

# Mechanisms for Change

**Author(s)**

Griffioen, D.M.E.

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# Mechanisms for Change

Didi M. E. Griffioen

## Introduction

Changing the connections between research and education is a special type of higher-education change. Connections between research and education shape the core of a university's hybridity, as the logic of science (resulting in research) and the logic of pedagogy (resulting in education) shape the university's foundation (see further Introduction). Changes that touch an organisation's core increase the multiplicity of the change and the need for a smartly chosen approach as well as a fitting mechanism for change. Approach and mechanism are needed to bring action into the change process. Defining the content of the change in research–education connections is of the utmost importance to actively yield change, but a mechanism for change additionally needs an approach for changes and phases the change is expected to go through. As Kezar (2018, p. 65) states: 'Most change agents are focused on the content of the change initiative [...]. However they spend little time focused on understanding the change process.' Bess and Dee (2008, p. 799) add: 'The mere perception of the need for change does not guarantee that change will occur'. For any incentive to result in organisational change, action needs to be undertaken. Further, action needs a mechanism to get stakeholders moving. Obviously, the label 'mechanism' therefore includes more firm organisational elements such as funding and structures, as well as softer elements such as perceptions and desires. Mechanism is about the possibility of putting different elements interact in motion and not about being 'mechanical'.

The approach for change provides the lens through which the change is seen; the change's origin, content and context provide information based on which the actors can weigh what perspective on the change at hand likely is most

successful. Therefore, the mechanism for change consists of a combination of tools that, when combined, is expected to make the organisation move in the requested direction. The multi-layered perspective of the content as presented in Chapter 1 provides the playing field of this action. Both the approaches and mechanisms for change are founded in the existing body of literature as well as in the hands-on experience in the Amsterdam change programme.

## Approaches for Change

Change processes request insight into their origins, content and context as described in Chapter 1. However, to start the change, both an approach for change and mechanism for change need to be constructed. The approach for change considers from where the content of change came – internal processes, external push, excitement among colleagues – and decides upon a general strategy for change based on this origin. The approaches are additionally based on different perspectives on what organisations are and how they can best change. The most common two approaches for organisational change are the Planned Change Strategy and the Emergent Change Strategy (Bess & Dee, 2008). The Planned Change Strategy presumes the organisation is a balance of stability and change, following the systems theory. This balance can be influenced by ‘an intentional act that is driven by specific goals and plans’ (Bess & Dee, 2008, p. 791). A Planned Change Strategy implies that leaders and decision makers take action to change the balance between stability and change, and to enlarge the energy towards change as a top-down approach. In this approach, the change starts with the organisation’s top leaders. The Emergent Change Model follows a bottom-up approach based on social constructionists assumptions. This approach recognises ‘the power for creativity and innovation possessed by people at all levels of the organisation’ (Bess & Dee, 2008, p. 809). The origin of the change lies in multiple grassroots initiatives combined and results in larger changes across the organisation through the organisational leaders’ activities, which Trowler (2020, p. 155) calls ‘orchestration’. This implies organisational leaders recognise patterns of change across the organisation and articulate visions that ‘reflect common strengths across multiple adaptations’ (Bess & Dee, 2008, p. 809). We apply this difference between planned and emergent because of its clarity, but are also aware of the critique that actual emergent planning often is no planning at all due to a lack of direction (Bess & Dee,

2008; Buller, 2015), while the planned strategy can be presented as emergent for internal marketing purposes. This is in line with Bess and Dee's (2008) proposal to create a contingency framework for each change plan: a balanced combination between both approaches.

In turn, Kezar (2018) presents a more precise view through six different approaches for change, following from as many theories for change. A theory for change provides a specific view on a situation out of which a more particular approach for change follows. The first approach follows from scientific management theories, which include multiple theories that all assume strong agency among change agents. This theory resonates highly with the Planned Change Model, in which strategic planning, providing incentives and awards, restructuring organisational structures and creating a collective vision are among the basic tactics in the approach. Although the benefit of this approach is the central role of leadership, its limitation is that it tends to overestimate the role of the same leadership as those in power own, ignoring and downplaying the external context, politics and the less rational side of human involvement. In turn, evolutionary theories highly resonate to the Emergent Change Model and result in an opposite approach: 'Change happens because the environment demands that systems change in order to survive' (Kezar, 2018, p. 50). In this approach, change results depending on circumstances, changed situations and the environment. These theories' main benefit is the focus on context and human involvement. However, these theories downplay the role of change leaders and often lack explicit strategies or tactics to create change.

