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Three Change Agents' 'Space of Action'

A Case Study at Makerere
University in Kampala, Uganda

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Abstract

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Summary: The aim of this study was to identify what possibilities three lecturers, called Change Agents, have to implement the concepts from the training programme "Child Rights, Classroom and School Management" at Makerere University. We have analysed how the three factors leadership, organisational structure and organisational culture have affected their space of action in the implementation process.

This is a case study focusing on the department where the three Change Agents are employed. The result is based on interviews with the three Change Agents, their supervisors and colleagues. Furthermore, observations and document studies have been undertaken to complement the data from the interviews.

We have identified the Change Agents' space of action using the terms 'control over actions' and 'control over outcomes'. The analysis shows that they have control over their daily work tasks, due to the organisational structure, but cannot control the outcomes such as influencing the colleagues to a great extent. The importance of support from and a good relationship with the leaders have been emphasised. Further, the concepts of child rights and student-centred learning are to some extent incongruent with the departmental values.

Lastly, we have discussed how the Change Agents can benefit from this research, i.e. how they can expand their space of action by using this information.

Key words: Leadership, Organisational Culture, Organisational Structure, National Culture, Change Agent, Space of Action

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Preface

From the time of our application for the Minor Field Study Scholarship, until our thesis is completed, slightly more than a year has passed. During this time, we have learnt a lot connected to our thesis subject including the fascinating connection between culture and leadership and the different challenges in change processes in organisations. Moreover, even the concept of organisational structure has proven itself to be an appealing subject to explore. However, equally important are our experiences from the two months we spent in the fantastic country Uganda. Lessons we learned there are for example that rush hour could mean spending two hours in the car (even if we were only travelling a few kilometres), how to say no to the huge portions of food we were given and to say “How was the night, Madame/Sir” in the difficult language Luganda.

After coming back to Scandinavia, we have spent many hours analysing and writing, which has proven very advantageous as we now without problem spell words such as bureaucracy, colleagues and autonomous. Moreover, expressions such as ‘thus’, ‘one could argue’ and ‘hence’, now seem entirely natural to use; we hope that these lessons and learnings will also prove themselves useful in the future.

As many have done before us, we would like sincerely to thank a number of people, without whom we would not have taken part in this incredible experience, which essay writing in Uganda really is.

The three Change Agents Dr Betty Ezati, Dr Peter Ssenkusu and Dr Anthony Muwagga Mugagga and families. A special thanks to Anthony, who was our supervisor and helped us with so many things during our stay in Kampala.

The whole Kariisa Family, especially Merab, with whom we stayed. Thank you for taking care of us as ‘your daughters’!

Last but not least, we would like to thank Agneta Wångdahl Flinck and Maria Löfgren Martinsson at the Department of Sociology at Lund University. Without Agneta, contact with Makerere University would never have been made. To Maria, our supervisor, who has been part of this process as long as us; from application of the scholarship to the examination of our thesis. We would like to emphasize how valuable your support and input has been.

And to all Scandinavians we would finally just like to say, “How do you live in a refrigerator?”

Josefin Grahn and Anna Sunesson

Lund, April 2013

1. Background

The International Training Programme ‘Child Rights, Classroom and School Management Programme’ is held at Lund University every year. The programme is financed by SIDA and is aimed at teachers, principals and other employees in ‘education-related organisations’ who have mandate to run change processes. According to the book ‘Taking Child Rights Seriously – Reflections on five years of an International Training Programme’ (Wickenberg, Flinck, Leo, Rasmusson, Yebio & Stenelo, 2009), ‘the overall aim of the training programmes is to contribute to capacity development and processes of change in development countries by offering key persons training’. The contents of the programme are divided into three themes: Child Rights Convention, Teaching/Learning Process and Leadership/Change Agents. In addition to this, excursions are made to schools in Lund and later, mentors from the programme visit the participants in their home countries to evaluate and support the change processes. The first theme, Child Rights Convention, is discussed from the participants’ different perspectives and is aimed at providing them with a deeper understanding of the subject. The ‘Teaching/Learning Processes’ theme deals with the learning situation through the following key concepts: learner-centred, participatory and democratic education and how these can be implemented. The last theme, ‘Leadership/Change Agents’, revolves around leadership and its role in change processes. The first two themes, the Child Rights Convention and issues around learner-centred and participatory education, will from now on be called “the concepts”.

Three past participants in the International Program are from Makerere University in Kampala, Uganda and will henceforth be called Change Agents. They are all lecturers at the School of Education and attended the programme separately between 2008 and 2010. Uganda is a state situated in Eastern Africa by Lake Victoria and has almost 34 million inhabitants; Kampala is the capital and has 1.7 million inhabitants (Uganda, Landguiden.se, 2011). Several different languages are spoken in Uganda but the official language is English, which is also used as the teaching language in higher education. All three Change Agents speak English fluently and so do their supervisors and colleagues.

Through our lecturer, Agnetha Wångdahl Flinck, who also is one of the lecturers at the International Programme, we made contact with the three Change Agents from Makerere University. As we are currently pursuing our bachelor in Human Resources at Lund University, the concepts discussed in the International Programme are familiar to us and some of the literature used matches our course literature. One of the main issues and a subject intensely discussed in our programme is the phenomenon of organisational change; attending a course or a programme is most often very interesting for employees, but how is this later on implemented in one’s own organisation? Here, several factors are of importance in order to fully understand the implementation process. Also, the fact that the participants in the International Programme are to initiate the change process in a different culture from the one the programme takes place in makes it even more interesting and complex. How the key concepts from the International Programme are implemented at Makerere University leads us to the aim of our study.

1.1 Aim

Our aim is to analyse the possibilities the three Change Agents have to anchor the messages from the Child Rights, Classroom and School Management Programme, and implement those concepts at the Department of Foundations and Curriculum Studies at Makerere University.

The study will be focused on the following three influencing factors: leadership, organisational culture and organisational structure. By investigating these three factors, and in which way they are either supporting or inhibiting the implementation of the concepts, we will identify the Change Agents' 'space of action', i.e. their opportunity to implement the concepts at their department.

1.2 Research Questions

- What within the *organisational structure* inhibits and/or supports the implementation process? In what way?
- What within the *organisational culture* inhibits and/or supports the implementation process? In what way?
- What within the *leadership* inhibits and/or supports the implementation process? In what way?
- With regard to these factors and how they affect the implementation process at the department, how does the Change Agents' space of action look? By the same means, what possibilities to implement the concepts from the 'Child Rights, Classroom and School Management' programme, do the three Change Agents have?

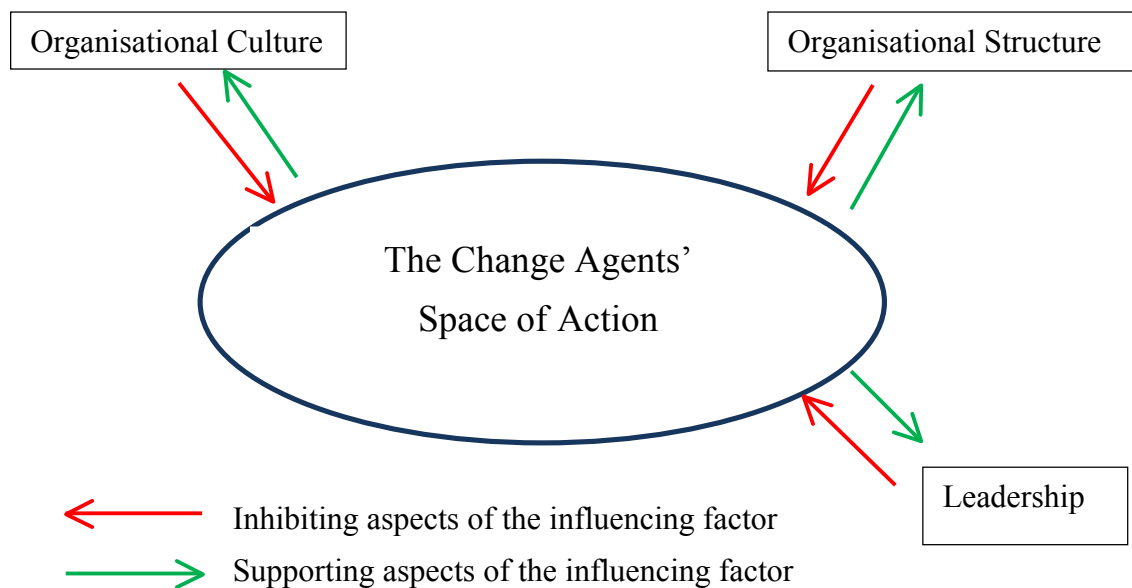
1.3 Delimitations

Certain delimitations are necessary to make in order for us to gain a deeper understanding of the situation at the department. The selection of the three influencing factors is due to their status as established and well-known factors that affect processes in an organisation, but also because we have an interest in them. Regarding the delimitations at the university, we have chosen to focus only on the department where the three Change Agents work. Given that one of the three factors is leadership, the delimitation to only look at the department creates a challenge; there is one "immediate supervisor" at the department, namely the "Head of Department". However, we have chosen to also include the Dean in our study, which is supervisor over three departments, together named "School of Education". In other words, even if this Dean does not strictly belong to the department where the Change Agents lecture, he is still one of the two supervisors that affect them most and it would therefore be misleading to leave him out of consideration in our study. Furthermore, we want to mention that we are fully aware that supervisors further up in the organisational hierarchy also affect the department and thus the Change Agents' space of action. However, this is an aspect we have chosen to disregard in order to focus deeper on the two supervisors closest to the Change Agents.

