire

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed below. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.** Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

The leader I am rating…						
1.	Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	0	1	2	3	4

2.	Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
3.	Fails to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
4.	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
5.	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	0	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX 4- Change Communication Questionnaire

Leading and Communicating Change Questionnaire

Dear Participant,

Thank you for participating in this research study on organizational change conducted by Ms. **Amira Alnaqbi** a doctoral candidate from **The British University of Dubai**, College of Education. By completing this survey, you will help us understand better the relationship between change leadership and change communication during a change event.

Participation in this survey is a voluntary contribution of your personal views on the given issue. The individual responses will remain anonymous under the sole review of the researcher whereby the data will be consolidated and reported on a group basis.

Overview & Instructions

University of Fujairah changed from a college to a university recently. Please share with us your perception of the change journey. Please answer the following questions to the best of your knowledge. **Please answer all the questions, only completed surveys can be used for this study**. *The survey will take approximately 5-**10** minutes to be completed*.

Part One:

1. Gender: ❒ Male ❒ Female
2. Age Group: ❒ 20 – 30 ❒ 30 – 40 ❒ 40 – 50 ❒ above 50
3. Highest Degree obtained: ❒ Diploma ❒ Bachelor ❒ Master ❒ Doctorate
4. Number of years working for University of Fujairah: ❒ 1 – 5 ❒ 6 – 10 ❒ above 10
5. How would you characterize your role in the change initiative?

   ❒ Change initiator
   ❒ Change implementer
   ❒ Change participant/recipient

6. Thinking about your organizational planned change initiative, what were the **top three challenges** your organization faced at the beginning of the implementation phase? Please write 1,2,3.

   ___ Lack of Management Commitment
   ___ Complexity of the Change
   ___Lack of Communication
   ___ Lack of Human Capital
   ___ Organizational culture
   ___ Resistance to Change
   ___ Technology Barriers
   ___ Lack of Facilities
   ___ Lack of Budget

7. Rank the **top three factors** that you believe contributed to UOF **change success** from a college to a university? Please write 1,2,3.

_____Sufficient funding and Resources
___ Identification and mitigation of risks
___ Clear and Timely Communications
___ Organization Culture Support
___Change Leaders Commitment
___ Employee Involvement
___ Training Programs
___ Incentives
___Change Project Planning

8. What was **your favourite** way of communication during the change process?

- ☐ One to one discussions
- ☐ Small or large meetings
- ☐ Newsletters
- ☐ Memos
- ☐ Emails

Part Two: Change Initiative Diagnostic:

Please read each statement and indicate the extent to which it describes the norm in your organization. Your response should reflect what you have experienced as well as what you have generally observed in your organization during the transformation period. Answer the questions using a 5-point scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Kotter Model Phase	No.	Statement(s)	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree or agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1.	Our organization leaders were committed to an immediate change.	1	2	3	4	5
	2.	Our organization leaders showed us compelling evidence as to why we need to change.	1	2	3	4	5
	3.	To stay head or competitive, we had to change.	1	2	3	4	5
	4.	I thought that management was making a mistake by introducing this change.	1	2	3	4	5

	5.	The leaders of change had the power and influence within the organization needed to implement the change.	1	2	3	4	5
	6.	The leaders of change publicly demonstrated their commitment to the change plan.	1	2	3	4	5
	7.	The leaders of change had my trust and respect.	1	2	3	4	5
	8.	The leaders of change were working effectively and efficiently as a team to reach a successful change efforts.	1	2	3	4	5
	9.	As a staff member, I understood the new organization vision we were driving toward.	1	2	3	4	5
	10.	The new vision increased my motivation toward the change.	1	2	3	4	5
	11.	Meetings, information sessions, informal conversation, and/or an ‘open-door policy’ were made available to me so my opinions regarding organizational-change initiatives could be expressed.	1	2	3	4	5
	12.	My supervisor listened to my concerns regarding the potential effects of proposed organizational-change initiatives on my ability to perform my job.	1	2	3	4	5
	13.	My supervisor and I often communicated one-on-one regarding organizational change plan and process.	1	2	3	4	5
	14.	The leaders of change communicated effectively, giving everyone a solid understanding of our future.	1	2	3	4	5
	15.	The change initiative had been explained in clear term.	1	2	3	4	5
	16.	I felt pressured to go along with this change.	1	2	3	4	5