The third group of political theories also focuses on human agency and situational change, but starts from the notion that dominant coalitions in organisations aim to utilise their power to preserve the status quo. The outcome of a change process is a modified organisational ideology. Similarly to the Emergent Change Model, political theories focus on grassroots movements of change and have a larger focus on bottom-up leadership. This approach's main benefit is its non-linearity in a change process, considering that power shifts imply different tactics for change. However, by defining all conflicts as political and consisting of power and willingness, notions of misunderstanding or the relevant stakeholders' inability to follow-up on the proposed change can be overlooked. This omission is filled by social cognition theories, which provide a central stage for the thought processes and individuals' abilities in a changing context. Kezar (2018, p. 54) explains: 'Studies of resistance to change [as part of social cognition theories] illustrated that people were often not

resisting a change because they disagreed with it, but because they did not truly understand its nature or how they might integrate it into their work and role'. Additionally, the social cognition perspective suggests that individuals hold multiple views of organisational reality, requesting for leaders who can better understand different interpretations to aid in translating and enacting the needed change. This theory adds to the perspective that not only humans and systems make the organisation; however, it has little attention for the external influences to change or the importance of organisations' structure and culture in change processes.

Cultural theories makes this connection between these mindsets and the environment or organisation. They focus on underlying values and assumptions as influencers of the change process. Their basic presumption is that there is not a single organisational reality and that activity and experience create meaning. Similar to social cognition theories, the meaning in organisations is seen as complex. However, where social cognition theories focus on individuals understanding a new way of working, cultural theories additionally focus on the values associated with that practice, which need to be learned or unlearned. This perspective resonates highly with the argument made in Section 1.2 – that it is important for change agents to know the history and context when changing a content in a university. Cultural theories additionally advise to understand the underlying values that can be addressed through examining various artefacts and symbols. Finally, institutional theory considers organisational change as an effect of changes in the influence of 'institutions', such as the government or the market. The university's hybridity in this book is argued as being based on the combined influences of the *institution of science* (Greenwood, Raynard, Kodeih, Micelotta, & Lounsbury, 2011) and the *institution of education* (Meyer, 1977); however, the change approach is less grounded in this institutional approach. Possibly, that is for the better, considering that institutional theory additionally argues that institutions influence organisational change, in which organisations with long-standing societal missions change slower and less often.

It is important to know and use these multiple approaches because experienced change agents learned that each change situation can request a different response. Most university change settings are far too complex for any single approach to work. Kezar (2018) seems to present this argument to create different multi-faceted approaches between different change programmes. However, the Amsterdam programme has shown that different approaches are needed within a single change programme.

## The Amsterdam Programme's Approach

Every change programme requests its own approach. However, the Amsterdam programme illustrates that a change project requests an overall change approach – one could say a culture of the change – and additionally includes all kinds of smaller approaches that resonate to all variants as previously described in this section. The overall approach in the Amsterdam project was a thinly Planned Change Strategy in which the strategy as depicted in Section 2.3 was rephrased into six additional concrete aims:

1. Each bachelor's programme has formulated a grounded rationale (or vision) for research in its related profession and therefore in the curriculum (ideally halfway through the programme).
2. In line with their new rationale, the position of research in the curriculum of bachelor's programmes is (re)considered (ideally halfway through the programme).
3. The number of lecturers and different educational programmes in the strategic programme's activities increases over time.
4. The activity of lecturers and educational programmes on the topic of research integration in the curriculum increases over time (other than activities of the strategic programme).
5. Building on aims 1–4, Amsterdam UAS has developed a combined vision for research in the professions and educational programmes, taking into account disciplinary differences.
6. Building on aims 1–4, Amsterdam UAS might define the characteristics of exciting bachelor's programmes that include research.