2. Theory

Before the overview of the three chosen factors in our study, one reflection would be fruitful to make. Even if we have separated the factors both theoretically and empirically, our intention is to weave them together and discuss how they affect the three Change Agents' space of action. Svenningsson and Alvesson (2010) discuss the shortcomings of a leader-centred perspective on organisational and individual performance as it leaves out important factors such as the surrounding world but also organisational structure and materials available; "These are often strongly governing and inhibit separate individual's and group's space of action (p.41, *our translation*). This speaks for a holistic view on the influencing process going on between the Change Agents and their environment i.e. taking leadership, culture and structure into account when discussing their opportunity to implement the concepts from the training programme at their department.

Figure 1. Our model of how the three factors influence the Change Agents' Space of Action.



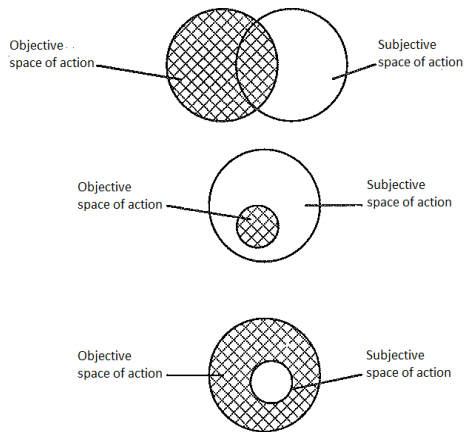
2.1 Space of Action

In this section, we will elaborate on 'space of action' theoretically and describe what we refer to with the term. Ellström (1992) describes how the influence process between an individual and his or her environment is connected to control: "*the individual's possibility to, through actions, consciously control (meaning influence or guide) the surroundings and by doing this fulfil his or her goals /.../*" (p.84). Further, he states that this influence process has two aspects, called '*control over actions*' and '*control over the outcomes*' (ibid). Control over actions is concerned with the individual's "ability to carry out one's intentions and plans of action into concrete action" (*our translation* p.85, Ellström, 1992). The other aspect, control over the outcomes, is whether the individual through the actions taken can influence his or her surroundings in a desired way (ibid). These two aspects of control will be used in our discussion to answer our last research question regarding the Change Agents' space of action.

2.1.1 Subjective versus Objective Space of Action

Moreover, the space of action can be divided into a subjective and objective dimension (Aronsson and Berglind, 1990).

Figure 2. Model of space of action. (p. 72, Aronsson & Berglind, 1990)



The discrepancies that can occur between those two can be of three different kinds.

In the first case, the individual does not correctly perceive what his or her objective SoA is and does not, therefore, fully use it. With regard to the subjective SoA, in this case, the person has a false image of what his or her subjective SoA is. In the second case, the individual's perceived SoA, i.e. the subjective SoA exceeds the factual objective SoA. In the third case, it is the other way around, i.e. the individual underestimates the possibilities to act and only perceives a

part of the objective SoA; in this case, the subjective SoA is therefore smaller than the objective SoA. Aronsson and Berglind (1990) emphasise that movement characterises the relationship between the subjective SoA and the objective SoA, i.e. it is not a fixed state.

In this study, focus has been placed on both the subjective and objective space of action. In the interviews with the Change Agents, their subjective space of action was in focus, i.e. how they perceived their opportunities to implement the concepts. However, through the interviews with their supervisors, we gained an understanding of how the leadership affects their opportunity to act and implement the concepts i.e. focusing on the objective space of action. Further, these interviews together with document studies of the organisational structure gave us more information regarding the factual possibilities a lecturer has to implement new concepts at the department. The interviews with colleagues complemented this information and further helped us understand how the organisational culture affects the Change Agents' space of action. In other words, we have tried to identify what their *actual* space of action looks like, and the distinction between the subjective and objective space of action facilitated the understanding of the two dimensions of it. We will now move on to the three influencing factors and describe the theoretical framework, which will later help us answer the first three research questions.

2.2 Organisational Structure

According to Mintzberg (1993), all human activities require two things, more specifically *division of labour* and *coordination* of this work. In general terms, organisational structure has to do with an organisation's *form*, which is usually described in an organisational schema. It is important to emphasise that it is the form that this schema describes, and not how the organisation works in reality (Abrahamsson & Andersen, 2005). This is helpful in order to understand what the structure at

Makerere University looks like and how it affects the Change Agents in their work at the department. Firstly, we will present different dimensions that an organisational structure can be divided into and, secondly, we will present the structure model that we have used to identify and understand the Change Agents' space of action.

2.2.1 Dimensions of Structure

The structure of an organisation can be divided into three dimensions, which are the levels of *specialising*, *formalising* and *centralising versus decentralising* of the organisation (Abrahamsson & Andersen, 2005). The first dimension, specialising, has to do with the complexity of the organisation e.g. the number of different professions. This means the more types of professions, the more complex the organisation becomes (ibid). The number of professions and departments says something about the *horizontal* distribution in the organisation. When it comes to the *vertical* dimension, this is concerned with the number of levels in the organisation. The second dimension, formalisation, has to do with standardisation of the work. This can be done through rules and procedures, written or unwritten, of how the work should be conducted as well as documents such as staff policies and job descriptions (ibid). The third dimension, centralisation versus decentralisation, is concerned with how decisions are being made, and more specifically *where* in the organisation decision-making takes place. The further down in the organisation decisions are made, the more decentralised the organisation is and vice versa (ibid).

2.2.2 Mintzberg's Model of Structure

To understand how an organisation is constructed it is helpful to use the diagram made by Mintzberg (1993). The diagram explains the organisation by a distinction of five different parts, which consist of people with different functions and objectives.

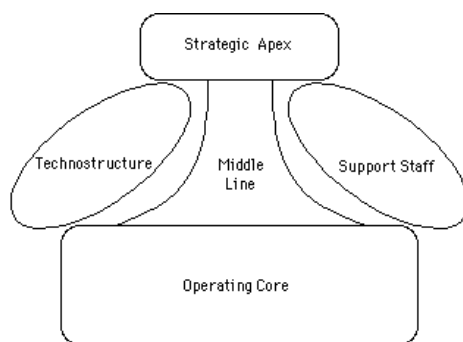


Figure 3. Mintzberg's model of organisational structure (p. 11, Mintzberg, 1993).

At the bottom of the diagram is *the operating core* that is directly involved in the production, e.g. mechanics in a factory and teachers in a school (Mintzberg, 1993), see figure 3. The operating core is essential for the organisation as it produces the outputs, i.e. the "product", that keep the organisation alive. Without an operating core a company would not produce any products or offer any services. To make sure the operating core can focus on their work, there are other functions that must be available, namely the administrators. There are four of them with different functions. *The strategic apex* is the person or group of people responsible for the whole organisation, and who makes sure that the company operates effectively and according to their strategy (ibid.). They hold the power of the organisation but must also make sure that they meet the requirements from e.g. the government and stockholders. The third component in Mintzberg's (1993) model of the organisational structure is *the middle line*; this part is

the link between the operating core and the strategic apex. In big companies, the strategic apex cannot follow the operators' work on a regular basis and therefore middle line managers are employed. Inversely, the middle line managers are responsible for collecting feedback from the operators and communicate to the strategic apex. In a small organisation, the top management can perform this communication and coordination of operators. However, supervision of the operators requires that the manager be present and with a growing organisation this supervision is not possible for the top management. The fourth part of the organisation is, according to Mintzberg (1993), the function that standardises the work of the operators, *the technostructure*. The technostructure is a result of a growing organisation that needs to standardise the work of the operators to facilitate the coordination of the work. The last part in the model is another supportive function, called *support staff* (ibid.). This function indirectly supports the organisation and can for instance consist of a computer lab, a cafeteria and human resource department.

The five parts of the organisation that is explained above have different ways of coordination depending on what kind of activities they are conducting (Mintzberg, 1993). Mintzberg (1993) presents five different kinds of coordination mechanisms that can explain different kinds of organisations. These coordination mechanisms are described as “the glue that holds organisations together” (p.4, Mintzberg, 1993). To make sure the organisation reaches its goals, parts of the organisation need to be standardised (ibid). At a university, the outcome is the student, and can thus not be standardised; nor can the work of the teachers be standardised. What can be standardised though are the operators, i.e. the professionals, working at the institution; by making sure everyone has the right educational background, the outputs will indirectly be standardised. These professionals are usually trained before they start their profession, such as teachers going to study at the university before lecturing themselves.

Professional Bureaucracy

The type of organisation that depends on the professionals to carry out the work based on their skills and knowledge, is called a *professional bureaucracy*, i.e. the professionals are standardised (Mintzberg, 1993). The employees in a professional bureaucracy are autonomous in the sense that they work independently without extended cooperation with the colleagues. On the other hand, they often work close to the organisation's clients who are using the service; in a university the students are the clients. The teachers have the same knowledge, or at least education, when entering the organisation but they can choose in what way they want to share this with the students. Mintzberg (1993) means that the process of *pigeonholing* (p. 192) is taking place in a professional bureaucracy; the professionals categorise the situation and later decide how to solve this situation. For a teacher, pigeonholing means categorising what kind of education the students need and later how he or she as a teacher can manage the situation. Most teachers have the same education and therefore the same “set of solutions” which means that in this process, many would choose the same or a similar solution for a situation. If one teacher chooses to solve the situation differently e.g. to teach in a different way, the other teachers do not automatically change their way of teaching.