Kotter Model Phase	**No.**	**Statement(s)**	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neither disagree or agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
Engaging and Enabling the Whole Organization	17.	I felt a sense of duty to work toward this change.	1	2	3	4	5
	18.	We have been given the right training or education to make us successful.	1	2	3	4	5
	19.	Organizational change within the department generally improved the quality of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
	20.	Organizational change within the department did not add anything to the quality of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
	21.	The leaders of change rewarded staff for their commitment to the change plan.	1	2	3	4	5
	22.	The reward system promoted the behaviour needed to make our change effort successful.	1	2	3	4	5

	23.	The leaders of change utilized measurement systems and procedures to measure the change plan progress.	1	2	3	4	5
	24.	The leaders of change acted as a role models by demonstrating the new desired behaviours to sustain the change.	1	2	3	4	5
	25.	The leaders of change kept employees informed on the overall progress of the change initiative.	1	2	3	4	5
	26.	During the change process, there were constant dialogue between all levels of the organization regarding the change initiative.	1	2	3	4	5
	27.	The leaders of change supported the type of behaviour, skills, and attitudes needed to attain our change initiative.	1	2	3	4	5
	28.	The leaders of change have celebrated the organization's success as we have hit major milestones.	1	2	3	4	5
	29.	I saw resistance to change decrease as we celebrated short-term wins.	1	2	3	4	5
	30.	The behaviour of staff in positions of power who acted against the change initiative had been corrected.	1	2	3	4	5
	31.	The leaders of change brought in additional staff and resources on board to assist with the transformation.	1	2	3	4	5
	32.	The leaders of change did a good job of planning, organizing, and implementing specific changes in support of our transformation.	1	2	3	4	5
	33.	I felt that our organizational structure, appraisal system, and culture were all coordinated in support of our transformation.	1	2	3	4	5
	34.	I saw managers and supervisors exhibiting new behaviours in line with the new vision.	1	2	3	4	5
	35.	I saw my colleagues exhibit new behaviours in line with the new vision.	1	2	3	4	5
	36.	This change had transferred the organization to become a better place for staff and students.	1	2	3	4	5
	37.	Although, the change was successful, I still believe that the change was not needed.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX 5- Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

Consent to Participate in a Research Study

Introduction

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Amira Alnaqbi, a doctoral candidate in the college of Education at the British University of Dubai (BUID). The British University in Dubai and those conducting this project subscribe to the ethical conduct of research and to the protection of the interests, comfort, and safety of subjects at all times. This form and the information it contains are given to you for your own protection and full understanding of the procedures. Your signature on this form will signify that you have received a document that describes the procedures, possible risks, and benefits of this research project, that you have received an adequate opportunity to consider the information in the document, and that you voluntarily agree to participate in the project.

Purpose:

This project is conducted to collect preliminary data for the doctoral thesis, some parts of which may be presented in conference papers and published in journal articles. The study findings will fill a gap in the international organization development literature by investigating the relationship between organization leaders and reaching a successful change in the Middle East. As there is no research evidence on the relationship between transformational leaders and staff commitment to a specific change effort (Fedor & Caldwell, 2008).

Interview Procedure

Data will be collected through audio-recorded interviews. Responses will be audiotaped so the researcher can be sure to capture everything you say, and will also take written notes during the interview. The interviews will be transcribed and a copy will be given to the participants upon request. Your name will not be associated with the research findings in any way, and only the researcher will know your identity.