While the initiative of the strategic programme was taken at the central administrative level, which made the overall strategic programme based on a Planned Change Strategy, the actual strategy had the culture of an Emergent Change Strategy. Before explaining that, it is important to remember the origin of this change programme's unsuccessful history of trying to create research–education connections by bringing the new research professors in the lead, while disregarding their lack of line-management responsibility, as was more elaborately explained in Chapter 1. Following that knowledge, the strategic programme was based on the main strategy to follow line-management responsibilities and therefore position the educational teams and their managers as leading agents to create research–education connections. The idea was that aims 1 and 2 in the bachelor's curricula could be created through process aims

3 and 4 of creating activity in educational teams. The more strategic aims 5 and 6 of generating collective Amsterdam UAS frameworks on research and education would be possible derived effects.

This choice seen through the political theory lens implies an active shift in topic ownership. Generally, educational teams were not considered research specialists (also due to their educational level) and some considered placing them in the lead would result in ‘other’ perceptions of research than the more ‘high quality’ ones in the different disciplines. This argument gained weight as the effect of the still remembered national incident about the quality of bachelor’s theses at another applied university (see Chapter 1). However, this implied that the strategic programme team often needed to step in when dominant voices from research or administration would try to reduce the space for the integrative task the educational teams now had. The educational teams needed time and support to develop their own perceptions of the functionality of research in their related professional fields, and therefore in their bachelor’s curricula. Additionally, there was the presumption that increased developed perceptions among educators would provide a better foundation for partnering with research professors in the effort to increase research–education connections.

The approach to create activity was fully emergent in character and organised through five projects. The projects and figure 2.1 have afore been published in Griffioen and Van Ooijen (2021).

In project 1, an online tool was developed to showcase the diverse perspectives of research integration and the possibility for Q&A across the colleagues in different bachelor’s programmes. This provided the possibility for educational

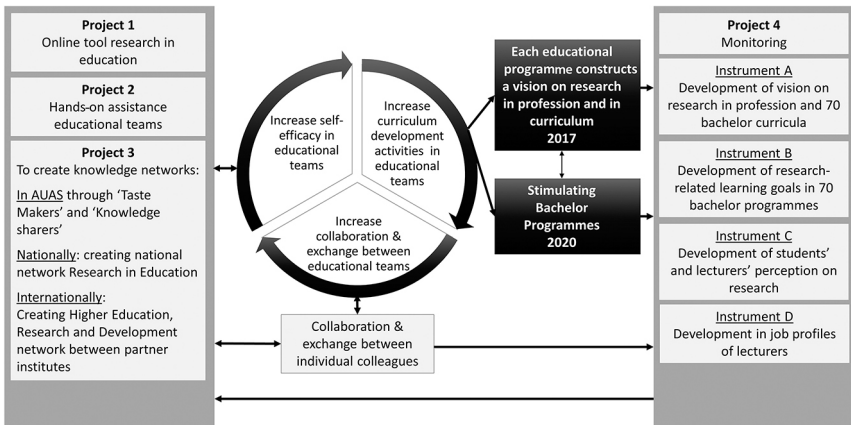


Figure 2.1 Overview of change approach based on projects.



teams to gain knowledge and assistance beyond their personal networks and independent from the strategic programme team.

Project 2 aimed to provide hands-on support to educational teams by the strategic programme team. This support reached from a low-threshold talk over coffee to working together on full curriculum development, and to a provision of custom-made workshops. The topics could range from insights at the level of lessons and modules to curriculum structures, and to handling visiting quality agencies. This project's culture was: 'How can we help?' In Chapter 3, many of the tools developed for or through the activities in this project are described for future use elsewhere.

The main aim of project 3 was to create knowledge networks across Amsterdam UAS, beyond the separate educational teams and faculties. Networks of colleagues often did not reach beyond their hallway, programme year or educational team. Every year, five university-wide symposia were organised. The topics chosen were influenced by the topics requested in project 2 as well as national and institutional policy developments or findings from the data. The topics changed over time and their importance clearly differed between educational teams who developed them at their own pace as well as between target audiences. At the start of the strategic programme, the target audience was mainly lecturers, lecturers specialised in research methods, educational managers and related curriculum developers. With the development across the university, quality agents, policy officers, research managers and researchers became target audiences.