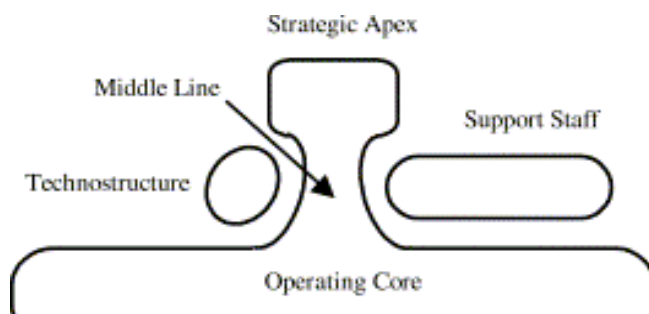


Figure 4. Mintzberg's model of a professional bureaucracy (p.194, Mintzberg, 1993).

The professional bureaucracy is based on the same set of functions as explained above, but the parts are of different importance to the organisation (Mintzberg, 1993). As mentioned, the operating core is of high importance and hence bigger than in other organisations. The support staff part is also big as professionals with higher education normally have a high salary and therefore the organisation cannot afford to have them for instance make lunch or clean their offices. The technocrats are few, as the work of the operators cannot be standardised any further. Moreover, the middle line is also small as the supervision of the operators is limited. As a result, the organisation becomes decentralised as much of the power lies with the operators and their knowledge. The power is connected to the expertise and the ones in possession of the skills are the operators. The power relation between the middle line and the operators can be explained as reciprocal, which will be elaborated below.

Challenges with the Professional Bureaucracy

Changes in a professional bureaucracy are often instigated by the operators as a way for them to improve the activities they undertake (Mintzberg, 1993). However, they are dependent on the administrators, mainly the middle line, to implement the changes. The administrators are familiar with the organisation and have the contacts in the organisations to be able to carry out the changes. Further, the administrators play an important role in influencing the other operators since the operators normally work independently of each other and thus the initiator of change might have problems to influence his or her colleagues.

Another problem that can arise in the professional bureaucracy is the fact that by keeping improvement to themselves, the operators can use it as a source of expertise (Mintzberg, 1993). If an operator returns from a period of education and makes improvements to his work, this knowledge can later be used to for instance influence people in doing favours for them and sharing the knowledge with them in return. I.e. they possess a knowledge that they only share with some people. Further, there is a risk in these organisations that the operators become somewhat sceptical towards changes and too assure that they can handle all situations as they have always done. This could for example lead to teachers treating all students the same way they have always done, despite the fact that the world is changing and new ways of working is introduced in the school system. As noted by Mintzberg (1993), "Professional bureaucracy is an inflexible structure" (p. 209). In conclusion, change is often suggested from the operators and not from the middle line or the strategic apex, but the support from them is crucial if the operator wants to influence the colleagues at the work place. An operator is normally free to affect his or her own work as long as the goals are reached but can experience trouble when they wish to spread the knowledge to colleagues. There are more factors that affect the Change Agents possibility to influence colleagues, e.g. the values that are present at the department and what values we find in the national culture of Uganda.

2.3 Culture

It's important to use a cultural perspective in order to understand a situation that happens in a foreign context (Schein, 2004). When doing this, situations will appear more reasonable and one will understand why individuals and organisations act the way they do. In order to understand organisational culture, in our case the department where the Change Agents work, one must recognise in what way the national culture affects

how a certain group of people, or people of a certain nationality for that matter, regard organisations.

2.3.1 National Culture

In this section we will present four dimensions that Hofstede (2010) uses to explain a culture. We will also describe how national culture affects organisational culture and what similarities and differences there are between the two.

Four Dimensions of Culture

The four cultural dimensions identified by Hofstede (2010) are power distance (small to large), collectivism versus individualism, femininity versus masculinity and, finally, uncertainty avoidance (weak to strong). The first dimension, *power distance*, concerns how a country deals with inequalities between citizens. Hofstede (2010) defined power distance as “the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organisations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally” (p.61). An important thing to keep in mind is that the study has measured differences between cultures, which mean that an index of high power distance only means that it is high *compared* to another culture with a lower index. With regard to our study, it is interesting to see that all African countries had higher power distance than e.g. the Nordic countries, including Sweden. Power distance can be connected to different institutions in a country; the family, e.g. how children are treated; at school, e.g. whether the educational process is centred around the teacher, which is more common in countries with large power distance, or the student, which happens more often in nations with small power distance. Moreover, the dimension of power distance also affects students’ dependency on teachers, as students in large power distance countries tend to depend on their teachers even at high education levels, more than students in a society with smaller power distance. Further, the issue of corporal punishment at school is according to Hofstede (2010) “more acceptable in large-power-distance culture than in its opposite” (p. 70). When it comes to how the index of power distance influences the workplace, one should remember that the approach we have to our parents, followed by teachers, later affects our attitudes towards our supervisors at work (ibid). It is common that organisations operating in a context with large power distance have many supervisors; the hierarchy is tall and inequality between superiors and subordinates is taken for granted (ibid). Another issue is that of high age, which usually gives a supervisor respect in a country with high power distance.

The second dimension of culture, *collectivism versus individualism*, should be understood as whether the interest of the group succeeds the interest of the individual or vice versa (Hofstede, 2010). In the first case, the culture is more collectivist and in the latter, focus is placed on the individual. In the collectivist culture, a child grows up in what is called the “extended family”, which means that the people, in addition to parents and siblings, in the vicinity of the child are regarded as part of the family (ibid). This has the effect that people growing up in more collectivist societies tend to think more about “us”, i.e. the interest of the group succeeds the interest of the individual. This is generally not the case in more individualistic cultures, where “I” is a more important source of identity. When it comes to how the degree of collectivism/individualism affects issues in the workplace, and more specifically management, one can say that “management in an individualistic society is management

of individuals” (p. 121, Hofstede, 2010), while the collectivist culture means managing a group.

The third dimension of culture has to do with *uncertainty avoidance*, which means “the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations” (p. 191, Hofstede, 2010). With regard to a school, an example of a weak uncertainty avoidance context could be that students in this culture are comfortable with a teacher who does not have all answers whereas in high uncertainty avoidance cultures, the teacher is regarded as “knowing everything” and gains respect by using difficult words when lecturing (ibid).

The fourth and last dimension of culture deals with *masculinity versus femininity*. A society is regarded as masculine “when emotional gender roles are clearly distinct” and feminine when they “overlap” (p. 140, Hofstede, 2010). In connection with education, a more masculine culture prefers “brilliant” teachers to “friendly” ones, while the latter is more appreciated in feminine cultures. Moreover, when it comes to the workplace, management and how conflicts are handled can to some extent be connected to whether the organisations operates in a feminine or masculine context; Hofstede (2010) means that the masculine societies advocate for a more decisive and aggressive management style compared to more feminine ones. Additionally, conflicts in masculine cultures are usually resolved “by letting the strongest win” (p.170, Hofstede, 2010).

National and Organisational Culture – the Differences

Especially two of the dimensions described above, power distance and uncertainty avoidance, affect how people in a certain cultural context think of and regard organisations (Hofstede, 2010). This leads us to the issue of organisational culture, which has been discussed and researched about immensely over the years (Jackson & Parry, 2011) It is important to acknowledge that national and organisational culture differ, and according to Hofstede (2010), this can be explained with regard to how values and practices are part of the two types of cultures, but in different ways; the most significant difference is that national culture is something we grow up with and thus it affects our most basic values (ibid). Organisational culture, on the other hand, is something we are approached with as adults and start to work. Naturally, organisational culture has a less significant effect on our values, as it has more to do with the organisation’s “way of doing things”, or *practices* as Hofstede (2010) calls it. These shared practices are what Hofstede (2010) advocates to be the reason that multinational companies are able to function as it would not be possible to make all employees from such different nationalities adopt shared basic values. In order to explain the fact that some organisations though seem to be homogenous in values, it has been put forward as happening through a consistent hiring of people with similar characteristics and backgrounds (ibid). We will now move on to the organisational culture and how that can be defined.

2.3.2 Organisational Culture

We will now describe Schein’s (2004) way of explaining a culture, more specifically organisational culture. When implementing change in an organisation, one can benefit from having knowledge about the organisational culture and how it affects the implementation.

Schein defines culture of a group as:

“A pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.” (p. 17, Schein, 2004)

Culture is being created when a group of people experiences some sort of challenge, from inside the group or an external factor (Schein, 2004). This is done in order to be able to handle the situation, but if no problem is to be solved, there is no need for the group to create a common culture. If a group or organisation experiences repeated challenges and they successfully conquer it, the culture will grow stronger as a result of shared learning (ibid.). When speaking about organisational culture it is important to emphasise that culture is always a part of the organisation and not something that it has or not (Ehlers, 2009).

Levels of Culture

Culture can be divided into three different levels, ranging from the visible parts to the very underlying assumptions that can be described as the “core of the culture” (p. 25, Schein, 2004).

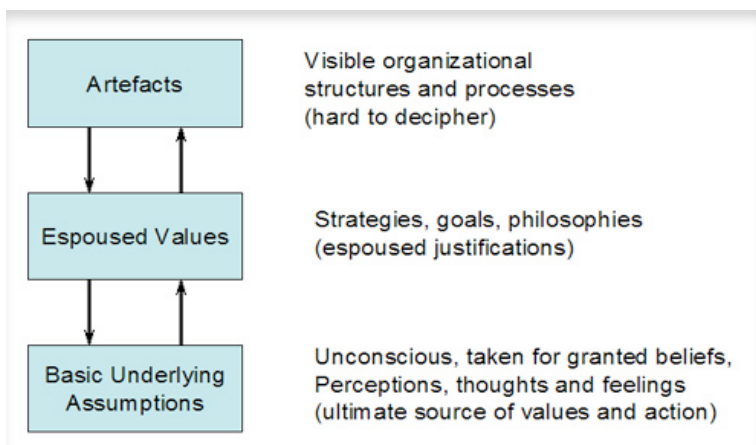


Figure 5. Schein's levels of culture (p. 26, Schein, 2004).