Confidentiality

Any information that is obtained during this study will be kept confidential to the full extent permitted by law. Knowledge of your identity is not required. You will not be required to write your name or any other identifying information on the research materials. Research records will be kept in a locked file, and all electronic information will be coded and secured using a password protected file. All study materials will be destroyed after the completion of the study.

Right to Refuse or Withdraw

The decision to participate in this study is entirely up to you. You may refuse to take part in the study at any time without affecting your relationship with the researcher of this study or BUID. Your decision will not result in any loss or benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You have the right not to answer any single question, as well as to withdraw completely from the interview at any point during the process; additionally, you have the right to request the interviewer to not use any of your interview material.

Right to Ask Questions and Report Concerns

You have the right to ask questions about this research study and to have those questions answered by me before, during or after the research. If you have any further questions about the study, at any time feel free to contact me, [Amira Alnaqbi] at [amira.alnaqbi@hotmail.com] or by telephone at [050-2191119]. If you like, a summary of the results of the study will be sent to you. If you have any problems or concerns that occur as a result of your participation, you can report them to the researcher named above or with:

Dr. Solomon David, Director of Studies (Supervisor)
Coordinator: Educational Management, Leadership and Policy Stream
Faculty of Education, The British University in Dubai (BUiD)
Tel: +971 4 279 1462, Email: solomon.david@buid.ac.ae

❑ I understand the procedures and conditions of my participation described above.
❑ I agree to participate by taking part in 30-45-minute interview.
❑ I agree to audio record the interview.

NAME (Please type or print legibly): ______________________________________

SIGNATURE: ________________________DATE: ___________________________

Interview date and time: ____

Appendix 6- Completed Questionnaire Sample

2

Leading and Communicating Change Questionnaire

Dear Participant,

Thank you for participating in this research study on organizational change conducted by Ms. **Amira Alnaqbi** a doctoral candidate from **The British University of Dubai**, College of Education. By completing this survey, you will help us understand better the relationship between change leadership and change communication during a change event.

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Part One:

1. Gender: ❒ Male ☑ Female
2. Age Group: ☑ 20 – 30 ❒ 30 – 40 ❒ 40 – 50 ❒ above 50
3. Highest Degree obtained: ❒ Diploma ☑ Bachelor ❒ Master ❒ Doctorate
4. Number of years working for University of Fujairah: ☑ 1 – 5 ❒ 6 – 10 ❒ above 10
5. How would you characterize your role in the change initiative?
   - ❒ Change initiator
   - ❒ Change implementer
   - ☑ Change participant/recipient
6. Thinking about your organizational planned change initiative, what were the **top three challenges** your organization faced at the beginning of the implementation phase? Please write 1,2,3.
   - ___ Lack of Management Commitment
   - ___ Complexity of the Change
   - ___ Lack of Communication
   - 3 Lack of Human Capital
   - ___ Organizational culture
   - ___ Resistance to Change
   - ___ Technology Barriers
   - 1 Lack of Facilities
   - 2 Lack of Budget
7. Rank the **top three factors** that you believe contributed to UOF **change success** from a college to a university? Please write 1,2,3.
   - ___ Sufficient funding and Resources
   - ___ Identification and mitigation of risks
   - 1 Clear and Timely Communications
   - 2 Organization Culture Support
   - ___ Change Leaders Commitment
   - 3 Employee Involvement
   - ___ Training Programs
   - ___ Incentives
   - ___ Change Project Planning

. What was **your favourite** way of communication during the change process?