Three of the annual symposia were called 'Knowledge Sharers' (Dutch: *Kennisdelaers*), which provided the opportunity to share and celebrate local research integration activities and results; two were called 'Taste Makers' (Dutch: *Smaakmakers*) in which high-level national and international expertise presented themselves on stage. Additionally, a national network of policy officers with a focus on research integration was initiated and an international network between Amsterdam UAS's partner universities was brought to life. This project generated the excitement and interest needed to get new colleagues curious enough about a particular topic to attend a symposium. A coffee reception often followed, which led again to more extensive activities as part of project 2. In turn, the active colleagues in project 2 were the ones who were given the stage to present their challenges and solutions in a university-wide symposium. Nationally, a network of Amsterdam UAS's policy officers was initiated and those individuals would meet three times a year to share developments and generated knowledge across university developments (see also: Griffioen,

Tankink, & Van den Auweraert, 2017). Internationally, the Higher Education Research & Development (HERD) network was initiated for the same purpose, but now across Amsterdam UAS's European partners. Additionally, two Higher Education Conferences were organised in Amsterdam in 2016 and 2019, to provide the local stakeholders with access to empirical higher education knowledge. Finally, the strategic programme team initiated the first Amsterdam UAS Research Day in 2018, to add to the existing Amsterdam UAS Education Day to bring research and education to the same position of prominence. All these network activities aimed to incite creative activity and knowledge sharing between partners at the local, national and international levels as well as between the different layers.

In project 4, we created and applied a monitoring and evaluation scheme based on scientifically founded indicators with several strings of longitudinal research to provide the same academic rigor to the change programme as we would to teaching and research (Buller, 2015), and as rigorously as we intended to teach our students through the proposed change educational programmes. Underpinning this project was a strategic programme aimed to help bachelor's programmes educate research-informed professionals in a similar approach. We intended to 'walk-the-talk'. The findings of this monitoring project are presented in Chapters 4 through 7, focused on changing perceptions of research (Chapter 4), changing curriculum rationales (Chapter 5), changing curriculum learning goals (Chapter 6) and nationally changing job profiles (Chapter 7).

Finally, through project 5, a university-wide research group was developed with a focus on connections between research, education and professional action, as well as innovation processes. The university board already adopted this project, thus it made sense to include it in the change programme strategy. This project mainly focused on a provision of a body of knowledge after the change programme ended and is therefore not depicted in Figure 2.1. This research team pulled together to write this book as a collective effort to share our experiences and lessons learned (see also [www.amsterdamuas/heri](http://www.amsterdamuas/heri)).

## **The Amsterdam Programme Followed a Combination of Approach Theories**

Research–education connections started with a shift that institutional theory can indicate. The former teaching-only sector of applied higher education was dominated by the institution of pedagogy, which was confronted with mostly top-down changes in which the institution of science gained influence.

However, the strategic programme as such was not shaped through institutional theory, although the approach was aware of the differences in culture between science and pedagogy. Creating the five projects as such was in line with the Planned Change Approach of scientific management theory. Upper management delegated this responsibility to the programme team and they went ahead with formulating a change approach. However, the change approach within the five projects consisted of a combination of the social cognition theory and cultural theory approaches. The notion that lecturers and full educational teams needed to create their own understanding of what 'research' could mean for their students as future professionals followed social cognition theory. Without creating this potential of research, of providing their students with research ability, of helping them use knowledge from research and/or of employing research as pedagogy, lecturers would not be willing or able to bring research into their curricula.

Therefore, the notion of 'understanding' in this strategic programme was not based on a single, unified notion of what methodology research should include, what its characteristics should be or even whether students needed to learn how to conduct research. The debates about potential notions of research were characterised by openness. We actively infused the possibility of multiple perspectives of research, professionalism and even education as derived from the values and multiple perspectives that cultural theory presumes. Many debates started from discussing professionalism in a particular field and followed through to potential functions of knowledge and truth as based on different types of knowledge and truth. In that context, research became a potential carrier to that knowledge and truth for their own future alumni along with gaining experience through professional practice and systematically reflecting on that practice.