The level of culture that is possible to see, touch and hear is called *artefacts*. Dress code, listed values, ways to address people, hierarchies and rituals are examples of artefacts that can be observed in an organisation. These are all easy to see but hard to interpret; a symbol can mean different things depending on how the group interprets it. In order to make sense of the symbols one has to look at the two deeper levels. The second deepest is called *espoused beliefs and values*. These are espoused values, which the group is aware of having, e.g. declared norms in the organisation. Moreover, these values can predict the behaviour on the artefact level, but does not necessarily correspond with them (Ehlers, 2009), e.g. when a company's declared norms contradict what they are producing or the way they treat their employees. The deepest level of culture is, according to Schein (2004), *basic underlying assumptions*. The basic underlying assumptions guide the members in how to feel, think and act, e.g. in matters of gender and family relations. They are treated as if they are the reality and the true way of dealing with things; these unconscious assumptions are taken for granted by the members of the organisation. A teacher would for example never consciously teach the children the wrong facts. These ways of acting and feeling have been learnt during a

long period and are thus hard to change, since they are a big part of a person's personality. If one person realises that his or her assumption is different from the others in the group, it would be easier to change this assumption rather than changing the whole group. Further, these basic underlying assumptions are the key to understanding the two other levels, artefacts and espoused beliefs and values. These levels will, together with other theories, be used to understand how resistance to change by the members can occur in an organisation.

Resistance to Change

The need for organisations to adapt to external events and internal integration has been highlighted before and this is reason for creating and changing a culture. One of the challenges in changing a culture is to convince the members who resist change, and there are several reasons for them to do so. According to Yukl (2013), members that resist change are one of the main reasons why many efforts to change an organisation fail. When introducing a new concept or a new way of working, one has to take into consideration what values and norms are present in the organisation (ibid.). As stated by Schein (2004), you have to find a way of implementing change where everyone's basic underlying assumptions are taken into consideration.

Further reasons to resist change are connected to the reason for changing. If it is not perceived as necessary and feasible to change, it will not be embraced by the members of the organisation (Yukl, 2013). Moreover, if the employees think they think will experience personal losses, such as loss of power, as a result of the changes, resistance might arise (ibid). A similar reason is that people can be afraid of losing their personal identity; in a change process they will have to learn new conceptions about themselves and their occupation (Schein, 2004). If new concepts are to be implemented in a school, everyone involved will have to reconstruct their view of the school and how they work. This process of reconstructing concepts can, for some people, lead to resistance to the suggested changes. Further, Schein (2004) states that when members realise that a change is needed they could experience *learning anxiety*. This fear can have different reasons, for example a fear of being incompetent and lose the ability to work if a new teaching method is introduced, or fear of being punished for not being good at teaching in a new way.

In a process of change, the leader has an important role as a "role model" and if the leader does not have support from the members, this will inhibit the change process (Yukl, 2013). If the leaders are not trusted, the members of the organisation might think that the leader does not have enough qualifications to carry through the change, or there could be mistrust regarding the reason for him or her to be implementing the changes.

2.3.3 Culture and Leadership

Jackson and Parry (2011) describe the connection between culture and leadership very clearly, "Leadership is essentially a cultural activity – it is suffused with values, beliefs, language, rituals and artefacts" (p.71). Further, Schein (2004) discusses the *different* roles leaders have when it comes to organisational culture; creation and formation of culture, embedding and transmitting culture and further the leader's role in organisational and culture change. Moreover, he describes the leader's actions as "embedding mechanisms" i.e. "the major tools that leaders have available to them to teach their organisations how to perceive, think, feel and behave /.../" (p.246, 2004).

Examples of these culture embedding mechanism are role modelling, what leaders pay attention to, how they allocate resources, who and how they promote and how they react to crises. After this connection between culture and leadership, we now move over to develop the concept of leadership.

2.4 Leadership

The number of definitions of leadership is almost as many as the number of scholars in the field (Yukl, 2013). It seems that the researchers have been more preoccupied with arguing about *what* leadership is, rather than *if*, *where*, *how* and *when* leadership happens (Svenningsson & Alvesson, 2010). This is, at least, argued by the more process-approached scholars in the leadership field (ibid). In order to gain a better understanding of why the focus of leadership is where it is today, one should look back into the history of leadership research and what different areas of focus the scholars of leadership have had over the years. This will create a better understanding of the modern and more integrated approach to leadership, which we will use later in the analysis.

2.4.1 A Historical Overview

The attention of leadership studies was in the beginning given to *who* the good leader is, which is called the trait approach (Yukl, 2013). When realizing the shortcomings of this approach, the scholars started to focus on *what* a good leader is doing, which is called the behaviour approach to leadership (ibid). When coming to understand that more aspects needed to be taken into account, many theories regarding the context was produced, called the situational approach (ibid). In the 1980's, the attention was turned to the "heroic leader" and concepts like "the charismatic leader" and "the transformational leader" was introduced (Jackson & Parry, 2011). The difference between transformational and transactional leadership became a much discussed issue; transactional leadership included the more "managerial" tasks as paying salary i.e. focusing on the *transaction* or exchange between the supervisor and subordinate in terms of monetary reward for an accomplished work task (ibid). Transformational leadership, on the other hand, is leadership focused more on employee's attitudes and motivation, which is supposed to be *transformed* by the leader (ibid). These two types of leadership can be connected to the distinction between "leader" and "manager", where transactional leadership is more related to "management" and transformational leadership to "leadership" (Svenningsson & Alvesson, 2010). This distinction will be elaborated in another section.

2.4.2 It Takes Two to Tango

The concepts of transformational and transactional leadership occurred in what has been regarded as the "new leadership-era" (Jackson & Parry, 2011) or as Svenningsson and Alvesson (2010) labelled it, "semi-new" (*our translation*). A research field that is becoming more and more discussed is the one focusing on "followership", i.e. the other side of the coin in what we call leadership. As Robert E. Kelley (2008) writes, "We need to pay attention to followers. Followership is worthy of its own discrete research and training. Plus, conversations about leadership need to include followership because leaders neither exist nor act in a vacuum without followers" (p.5: chapter 1, Kelley, 2008). The follower has been given different roles by different scholars and can be categorized as follows: followers as "*recipients* of the leader's influence", "*moderators* of the leader's influence", "*substitutes* for leadership", "*constructors* of leadership" and

as “leaders” (Shamir, Pillai, Bligh & Uhl-Bien, 2007). Followers as recipients has been the prevailing outlook in leadership research since it, as described above, has focused mainly on the leader as a person. To look at followers as moderators came with the contingency theories where the situation and the traits of the follower were started to be taken into consideration as influencing factors on the outcomes of the leadership (Jackson & Parry, 2011). Jackson and Parry (2011) conclude that these contingency theories recognise the importance of the follower but point out that these theories still regard the leader as “the active partner in the leadership process” (p.49).

With regard to followers as substitutes for leadership, it has been argued that in some cases, leadership is even unnecessary (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). Svenningsson and Alvesson (2010) discuss how this is mainly the case under certain circumstances in specific types of organisations; a University is given as an example where the employees possess vast knowledge and if they have a lot of motivation, these employees are to a very small extent affected by the leader’s style, as they are not in a large need of neither directing nor support (ibid). Moreover, it is emphasised that when an employee has good colleagues or networks, the need of a leader is reduced.

Another viewpoint, that followers are the constructors of leadership, is built on the perception that “leadership is essentially in the eye of the follower” (p. 51, Jackson & Parry, 2011). A different perspective on leadership is the one making no distinction between the roles of leaders and followers but rather seeing leadership as a “function or an activity” (p.61, ibid). In this approach, leadership is shared and different members of the organisation take the lead depending on what skills are needed in a specific situation.

Leadership Co-produced: The Leader-Member-Exchange Theory

Yet another view on leadership and followers is one where followers are seen as co-producers of leadership. From this perspective, the leadership is seen as a “relational and social phenomenon” (p. 46, our translation, Svenningsson & Alvesson, 2010) where both followers and leaders affect the type and character of the relationship. One of the main theories within this field is the Leader-Member-Exchange Theory, which “conceptualizes leadership as a process that is centred on the *interactions* between leaders and followers” (p. 161, Northouse, 2013). In other words, the LMX theory focuses on the relationship between a leader and a follower and how their characteristics, expectations and competences affect the relationship (Svenningsson & Alvesson, 2010). In the article “*Relationship-Based Approach to Leadership: Development of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory of Leadership over 25 Years: Applying a Multi-Level Multi-Domain Perspective*” by Graen, George B. and Uhl-Bien, Mary (1995), the authors advocate a more holistic view on the leadership process. As noticed, in the beginning of the leadership research, scholars were preoccupied with the leader perspective, which was eventually followed by a focus on followers. LMX is a theory that takes both parties into account through a *relation-based* platform, which investigates how the quality of the relationship affects the outcome i.e. the leadership produced (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In order to take a further step, the article promotes a multi-level analysis where all three “domains” (leader, follower, relationship) are taken into account and where this is seen in the *context* where it is taking place. This is a fruitful way for us to look at how different factors interplay and together affect the leadership produced. Further, this integrated approach also gives an explanation of why the same leader can have different effects on and relationships with different followers,

in our case the Change Agents; consequently, this might lead to them experiencing different “spaces of actions”.