- ☐ One to one discussions
- ☐ Small or large meetings
- ☐ Newsletters
- ☐ Memos
- ☐ Emails

Part Two: Change Initiative Diagnostic:

Please read each statement and indicate the extent to which it describes the norm in your organization. Your response should reflect what you have experienced as well as what you have generally observed in your organization during the transformation period. Answer the questions using a 5-point scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Kotter Model Phase	**No.**	**Statement(s)**	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neither disagree or agree**	**Agree**	
Creating a Climate for Change	1.	Our organization leaders were committed to an immediate change.	1	2	3	4	5
	2.	Our organization leaders showed us compelling evidence as to why we need to change.	1	2	3	4	5
	3.	To stay head or competitive, we had to change.	1	2	3	4	5
	4.	I thought that management was making a mistake by introducing this change.	1	2	3	4	5
	5.	The leaders of change had the power and influence within the organization needed to implement the change.	1	2	3	4	5
	6.	The leaders of change publicly demonstrated their commitment to the change plan.	1	2	3	4	5
	7.	The leaders of change had my trust and respect.	1	2	3	4	5
	8.	The leaders of change were working effectively and efficiently as a team to reach a successful change efforts.	1	2	3	4	5
	9.	As a staff member, I understood the new organization vision we were driving toward.	1	2	3	4	5
	10.	The new vision increased my motivation toward the change.	1	2	3	4	5
Engaging and Enabling the Whole Organization	11.	Meetings, information sessions, informal conversation, and/or an 'open-door policy' were made available to me so my opinions regarding organizational-change initiatives could be expressed.	1	2	3	4	5
	12.	My supervisor listened to my concerns regarding the potential effects of proposed organizational-change initiatives on my ability to perform my job.	1	2	3	4	5
	13.	My supervisor and I often communicated one-on-one regarding organizational change plan and process.	1	2	3	4	5
	14.	The leaders of change communicated effectively, giving everyone a solid understanding of our future.	1	2	3	4	5
	15.	The change initiative had been explained in clear term.	1	2	3	4	5
	16.	I felt pressured to go along with this change.	1	2	3	4	5

Kotter Model Phase	No.	Statement(s)	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree or agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Engaging and Enabling the Whole Organization	17.	I felt a sense of duty to work toward this change.	1	2	3	4	5
	18.	We have been given the right training or education to make us successful.	1	2	3	4	5
	19.	Organizational change within the department generally improved the quality of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
	20.	Organizational change within the department did not add anything to the quality of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
	21.	The leaders of change rewarded staff for their commitment to the change plan.	1	2	3	4	5
	22.	The reward system promoted the behaviour needed to make our change effort successful.	1	2	3	4	5
	23.	The leaders of change utilized measurement systems and procedures to measure the change plan progress.	1	2	3	4	5
	24.	The leaders of change acted as a role models by demonstrating the new desired behaviours to sustain the change.	1	2	3	4	5
	25.	The leaders of change kept employees informed on the overall progress of the change initiative.	1	2	3	4	5
	26.	During the change process, there were constant dialogue between all levels of the organization regarding the change initiative.	1	2	3	4	5
	27.	The leaders of change supported the type of behaviour, skills, and attitudes needed to attain our change initiative.	1	2	3	4	5
	28.	The leaders of change have celebrated the organization's success as we have hit major milestones.	1	2	3	4	5
	29.	I saw resistance to change decrease as we celebrated short-term wins.	1	2	3	4	5
Implementing and Sustaining the Change	30.	The behaviour of staff in positions of power who acted against the change initiative had been corrected.	1	2	3	4	5
	31.	The leaders of change brought in additional staff and resources on board to assist with the transformation.	1	2	3	4	5
	32.	The leaders of change did a good job of planning, organizing, and implementing specific changes in support of our transformation.	1	2	3	4	5
	33.	I felt that our organizational structure, appraisal system, and culture were all coordinated in support of our transformation.	1	2	3	4	5
	34.	I saw managers and supervisors exhibiting new behaviours in line with the new vision.	1	2	3	4	5
	35.	I saw my colleagues exhibit new behaviours in line with the new vision.	1	2	3	4	5
	36.	This change had transferred the organization to become a better place for staff and students.	1	2	3	4	5
	37.	Although, the change was successful, I still believe that the change was not needed.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 7- Interview Transcript Sample