Taking the time and space for these debates in educational teams, without anyone claiming any truth or telling what research should be like, activated many lecturers as potential small-level change agents. By developing their own lines of thought, lecturers and educational teams became the partners of research professors they were not before. Additionally, this approach provided the space for professionals to add the perspective of research to their notion of research as part of science (see also Griffioen, 2019).

The Amsterdam case illustrates how all theories and their lenses are needed during a change programme regarding research–education connections. However, their functionality and mutual prominence differs between change programmes, and between settings within those programmes. It is important

for change agents to be aware of these lenses and shift between them when the setting requires it.

## Phases of Change

Thus far an origin, a content, a context and an approach of change have been defined as part of a mechanism for change. Additionally, change projects often go through different phases in alterations that take place. Generally, change literature suggests that people and organisational structures, or the fixed and fluent aspects of an organisation, are altered in a change programme. This results in the most simple model of phases for change: To first change the structure and allow changes in organisational stakeholders' attitudes to follow; or to focus on changing the people first, and then turn to organisational-wide change (Bess & Dee, 2008). Later on, this chapter returns to the five different content layers that were introduced in Chapter 1, through discussing the mechanism of the Amsterdam case. First, the different phases for change are addressed that follow from multiple conceptual models for change. As we show, each model includes different phases, which often follow from albeit generic, perspective on what should be changed in an organisation (structures or people) and how this can be best approached. Although most change processes evolve more iteratively (Buller, 2015), it is useful for change agents to be aware of potential stages of change.

The foundational model for a stage-based perspective is people oriented and was developed as the unfreezing → changing → (re)freezing model Kurt Lewin introduced in the 1940s (Bess & Dee, 2008; Burnes, 2004; Cummings, Bridgeman, & Brown, 2016). The unfreezing step implied destabilising the equilibrium Lewin believed human behaviour was in as an effect of a context of complex forces. The second step of changing implies going to a more acceptable set of behaviours, for which action research is positioned as a change instrument in which reinforcement is needed to make the changes sustainable. Finally, the (re)freezing stage 'seeks to stabilise the group at a new quasi-stationary equilibrium in order to ensure that the new behaviours are relatively safe from regression' (Burnes, 2004, p. 986). Refreezing often requires changes to organisational culture, norms, politics and practices at the group level, which is more sustainable than individual changed behaviour.

Many models of different stages have been developed since Lewin's model. Rogers's 1962 model for adapting innovation describes five stages

that include the individual stakeholder as an actor and focuses on the success factors for organisational change: awareness, persuasion, evaluation, trial and implementation (Bess & Dee, 2008).

The Kübler-Ross 1969 model compares organisational change to the process of people going through the five stages of grief: denial, anger, bargaining, depression and acceptance. This model adds the notion that in organisational change, stakeholders are likely to resist change, especially if change is presented as A is changed into B and not as A will become A+. People do not enjoy losing A, or as Buller (2015, p. 30) states: 'people do not really fear change, they fear loss'.

The 1996 Krüger Model of Change Management distinguishes between the visible aspects in the change process, such as time and costs, and the invisible aspects, such as politics, beliefs, biases and perceptions, which can be called the human elements. Change agents are supposed to be more successful if they also focus on the invisible aspects of change (Buller, 2015).

The human element is even more present in the 2006 Kotter Model, which provides a clear longitudinal perspective in a combination of human change and structure change. This model leans more into social cognition theories and cultural theories, but still is based substantially on strategic management theories and planned change models due to its relative dominance in top-down initiatives and a leading role for all levels of management. The Kotter model includes eight phases of organisational change, which is again very people focused (Buller, 2015):

1. Establish a sense of urgency by helping members of an organisation to comprehend the need for change, as to make them do something because the pain of doing nothing is greater;
2. create the guiding coalition, which includes the leadership team, but can be expanded to early adopters;
3. develop a change vision, a clear and easily remembered image of the end of the change plan;
4. communicate the vision for buy-in through increasingly larger circles of management explaining why the new vision is beneficial to them;
5. empower broad-based action by putting new groups of colleagues in place for staff training, providing funding and working through barriers;
6. generate short-term wins, in which victories are celebrated as they occur to keep up the momentum;
7. never let up, stick to the rhetoric about the end vision, also when small victories are made; and

8. incorporate changes into the culture, to start considering the new situation as normal.