2.4.3 Management and Leadership

The differences between management and leadership have, as mentioned, been discussed by several scholars (Yukl, 2013; Nienaber, 2010), while other authors have discussed to what extent they are interwoven. One way of viewing it is to see leadership as one of the tasks for a manager (Yukl, 2013); there are many tasks that a manager should perform and one of them is to act as the leader of a group or production. Further, according to Nienaber (2010) the manager’s role includes all the tasks of a leader, but there are no exclusive leadership tasks. Originally, the two words are from different languages but have the same meaning (ibid). Some authors explain that the roles of a leader and manager is suitable in different situations, e.g. a manager is needed when the organisation needs structure and predictability, while leaders are important when the organisation is entering a phase of organisational change. Leading abilities are, as mentioned before, needed to make the employees committed in order to carry out a change (Yukl, 2013).

Both a manager and a leader are associated with an organisations success, i.e. to make an organisation function as well as possible, both roles need to be represented (Nienaber, 2010). As noted by Nienaber (2010) “... the person in the position of leader/manager needs to have characteristics of both to be successful” (p. 669). It is crucial that someone has the mandate as a manager to run and decide activities for the company, but at the same time someone needs to have the role as a leader to e.g. motivate the employees. Thus, there are different meanings and perceptions of the words manager and leader and the tasks included are sometimes very similar and accordingly confusing. What is of importance though is to clarify what is expected of each role and what competence is needed for the person having that role in an organisation. This distinction between a leader role and a managerial role will be used in the analysis in order to examine and explain the leadership/management at the department where the Change Agents work. To understand how a person that holds a position as leader/manager can influence another individual, it is important to understand the notion of power and in what ways it can be used.

2.4.4 Power

Yukl (2013) writes that, ”Power involves the capacity of one party (the “agent”) to influence another party (the “target”)” (p.189). The influence attempt can be directed to an individual or a group as well as horizontally and vertically (ibid). How much power an agent has changes as the surrounding conditions are changing, for example depending on how people reacted to previous influence attempts.

Personal Power and Position Power

Personal and positional power differs with regard to what the main reason is for the individual to possess the power (Yukl, 2013). Personal power is something a person gains because of his or her personal characteristics; the attribute of a person can either increase or decrease an individual’s personal power. Position power, on the other hand, is based on a person’s position in an organisation. A person who holds a position that comes with authority has position power in deciding for example what tasks are to be prioritised and how the money should be spent. It is not always easy to separate position and personal power and people often use a mix of them when trying to influence the

target. However, when studying situations of influence it is important to know what kind of power that exists. Both position and personal power can be divided further.

There are two different forms of personal power: *referent power* and *expert power* (Yukl, 2013). *Referent power* occurs when the target identifies with or admires the agent. The target will carry out a request to satisfy the agent, but if the requests becomes too much or is asked too often, the referent power will decrease. Power based on an agent's expertise and knowledge is called *expert power*. This power is based on the perception that the agent possesses solutions and important information that the target needs. The power is gained by showing that you can solve problems by making others believe that you possess a lot of knowledge. If the target does not recognize this, the expert power will not be gained. An agent's capability of communication will thus affect the possibility to gain expert power. There is a phenomenon called "the expert-referent power dilemma" (Raven & Erchul, 1997), which implies that the two types of personal power are in conflict with each other. To gain referent power, the agent has to make the target feel as they are similar and alike, while to gain expert power requires that the target regards the agent to be superior and more knowledgeable. When trying to influence e.g. colleagues, the agent must be aware of this conflict in different kinds of personal power. The concept of personal power will be used to analyse how the Change Agents can influence both their colleagues and supervisors at the department.

As with personal power, position power can have different sources. The one connected to the position in terms of authority is called *legitimate power* (Yukl, 2013). Legitimate power is connected to a person's possibilities and responsibilities over e.g. finance in an organisation. A manager higher in the hierarchy normally has a larger "scope of authority" (p.192, Yukl, 2013) than a lower manager. However, if the manager decides something that does not correspond with the values in the organisation, the employees might refuse to carry out the request. Another type, *reward power*, has its source in an individual's control over resources and possibilities to reward the target (ibid). The agent can also influence the target using reward power based on the target's perception that the agent possesses resources that he or she does not have or that he or she will get resources in the future. *Coercive power* is, on the contrary, based on the perception that the agent has authority over punishment that would hurt the target somehow (ibid). The last type of position power is called *information power* (ibid). In many organisations the manager is responsible of sharing information about the organisation with the colleagues, the power in deciding what information to pass on and how the information should be interpreted is important in an organisation. This sort of power can be used by superiors but also by employees who have a responsibility to report to their superiors.

There is no definite answer to what sort of power is most effective but studies have shown that successful leaders count more on their personal power than their position power (Yukl, 2013). However, it can be problematic to only rely on personal power if you do not control the resources, which could be problematic when for example trying implementing change. In other words, a leader or agent will also need a portion of position power to be most effective. How much power a leader or agent needs depends on the situation and what kinds of decisions are being made (ibid). If a big change is going to be implemented, more power is needed. If the employees are motivated and positive towards a change however, less power is needed for the leader or agent. The importance of both position and personal power in a change process, or more

specifically an implementation process in our case, will be discussed in the coming analysis.

3. Methodology

The methodology used in our research will be presented in this section. We will explain how the data has been collected and analysed, but also what methodological approaches we have chosen in order to fully understand and be able to answer our research questions. Further, quality aspects, such as validity and reliability, of the study will be presented.

3.1 Methodological approaches

To better understand our study, one must be aware of how we look at knowledge and what theoretic base we start from. This section is intended to shed light on these issues and present how we have related the theory with the data collected in the study.

3.1.1 Hermeneutics

In our research we have emphasised the importance of taking the context, in which the Change Agents are operating, into account and further, how different factors influence their possibilities to implement new concepts at the department. This is in line with the hermeneutic approach in social research as it allows the researcher to not only explain the individual's actions but also understand those (Alvesson & Sköldbberg, 2008). To be able to fully understand different actions and texts that an individual has produced, hermeneutic research focus on the context the author is part of by using a combination of the researchers' perspective and the perspective of the author (Bryman, 2012; Patel & Davidsson, 2011). In this study, we have taken the perspective of the Change Agents as well as our own perspective to paint a fuller picture of the situation at the department. To understand what possibilities there are to implement changes we have to be aware of the different contexts that are present; the context we are mostly familiar with, Lund University, and the context our Change Agents are mostly familiar with, Makerere University. Further, to take the researcher's perspective is seen as beneficial within the hermeneutic approach, as the researcher's pre-understanding is regarded valuable in order to understand the objective that is being studied (Patel & Davidson, 2011). According to Bryman (2012), the hermeneutic approach is especially suitable for researchers conducting qualitative research. Since our study is of a qualitative nature, this further argues for a hermeneutic approach.

In hermeneutic research, the importance of taking different perspectives into account has been noted. Another way of changing perspectives is for the researcher to change focus from the whole to the parts and vice versa (Patel & Davidson, 2011). In our research, this is exemplified when we have first looked at the three factors, i.e. the *parts* and later related them to the *whole*, i.e. the Change Agents' space of action. In other words, we have designed this research in a hermeneutic way by using the three factors in order to understand the space of action. Furthermore, we have also used the this approach conversely, from the whole to the parts, as we in the discussion addressed how the Change Agents may increase their space of action by making use of the parts, i.e. the factors. Another way to put it is presented by Alvesson and Sköldbberg (2008), who mean that to understand a whole you have to understand the parts it consists of. According to Patel and Davidsson (2011), this way of working is closely connected to *abduction*, where you are shifting your attention between the theory and the data collected, as described below.

3.1.2 Abduction

When conducting research, it is important to be aware of the relationships between the theory and the data collected. There are different relationships between the theory and the empirics (Bryman, 2011). According to Alvesson and Sköldbberg (2008), when conducting research using an *inductive* way, the researcher investigates a phenomenon or an object and later creates a theory to explain the result. As Bryman (2011) explains it, the creation of a theory is a result of the data collected. Another way of conducting research, called *deduction*, is to start from the literature in order to create and test a hypothesis (Bryman, 2011; Alvesson & Sköldbberg, 2008). This method is commonly used in quantitative research and aims at testing a hypothesis that is based on the already existing theory (Bryman, 2011). In our research we have chosen a third way of relating the theory and data collected, called *abduction*. Abduction can be explained as a combination of induction and deduction as it contains elements of both ways of working (Patel & Davidsson, 2011). It usually starts from the phenomenon or object that is of interest but does not reject the fact that the researcher often has some previous knowledge about the area (Alvesson & Sköldbberg, 2008). In our study, we used the theory to decide what factors we thought would affect the Change Agents in their work to implement the message from the training programme in Lund; we used our prior understanding to create our aim and research questions. But in order to fully understand how these factors operated we read the literature once again when returning from the field and found complementary theories. For example, we found theories to be able to explain the organisational structure after understanding how it looked like on site.

3.1.3 Case Study

The methodological approach chosen for this study is a case study. More specifically, qualitative interviews, observations and document studies have been undertaken. The choice of a case study as a method is partly due to its ability to deal with the different types of data collections (Yin, 2009). These are all necessary to gain a full understanding of the three factors that affect the Change Agents' space of action that we have chosen to investigate. In qualitative research, it is important to define the focus of the study as well as its boundaries (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In our study, the case is within the Department of Foundations and Curriculum Studies at Makerere University, where the three Change Agents' were employed at the time for the research.