Interview # 2

1. **How long have you been working for Fujairah College? How long have you been working under the chancellor and vice chancellor?**
   Working for UOF for two years. Under the chancellor for over one year and under the vice chancellor for two years.
2. **How did you first hear about the change plans? How did you feel about it?**
   Since I started working I knew the college is planning to change to a university. I felt very happy when I heard that the college is now going to start its transformation to a university because the becoming a university will mean opening new majors and offering graduate degrees.
3. **What were the reasons behind the change initiative in your opinion?**
   The first and main reason was that the Ruler wanted a university holding the name of the Emirate Fujairah. Second, to be able to open new majors. Three, to attract new Fujairah students who apply to other universities in other Emirates. Finally, to upgrade the college infrastructure to offer quality education.
4. **Did you receive complete information about the new university vision? Do you think that you received information about the new vision was adequate/satisfactory to help you support the change?**
   The chancellor offered continues meetings and workshops on the new university vision and mission. The chancellor included all college staff in formulating the university vision and mission along with writing the college implementation plan. Yes we received adequate, satisfactory and timely information.
5. **Can you please describe your manager management style before, during and after the change implementation? What did you like and dislike about his management style?**
   Open and Democratic management style. Open and encourage all opinions. The chancellor is competent on both aspects of the university: the academic and non-academic sides. He also has long experience in directing colleges. He believes on time work and open to suggestions. Nothing to dislike about his management style. The

chancellor trusted his employees to carry and implement the change in their own departments. He encourages autonomy.

6. **Can you describe the communication between you and your line manager about the change?**

   The communication was excellent two-way communication.

7. **How did you prepare your department staff for the change? Did you have any formal or informal training on implementing change plans?**

   I did not find resistance from my staff because they all were involved in coming up with the college new vision, mission and plan to change to a university. The management team involve all college staff in orientation meetings to make sure they understand the need for change and support the plan.

   The management team offered a variety of workshops to all staff to make sure they are equipped with what is needed skills wise to implement the change. The management team also offered IT training to their staff to be able to use the new technology.

8. **What was your preferred way of communicating with your key employees?**

   I personally prefer face to face communication whether one to one or departments meetings. We use emails when we need to document the what was communicated.

9. **Did you face any resistance to your plans? <u>Follow up question</u>: How did you handle negativity to the change plans among your department staff?**

   Any change effort will face resistance but the management way of how they introduce the change plan through meetings and workshops reduced the staff resistance. The doubtful staff came along to support the change when they started seeing how the new way of doing business is better than the old way. The chancellor and vice chancellor attendance to all workshops also encouraged the staff to support the change.

10. **Do you recall experiencing any difficulties during the change? If so, describe the difficulties you encountered. What did you do to cope with the difficulty?**

    We did not have difficulties. The chancellor asked each supervisor/dean before the change implementation about their departments needs and made sure that they all got what they needed to support the implementation plan. New qualified staff were hired and new technology systems were adopted to support the change.

11. **Do you think the way you interacted with your subordinates changed your relationship with them? If so, in what way? If not, why not? <u>Follow-up</u> <u>question</u>: Do you think the way you interacted with your boss changed your relationship with him or her? If so, in what way? If not, why not?**

    Yes, in a positive way. The change process highlighted the importance of knowing each one of your staff; what's motivate them and what discourage them to work. Knowing your staff helps in getting them to reach their goals through pressing the right buttons. Yes, in a positive way. The chancellor open door policy helped in getting to know each other and work well together.

12. **How do you and your staff feel about the change now?**

    We all are happy about the change that happened.

13. **Is there anything related to your experience with this change that you think is important that we haven't talked about?**

- He also talked about the supportive culture of the university and the spirit of unity and team work that was shared by all staff. He said "we never competed against each other, we only competed to finish the assigned duties first".
- He also talked about the importance of motivational language and convincing the staff about the benefits of change for them.
- He also talked about the chancellor and management team celebrating wins and giving constructive feedback on the change process.
- Hiring the right people who will add value to the university and help in improving the university education experience to all staff and students.
- Hiring the right person for the job will ensue its success.