The ADKAR model for change was applied in the Amsterdam change programme (Hiatt, 2018). This model includes five phases and has a relatively large focus on altering individual people, which in the Amsterdam setting is applied in the collective context of a large university. The final phase is more structure focused. The phases of the ADKAR model are:

1. Awareness, in which individuals become aware of the proposed changes;
2. Desire, where individuals gain the willingness to contribute to the change process;
3. Knowledge, where individuals know what the requested change looks like;
4. Ability, where individuals are able to act as part of the changes; and
5. Reinforcement, to confirm the change through governance instruments.

The first two phases of the ADKAR model are rather similar to Rogers's model in that both aim for the individuals in the organisation to become aware of the proposed changes. However, the second stage in the ADKAR model, desire, is more focused on creating intrinsic motivation and an internalisation of the proposed changes; whereas Rogers's model aims for individuals to be persuaded, which resonates more to extrinsic motivation and stimuli. Where Rogers's model then mainly focuses on the content of the implementation with the evaluation, trial and implementation stages, the ADKAR model keeps its attention on the human aspect of the change in the knowledge and ability stages. In the final stage, the ADKAR model focuses more on enforcing expected changed behaviour by creating governance and other structural changes in the organisation during the reinforcement stage.

Where the phases-oriented models presents a stepwise process to organisational change, they provide limited insight into what tools can be used to achieve the change. As previously stated: To result in organisational change, action needs to be undertaken. Where the approaches for change suggest the direction for action based on a set of assumptions, and the phases-model suggests through which phases the change can be expected to go through, every change agent needs additional instruments that can actually initiate and influence the change process at hand. Chapter 3 will provide new tools for change. First, the aforementioned arguments are illustrated by the mechanism for change in the Amsterdam case.

## A Mechanism for Change: The Interrelated Content, Approach and Phases of Change in the Amsterdam Case

The choice for the ADKAR model was founded in the presumed need for human attention in the Amsterdam change programme. Similar to other universities, the lecturers in Amsterdam tend to be highly autonomous, both in practice due to the high level of complexity of their work based on many different professions as well as part of their identity (Stensaker, Henkel, Välimaa, & Sarrico, 2013) as expert-professionals now teaching in their specialty. The aim of changing the research–education connections in the bachelor’s curricula, implied changing Amsterdam UAS’s practices at the lowest level in the organisation. Therefore, curriculum practices needed to be considered at the micro-level, across the seventy bachelor’s curricula. Changing curricula entails creating different solutions for each micro-practice, ideally mutually aligned within each educational programme, then across every faculty and in the full university. These different solutions are needed for the changes to work. Trowler (2020, p. 69; 116) states in this perspective: ‘Where practices which work in one context and time period are transposed to another for which they are in fact very inappropriate [...] [is shown that] maladaptive practices have disastrous results’ and ‘what works in change is contextually contingent’. Changing lecturers’ practices yielded a human-focused approach.

This was even more needed due to this change programme’s content: research–education connections. Where academics internationally thank Mick Healey (2021) for actively gathering an extensive amount of examples of research–education connections in all study years of mostly all disciplines around the world, still these examples by definition can be merely inspirational. Every single inspirational example of research–education connections needs to be redesigned to become fitting for a module, lesson or research activity elsewhere. Their general practice, professional practice and knowledge from research needs to be ‘transformed’ to fit a micro-setting and micro-purpose (Ashwin, 2014; Bernstein, 2000). Therefore, changing research–education connections can never just be ‘rolled out’; individual lecturers and researchers need to be actively involved as co-inventing actors of the proposed changes. Thus, further than on other more instrumental change contents, the Amsterdam change programme was about changing individuals’ mindsets and the values, which is more difficult when those to be changed are accustomed to having a critical stance, such as lecturers in universities who do (Stensaker et al., 2013).