A case study also allow us to gain insight into this particular situation, rather than trying to generalise (Yin, 2009). With regard to our research questions, which are of an 'understanding' nature, a case study is a well-based choice of method since it, unlike surveys or experiments, opens up an opportunity to take different aspects, e.g. context, into account (ibid.). Thus, the results cannot be generalised to other departments at Makerere University. The fact that the process of implementation is on-going also speaks for the choice of a case study and it is important to clarify that this is not an evaluation of the implementations as we are interested in the present situation; however, past events will of course affect the current circumstances. We will now move over to present our choices of data collection methods.

3.2 Data Collection Methods

Our three chosen data collection methods are observations, document studies and interviews. These three data collection methods complement each other well as the interviews gave us answers to our asked questions, the observation gave information to

complement this and further understanding of the context; finally, the document studies was the most “neutral” information in our study, which gave us a relatively objective picture of the organisational structure.

3.2.1 Observations

The two main reasons for us to carry out observations were to gain a better understanding of the context and to be able to create a well thought-out interview guide with appropriate questions. Observation enables an understanding of the context, and provides the researcher with background insights that helps to interpret why things happen (Fangen, 2005). Therefore, it was natural for us to have observations as our initial data collection method. The process of understanding the context has helped us collecting data mainly regarding the organisational culture, but to some extent also the leadership and structure at the department. What people say in an interview or answer in a questionnaire does not always correspond with what they do (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007) and observation has therefore helped us paint a fuller picture of the situation.

We have conducted semi-structured observations focusing on the culture but also looked for information about the leadership and structure. Observation can also be classified with respect to the degree of participation; observer-as-participant implies that the observed group knows that they are being observed but the observer does not participate in the activities (Cohen et.al, 2007). This type of observation has been carried out in meetings and classes, and has further helped us understand the context where the Change Agents are acting. We have been taking part in five classes with the Change Agents and one colleague’s lecture. We also participated in a staff meeting that was held right before the Christmas break. The meeting included lecturers at the department and the Head of Department; the aim was to discuss marking of exams and next semester’s coordinating and teaching. On all of these occasions, we were introduced but did not participate in the activities. As mentioned, the reason for conducting the observations was to get an understanding of the situation in the department. As a result, there is not much data from the observations presented in the empirics or analysis. However, it gave us valuable knowledge about the department and how things work there. It further helped us to ask more relevant questions in the interviews.

3.2.2 Document Studies

The second method used in our case study is document studies. These have been undertaken in order to understand the organisational structure by looking at organisational charts. Unlike interviews and observations, this method allowed us to not affect the object we studied as we have been looking at factual documents (Cohen et. al, 2007). A fact of great importance is that documents are always interpretations of events, and will accordingly have to be contextualised (ibid). Hence, what is written in the documents has been compared to actual reality, since there is always a risk of discrepancy. We have used this data to understand the organisational structure at Makerere University and mainly at the department. We are aware of the fact that organisational charts do not necessarily tell the whole truth about the structure (Abrahamsson & Andersen, 2005) but it has helped us make better interview guides and to understand how the relationships between the lecturers and supervisors look in terms of structure and hierarchies.

3.2.3 Interviews

The third data collection method in our study was interviews. This was also our primary method, as the analysis is mainly based on the data from the conducted interviews. Our sample of interviewees consists of the three Change Agents, the Dean at School of Education, the Head of the Department (HOD) along with three other lecturers at the department; we have thus conducted eight interviews. One reason for using interviews as a method of data collection is that it enables us to go deeper into the understanding of why the respondents answer the way they do (Cohen et.al, 2007).

The interviews that we have conducted have been of a semi-structured nature. Unstructured interviews include more flexibility and freedom than structured interviews where the procedure and content are already set (Cohen et.al, 2007). Since the interviews focused on all the three influencing factors, but at the same time allowed for flexibility in asking supplementary questions, semi-structured interviews was a suitable choice. Furthermore, this was an appropriate method since we did not know what aspects of the influencing factors were of most importance when we designed our interview guides. It should be noted that the interviewees had varying knowledge about what the Change Agents' were implementing; some were well aware of the work they were doing at the department and some were not. For the interviewees that were not knowledgeable regarding what concepts the Change Agents were to implement, the interviews focused on how knowledge from trainings generally is implemented and how the issue of child rights generally is perceived at the department. In other words, we had to adjust some questions to fit the knowledge level and how much information the respondent had about the implementations.

When designing our interview guides we have taken many considerations into account. It is important to avoid leading questions, avoid questions that make assumptions and to use a vocabulary that the participant is familiar with (Cohen et. al, 2007). We have used different kinds of questions when designing the interview guides, many of them were open-ended questions that allowed the respondent to answer the way they want. An open-ended question is flexible and opens up for unexpected answers (ibid). This is what we have been aiming for since we did not know what within the three factors were of most importance. Further, we have tried to combine direct and indirect questions. A direct question could make the respondent cautious while an indirect question is more likely to give us an honest response (ibid). However, it should be noted that direct questions could have an advantage in avoiding misunderstandings.

Before all the interviews, we informed the respondents about what we study and about the aim of our research project. We also emphasised that we were not representing the International Programme and that we did not intend to evaluate neither the programme, nor the Change Agents or any staff at the department. Moreover, we asked the respondents if we could record the interviews to facilitate the data analysis, which was allowed at all times. We also informed the five lecturers we interviewed, including the Change Agents, that the data would be treated confidentially. The majority of interviewees were male and we have chosen to call everyone "he" to be able to handle the data accordingly. With regard to the supervisors, the protection of confidentiality could not be given, as they both are the only ones holding these positions. Nevertheless, we have been cautious how to present the data from these interviews in order to avoid them feeling entirely "exposed".

3.2.4 Data Analysis

The data was, as described, collected by conducting observations, documents studies and interviews. During the observations, we both took notes, which we afterwards read through and discussed issues that we found important for our study. Since our observations were not structured with observation schedules, this data has mainly been used to reinforce or complement data from the interviews. As far as document studies are concerned, the process of data analysis was rather simple as the documents we studied were organisational charts and thus not subject to an extensive analysis; instead, they mainly helped us understand the organisational structure and accordingly improve our interview guides. With regard to the interviews, we compiled all the data from our notes and recordings. Further, we chose to organise it on the basis of our research questions. This is a suitable way of categorising data in qualitative research (Cohen et.al 2007). As an example, all data regarding the organisational structure from the interviews was gathered in order to find patterns and common answers but also to find data that contradicted each other. These patterns laid a foundation for what later would become our sub-categories in the analysis. Our hermeneutic approach is another reason for using this way of categorising data; as mentioned, we will focus on one factor at a time and then relate them to the Change Agents' space of action, which is concerned in our fourth and last research question.

3.3 *Quality Aspects of the Study*

The quality of research is not only affected by the choice of method and its instruments but also by the instruments' validity and reliability. If the instruments are good and used well, the quality of the study will be higher (Cohen et. al, 2007). These different aspects will be discussed below, connected to our chosen methodological instruments.

3.3.1 Validity

The basics of validity has to do with to what extent the instruments we were using were actually measuring what we intended to measure (Cohen et.al, 2007). Depending on what methods are being used, the validity can be approached differently. In qualitative research, validity can mean to what extent the data covers the object and is being representative. Further, the data collected is always affected by the respondents' opinions and attitudes (ibid). With regard to this, the validity of the data should not be seen as an absolute state but rather being something to strive for as much as possible.

There are different forms of validity and some of them, most relevant in our research, will be discussed here. *Content validity* refers to whether the instrument is actually measuring what it is intended to measure (Cohen et.al, 2007). In the interview guides, we had several questions about the same factor so that we could compare the answers regarding the same issue and see if they corresponded or not. Some questions did not directly lead us to the answers of our research questions, but was asked to measure e.g. attitudes, which indirectly helped us analysing the Change Agents' space of action. Other questions collected background information, which helped us to gain an understanding of how the respondents think and what they value; this later helped us when we analysed and interpreted the data.

Construct validity refers to the operationalization of the concepts that the researcher uses (Cohen et.al, 2007). One important issue to discuss is whether we understand and interpret different concepts used in the study in the same way as the Change Agents and our other interviewees do. In qualitative research it is important that the researchers'

choices of categories are of similar importance to the participants (ibid). It is vital that the researchers look at the situation in a similar way as the participants do. We tried to create conditions to enable this by using the first week on site to acclimatise and gain a better understanding of the culture and the way of speaking. Another type of validity that deals with the cultural aspect of a research is *cultural validity* (ibid), which means that the research conducted has to be appropriate in the culture where it is carried out. For example, the questions in an interview or questionnaire have to be understandable and of importance for the participants. We tried to manage this by discussing the categories and issues with our supervisor on site before we carried out the interviews. Moreover, the first week of acclimatising was an additional way of making sure that our interview guides were comprehensible to our respondents.

3.3.2 Reliability

It has been discussed whether or not reliability should be taken into consideration when doing a qualitative research (Cohen et. al, 2007). To have high reliability in research implies that you can carry out the research in a similar group and context and get the same, or similar, results again. One argument not to use this in a qualitative research is that one of the main aims is to understand rather than generalise. As we have discussed before, this is one of our reasons for choosing a qualitative case study as our method and therefore, reliability is of less importance to discuss; this also explains why we have found it more suitable to discuss validity more extensively.

However, there are situations in our research when reliability should be discussed. In observations there are several factors that can have a negative effect on the validity and reliability (Cohen et. al, 2007). When the researcher is observing and interpreting what is happening in the moment he or she might be unaware of important events that happened in the past. Moreover, the fact that the observer is present could make the participants react in a different way than they should usually do and the data collected might not be representative.

3.3.3 Sample

There are several aspects to take into consideration before choosing a sample strategy. One aspect is that the sample will have to be suitable and representative of the population that the project is focusing on (Cohen et.al, 2007). Furthermore, the researchers will have to make sure that they are being permitted access to the sample as well as it being practicable.

A common strategy used in case studies is *non-probability samples* (Cohen et.al, 2007). These methods are used when the researchers do not want to generalise but rather focus on one group despite the fact that it will not represent the whole population. However, when conducting interviews with the Change Agents we did not have to make a sample, as it only included three people and we wanted to collect data from all of them. The two strategies, both non-probability samples, that we have used, are *purposive sampling* and *convenience sampling*. In the former, the sample is chosen by the objects' knowledge and characteristics (ibid). This was suitable for us when choosing what observations we found necessary to do; we attended classes that were held by the Change Agents as well as one class held by one of their colleagues. When choosing which colleagues to interview we have made a convenient sample, i.e. colleagues that we had access to and that were available at the time. When choosing the three colleagues, we also made sure to have both lecturers with and without international experience. The supervisors we

interviewed are responsible for the department and the second at the school of education. As mentioned, we chose to not include supervisors of a higher rank in the organisation because we prioritised to focus directly on the department. But we are aware of that they have some power and influence over the department even though they are not involved in the daily work.

3.3.4 Literature Quality

In order to increase the quality of the research, we have discussed different criteria of our literature. To do this we have used four different criteria: ‘authenticity’, ‘time connection’, ‘independence’ and ‘free from tendency’ (Thurén, 2005). If the literature is *authenticating*, it is dealing with the topic it claims to do. The authors that we have used are well-known within their subject and have an extensive scientific base. In trying to meet the criterion of *time connection*, we have, as much as possible and when suitable, used literature that has been written recently. We did this to make sure that we include research results that are up-dated. Further, we have strived to only use primary sources in order to meet the criterion of *independence*, e.g. Cohen (2007) and Schein (2004). When this has not been possible we have chosen to complement these facts with several authors. The last criterion *free from tendency* will be satisfactory if the literature describes the reality in an honest way without interests as e.g. political influencing (Thurén, 2005). As mentioned earlier, the literature chosen is written by well-known and respected authors and this speaks for them not containing political, personal or other interests, i.e. are free from tendency.

4. Results and Analysis

In this chapter, we present our data and analysis, which is done on the basis of the theory we have presented. The structure of the chapter is based on the three influencing factors are, which are presented separately. In this way, this section gives the answer to our first three research questions. If nothing else is being said, the data is from the interviews with the Change Agents.

4.1 Organisational Structure

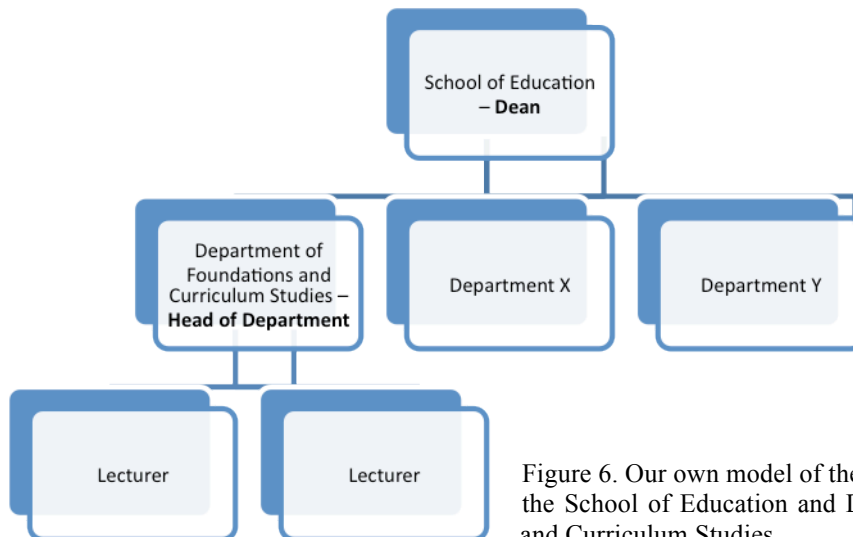


Figure 6. Our own model of the organisational structure at the School of Education and Department of Foundations and Curriculum Studies.

The department where the three Change Agents work has recently been merged with another and is called Department of Foundations and Curriculum Studies. All students at the School of Education take courses at this department. Both the Change Agents and their supervisors have mentioned this as a supporting factor in the implementation process, as this means they can reach out to many students with the new concepts from the training programme in Lund. As described by Mintzberg (1993) the teachers at a university is part of the operating core in the organisation. Their task is to serve the client, in this case the student, who can be explained as the output of the organisation. The fact that every student at the school of education will come across a course including child rights is a supporting factor in the implementation process. What will be discussed later about the structure is the Change Agents' possibilities to not only reach the students in this implementation process but also their colleagues.

4.1.1 Rigidity and Flexibility

The structure at the organisation has been explained as being “both rigid and flexible”, with the explanation that it is rigid if you are not a manager. Another one explains it to be “traditional with hierarchies to follow”, but added that “they [the hierarchies] are falling” and are not as strict as they used to be. One colleague described the University as “a rigid system, it is not certain that you can implement what you have learnt; you need to work within the system”. When asked for positive aspects of the organisational structure it was said that there is a kind of freedom in terms of designing your own lectures and what issues to focus on; this was also mentioned by one of the supervisors. This can be connected to Mintzberg's theory about the professional bureaucracy and the operators' autonomous work (1993). What is being said here is that they are to some

extend free in their own work but not in expanding their ideas to other colleagues at the department. When the operators have a wish to implement some kind of change, there is rigidity in the system that requires support from the administrators (ibid.), i.e. the supervisors. There are no guarantees that a new way of teaching would be supported by everyone and the lecturer will need support from the administrators to be able to influence colleagues. The administrators have authority and opportunities by holding that position, which is crucial for the operators in implementing change. In our case, the administrators are the supervisors and the operators are the Change Agents.

4.1.2 Hierarchical Organisation

When we asked how the organisational structure affects initiating of changes, one supervisor meant that there is too much bureaucracy and hierarchies, “If you want to introduce a new course, you will have to go through layers of leaders” and that, “The bad side of that process is that it takes a lot of time, you lose your motivation and excitement”. It was also mentioned that during this process, the course could even be denied from higher levels. If, on the other hand, one would want to make changes within an already existing course, it is a different matter; as mentioned before, the lecturer has a lot of freedom to implement new matters. This is in line with what one colleague said about the organisational structure and how it affects initiating of changes, “you can integrate it in the courses that exists /.../ working with the system, without having to deal with bureaucracy”. How many levels an organisation has is one of the organisational dimensions explained by Abrahamsson and Andersen (2005). As described above, this vertical differentiation at Makerere University is one of the inhibiting factors that the Change Agents are experiencing. Hence, the changes can take a long time to go through if you do not adjust your suggestion to fit the already existing system. This time aspect and process of asking at many layers have been discussed by several lecturers to be an inhibiting factor when implementing change. Further, it emerged that if you introduce new concepts and call it a course unit, you have to have a test on that part of the course, “this affects the implementation of these new things”, according to this colleague.

Curriculum Writing

With regard to the process of writing the curriculum it has been explained as a bottom-up process as it starts with the lecturers that teach the subject and continue to the department staff as a whole where it is discussed and approved. Later, it is passed on to higher levels in the organisational structure for final approval. The fact the lecturers write their own curriculum has been described as a kind of flexibility, as they can bring in issues that they find important into the course description. Moreover, one colleague stated that “In the university we set our own curriculum /.../ we are autonomous in that way”. The process of writing a curriculum naturally includes making, small or big, changes. What Mintzberg (1993) says about change in this kind of organisation is that it normally is initiated by the operators because of their close connection with the clients. The lecturers at Makerere are the people who are most aware of what changes are important for the organisation to meet the requirements from the students. With this in mind, the process of curriculum writing would be hard to start anywhere else than with the teachers themselves and this is supporting when the Change Agents want to implement the new concepts.

Centralised When It Comes to Money

When the Change Agents applied for the programme in Lund they needed permission from both the supervisors. Neither of these two are in charge of finance so when money is needed to the department, e.g. if the Change Agents want to buy new technology for lecturing, requests have to be made to a higher level. However, as one of the Change Agents said, “The line is so long, you will never get there”. Nevertheless, one of the supervisors mentioned that he participates in the financial committee and explained his role, “If some spending is to be done, I am one of the people to discuss that and what the priority areas are”. In terms of material, this supervisor cannot, however, guarantee to supply the lecturers with what they need, which was mentioned by a colleague, “He signs your request and then sends it to the principal, it is a long process”. This was said when discussing the introduction of new ways of teaching; this colleague meant that the lack of material inhibited the introduction of these new methods; “the University is not willing, won’t provide you with material”. Moreover, the lack of material was also discussed in the staff meeting and the problems it causes. In this case, the marking of exams were delayed because of the lack of material and the teachers had to supply the materials themselves. As one supervisor said, “It is easy to implement [the new concepts] if we do not need money” since they would then have to involve higher levels in the organisation. If money is not needed though, it is not the case, according to one Change Agent, “the top management does not affect implementations in the programmes and courses here [at the department]”.