Therefore, the combined projects in the strategic programme aimed to initiate change by having stakeholders interact on the topics related to research–education connections (see also the moving circle in Figure 2.1). The ground rule was that any activity on this topic would be better than no activity to achieve an increase in topic ownership. The insight and quality presumably would need to follow activity, and starting with notions of any high quality or insights from a particular perspective would kill all activity (see for the multiple perspectives on research for instance: Brew, 2001; Griffioen & De Jong, 2015). Therefore, the Amsterdam programme focused its five years on the first two phases of the ADKAR model: to create awareness of the ambition to further implement research into bachelor’s curricula (added with the notion that research was there to stay), and to develop the desire to contribute to that ambition among increasingly larger groups of lecturers. With an increase in activity on the topic, hands-on experience would increase as well, which was then systematically shared among all those who were active. After the five years and through project 5, the newly created research group would be able to address the next stage of foundational-generating knowledge.

### **Sensemaking in Amsterdam**

For the proposed changes to start occurring, Amsterdam UAS needed not only to be seen as a ‘structured system [...] with procedures for assigning power, authority and responsibility for the sake of making decisions’ (Buller, 2015, p. 11), but more as an organisation that is a collective of individuals with shared assumptions and valid ways of working. These ways and assumptions reach beyond the organisational structures and can differ between organisational subgroups or departments (see also: Trowler, 2020). Changing large groups of individuals (Amsterdam UAS employed 3,700 lecturers at the time) is a diffuse and often contradictory process when seen from a central focal point in the organisation (Stensaker et al., 2013). It was important to consider changes in actions as well as in sensemaking in individuals and smaller groups of lecturers to achieve real change and not just imposed, unrelated actions at the grassroots level, which would burn up stakeholders’ energy for change. Sensemaking and identity are closely related in individuals. Meaning arises from the attention of processes directed towards the experience and the stakeholders’ values and their priorities, and help them to decide what matters (Frolich & Stensaker, 2013). The process of sensemaking can happen in two ways: individuals attach new meanings to familiar concepts and ideas,



or individuals develop new language and concepts that describe changed practices (Kezar, 2018).

In the Amsterdam setting, sensemaking was approached via the first way: to systematically attach new meanings to familiar concepts and ideas. Many educational programmes changed the formal set-up of their curricula in the years before the strategic programme started. However, many of these changes had not altered the actual modules and lessons the students received because the lecturers did not 'live' them. When they did, they mainly consisted of research ability courses that were positioned as disconnected from the professional ability courses in the curricula. Therefore, the mechanism for change in the Amsterdam project evolved around expanding the values and priorities of lecturers across the university, mainly by helping them decide how research could be useful for their students (if any) as future professionals. The values of many lecturers and educational teams traditionally were based on educating professionals in the diverse professional fields. With many lecturers being nurses, economists, teachers or social workers, it was important that they created a renewed sense of research as something that mattered to the future colleagues they educated. Mostly at the start, research was of no importance to them or even perceived as a hindrance for a proper professional education. These values were passed on to students, and new colleagues were selected based on having the similar values and educational background, again illustrating the difficulty of connecting a second primary process in a new hybrid organisation (Bystydzienski, Thomas, Howe, & Desai, 2016; see also chapter 2). In many people's perception, research in general was not part of what should matter to their students as future professionals. Lecturers perceived that professional education should be 'hands on', while they perceived research as being 'too theoretical', 'too much work for its benefits', 'not useful' and done by people wearing white coats and working in labs (see Chapter 4 for a systematic overview of changed perceptions).

Practically, the previously described projects 2 and 3 formed the core of helping colleagues address their perceptions and to test them against other's perceptions of direct colleagues and colleagues of other faculties. The support educational teams received through project 2 was the starting point for the educational programmes that were the frontrunners in this change strategy. They jumped on the possibility to get assistance, which resulted in many workshops, masterclasses and collaborations at the team or sub-team levels. Generally, lecturers in these teams already agreed that changes needed to be made and they collectively addressed the process of sensemaking. In these situations, a social cognition approach, as well as basing deliberations in cultural theory's values

related to educating professionals, worked wonderfully: Colleagues simply wanted to discuss and decide upon matters of research–education integration at the intellectual level. They were clearly the frontrunners of change among the educational teams. Through the strategic programme, they became the public advocates of the intended changes. These teams were most often showcased as part of the network building in project 3. They played their role wonderfully by being willing to show not only the potential of research integration by bringing new ideas for education on stage, but also their struggles and doubts along the way. By doing so, they fully revealed the complexity of rebalancing research–education connections in their educational programmes. This worked like a charm; over time they inspired many others through large group seminars. Many new contacts among the seventy-plus bachelor’s programmes followed their multiple presentations, asking for assistance for their own change. New contact, which again always started with an informal coffee reception, led to an increase in contact. The presentation of the frontrunners led many others to our programme’s open door.

After initial coffee, we built in one important threshold. As change agents, it was important to enter an educational team with the formal approval of educational management. Underlying struggles in an educational team about ownership of the curriculum or of ‘the definition of research’ could lead to a need for taking steps away from the research–integration topic and towards creating the needed social balance in the team afore addressing this complex topic again. The local educational management’s formal approval could avoid the notion that the change team was hijacking the curriculum design. For similar reasons, we always mentioned our work to policy advisors in education at the faculty level, ideally to have them active in a collaborative change effort.

Next to the frontrunning teams, several educational teams were increasingly aware of the importance of research in the sense that they knew research would not go away again. They were aware of the support project and many representatives attended the symposia as part of project 3, but often they kept their distance from the programme team. Generally, the lecturers in these teams were not convinced that research would benefit their students or that it was important to make an effort, or they felt too much resistance among colleagues. By presenting them with ongoing sessions of different topics and changes that other educational teams made through an online newsletter, over time we could persuade many into a coffee and a workshop. Many lecturers in these teams saw research as redundant for their students as future professionals: too precise, too time consuming, not practical. For this group, the aim became to

attach new meaning to their current concepts such as research, professionalism and education. We achieved this through multiple discussions in educational teams as well as through presenting new concepts in written pieces for Dutch professional audiences (e.g. Griffioen, 2016, 2017a, 2017b), also following the effort with colleagues in the field to make the international knowledge of the research–teaching nexus accessible in Dutch (Griffioen, Visser-Wijnveen, & Willems, 2013) to take away barriers. Interestingly, our own Amsterdam UAS educational teams used many of our written models and concepts after disciplinary colleagues from elsewhere in the country advised them to do so. The suggestion of concepts being invented or at least used successfully elsewhere was a large incentive to Amsterdam colleagues, bringing a whole new perspective to the not-invented-here Syndrome. Visibly scaling up from the local to the national and international settings became a purposeful strategy in this regard.

A new sense of concepts was collectively created in educational teams by having a strategy to affirm familiarity and reduce strangeness in the connection between research and professionalism by applying the tools that are presented in Chapter 3. Assisting lecturers to think about possibilities for their students as future professionals provided the proper foundation to stretch their existing perceptions and attach new meanings. This assisted lecturers to come to insights such as: ‘we already use theory based on research, but it is hidden in handbooks’; ‘research is a way to systematically gather information, that is not so different from what we already do that in professional practice’ and ‘we want our students to be innovative, research methods when designed in a certain way could help them to do so systematically’. By systematically creating networks between individuals and teams across the university, these insights became dominant in institutional sensemaking as second-order change of collective understanding (Kezar, 2018), thus resulting in a changed mission for Amsterdam UAS based on a more integrated perspective of research and education (Amsterdam UAS, 2018).

Many educational teams made smaller or larger changes in their educational programmes as an effect of interacting with the change team. The teams found their way to the change team in their different developmental stages. Some were very ready for change at the start of the change programme while many others became more ready at some point during the five years of the change programmes’ duration, and some still hoped research would go away. Some made impressive changes without interacting with the change team, or only when they were making their second or third round of curriculum changes towards the end of the change programme. Further, some did not initiate any

change. With a focus on awareness and desire, the foundational approach was that for the duration of the change programme, all these changes were fine as long as the individuals in the organisation started to interact with the topic. The responsibility for the governance of the university as a whole did not include the programme team. The responsibility of the programme team was to generate the desire to change. With eight lecturers in the very first seminar and over 600 receiving the quarterly newsletters at the end, that is what happened across Amsterdam UAS.

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