The above section is focusing on the issue of finance and the problems connected to changes that require money. As we have not investigated the University’s money supply, it is not the money itself we refer to but rather the time consuming process in getting money for a project. With the current organisational structure it takes a lot of time and energy to get money for a project such as educating member of staff. The decision regarding finance is taken further up in the organisation, i.e. the organisational structure is centralised (Abrahamsson & Andersen, 2005) in decision-making regarding finance. As written about the lecturers and their way of working, they are autonomous in designing their lectures. According to Mintzberg (1993) the operators have freedom in their work because of their expertise in the issues they are handling. But the fact the decisions about money are taken much higher in the organisation could partly have to do with that the lecturers, or lower managers for that matter, are not seen as able to be responsibility of financial matters.

4.1.3 Number of Students

During the interviews with one of the colleagues, the big number of students and lack of facilities were mentioned as factors that are inhibiting the use of student-centred teaching methods. With regard to this, it was mentioned that lecturing methods are mainly used because of the big numbers of students. One colleague spoke further about the challenges to introduce a more student-centred approach: “here students are packed in one small room, it is completely different, out there [in the west], in fact [there] it is student-centred, you mind about what the students are doing, unlike here, because of the number; how do you do that? It is a big challenge”. Moreover, this colleague described the feeling when going to a lecture, “You go to the classroom and /.../ involve just a few, you ask some questions and allow some of them to ask questions and then you move away. You don’t get that time to identify individual problems”.

The former section describes the big number of students as an inhibiting factor when implementing a student-centred approach to teaching. The teachers have the same education and have learnt the same methods of how to deal with situations, e.g. *how* to teach; this is what Mintzberg (1993) refers to as “pigeonholing”. However, it should be noted that not everyone would interpret a situation exactly the same. When a teacher attends a training or a course, for example the programme in Lund, his or her way of looking at the situation might change and become different from his or her colleagues. In our case, the Change Agent begins to interpret the situation at the department differently than some of the other lecturers. An example of this is when the Change Agents are using group work as a teaching method while some of the colleagues we interviewed said that the classes are too big to do that. The Change Agents are using their new knowledge to interpret the situation differently. As mentioned before, the importance of support from the middle line should be noted here (*ibid.*). The administrators have the possibility to gather the colleagues and to inform about the new ways of teaching and maybe even educate the other lecturers in order to make them able to use the new teaching methods. Further, it should be noted that the professional bureaucracy is a rigid system that does not generally embrace change (*ibid.*) but with the support from the middle line, the implementation would will be facilitated.

4.1.4 The Supervisors’ Positions

The two supervisors are of different rank and connected to the department in different ways (figure 6). One of them is the lecturers’ “immediate supervisor” and is in charge of the quality of the courses at the department. As their closest supervisor, he is chair at their staff meetings and thereby also takes part in the curriculum writing process. It was this person that could decide whether the Change Agents could present their experience in Lund to the colleagues at the staff meeting or not, and since this position has been held by different people, the Change Agents have been affected differently depending on the person occupying it. One colleague described this supervisor’s role as a link between the senior management of the organisation and the staff at the department. Moreover, when discussing this person’s role in an implementation or change process, he would be the one to communicate to staff about the new knowledge, development and its possibilities, according to one colleague.

This described supervisor is part of the middle line as he is acting as a link between the lecturers and the managers. As described by Mintzberg (1993) the middle line is responsible for the communication between these two parts of the organisation but also to spread information in the operating core. The Change Agents, as presented, have met different reactions when coming back from Lund and wanting to present to the colleagues. One conclusion from this is that the person holding this position is of key importance when spreading the knowledge and implementing change. It is important who holds the position and his or her opinion about the suggested changes. If there were standardised ways of sharing information from this kind of education it would not be an issue whether the manager supports the new idea or not. There are no set rules for the lecturers how they should continue their work when they get back from this kind of education. That is why the manager has the power to decide what is worth spreading or not. This supervisor also has the same education background as the Change Agents and lecturing is still a part of his working tasks. According to Mintzberg (1993) the operating core serves the clients and in a university that is to teach the students. Thus, in this sense, he is still a part of the operating core. This could be a supporting factor in the

implementation as this supervisor hence is involved in the daily work and can see how the new concepts affect the teaching.

The other supervisor is of higher rank and is the representative of the School of Education and is in charge of academic issues and administrative affairs. This means that he is further away in the hierarchy from the lecturers and less involved in the daily work and how lectures are conducted. As one of the Change Agents said, “He has very little to do with the implementation of academic programmes”; this is concerning implementations at the department, e.g. changing the ways of teaching. However, when it comes to implementing a new course, he is one of the supervisors that need to give his approval. This person does not have the same education background and as one of the Change Agent said, this means that, “He is not fully aware of what we are doing here” as he has never been a member of staff at their department. This manager’s position can be compared to the other one described before. This manager is further up in the hierarchy and therefore, further from the operating core. He has more power in implementing change, e.g. approving a new course but is not part of the lecturing at the department. The fact that he is not a part of the operating core might be inhibiting as he is not involved in the teaching and cannot therefore see as clearly what changes are necessary there. As mentioned, the operating core is the part of a professional bureaucracy that knows what improvements should be done (Mintzberg, 1993). Nevertheless, this person has been part of the whole process as he has been the one to give permission to all the three Change Agents to go to the programme; he has also been said to be both supportive and positive towards the concepts from the programme. Based on this perception of him being positive towards the concepts, it is supporting that he has held this position during all three Change Agents’ participation in the programme in Lund. This is explained based on the analysis made earlier; as there are no standardised ways of sharing information after a lecturer attends a training programme, a new supervisor would not necessarily be informed or even interested in working with the implementations. If a new supervisor were to be appointed, a lot of responsibility would be put on the individual lecturer to inform the new supervisor about the concepts.

4.1.5 Summary

- The lecturers are autonomous in their daily work, which is a supportive factor as the Change Agents can design their lecturers the way they want. However, the support from the supervisors is crucial in order to implement the changes horizontally, i.e. spread to the colleagues. This dependence is an inhibiting factor within the organisational structure.
- Generally, the organisation is characterised by a very hierarchical structure with a lot of bureaucracy and specifically, the rules and procedures when creating or changing a course have been described as an inhibiting factor within the structure. However, the Change Agents, and other lecturers for that matter, have the opportunity to “set the agenda” through writing their own curriculum. This is a supporting factor within the structure.
- The organisational structure is centralised in the matters regarding money, i.e. decision making with financial aspects are made high in the organisation. It is therefore hard to implement changes when money is needed.

- The big number of students has been mentioned as an inhibiting factor for implementing the student-centred approach. It is hard to influence colleagues to work in this new way as their approach to and teaching big classes is more teacher-centred.
- The structure leaves it open for people who have the managerial positions to act very independently; the lack of standardisation regarding how personnel training is being followed-up leaves space for supervisors to act based on their own values. In other words, the structure itself does not support the implementation but rather the persons holding those positions by having congruent values with the concepts from the training programme in Lund.
- One supervisor is still part of the operating core, which enables him to understand how the implementations can be used, which is supportive. The other one has the advantage of being further up in the hierarchy, which is supportive in decision-making. Given that current supervisors are supportive, both these aspects have supportive outcomes on the implementation process.

4.2 Culture

When speaking about the organisational culture, our respondents have often referred to issues to do with the national culture. The relationship between national culture and organisational culture, and the importance of knowledge about national culture in order to understand organisations in that context, has been discussed by Hofstede (2010). In order to better understand what is happening at the department, we have chosen to also include national culture and this data is presented separately. Thus, the next paragraph will deal with the data concerning the national culture.

4.2.1 The National Culture

To begin with, the Child Rights Convention (CRC) is now a part of the Ugandan Constitution¹ and corporal punishment was prohibited in schools in 2006². However, during our interviews, it has been mentioned that, “Our laws are beautiful but the implementation is zero”. Moreover, the views and attitudes towards child rights in Uganda have been discussed and the respondents mean that the Ugandan culture does not embrace the implementation as ‘child rights’ is a very foreign concept in Africa. According to the respondents, “It is not acceptable to give children rights in Uganda, it somehow conflicts with our culture”, as one of the supervisors said. It was said that there are some prejudices against the west and that child rights implementation in Africa would be seen to “spoil the kids”. To be able to understand this situation we can use Schein’s (2004) model of culture. The concepts of child rights do not correspond with the espoused values in Uganda. The fact that the concepts do not agree with Uganda’s espoused values means that the basic underlying assumptions of the Ugandan culture and the basic underlying assumption that the CRC are based on do not correspond either. The effect of these discrepancies on the implementation process will be elaborated in another section.

Another aspect to keep in mind is that, according to the tribal culture, the child is the property of the elder. One of the Change Agents said that, “We bring up children very differently [from the western ways]”. Two Change Agents said that one reason to cane children is that it is part of the culture in order to make the child disciplined. To explain this practice we will use Schein’s three levels of culture. The artefact is visible (Schein, 2004) and in this example it is the actual act of beating a child. In order to understand why this method of child rearing is used, we have to look at the espoused values of the culture. In our case, we base them on what the respondents have said about the attitudes in the Ugandan society towards child rights. It was said that beating is common and a way to make the child disciplined. However, to understand this value we must also consider the basic underlying assumptions it is based on (ibid.). The basic underlying assumptions guide the members of the group in how to think and feel about the family (ibid.), i.e. the relationship between a parent and a child, in our case “the child is the property of the elder”. Thus, this basic underlying assumption will guide how grownups view and treat children.

¹ UN, 11. CONVENTION ON THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD. Available: <<http://treaties.un.org/doc/publication/mtdsg/volume%20i/chapter%20iv/iv-11.en.pdf>> (2013-03-21)

² IHEU (International Humanist and Ethical Union), UHASSO wins Uganda-wide ban on corporal punishment (2006-08-15). Available: <<http://iheu.org/story/uhasso-wins-uganda-wide-ban-corporal-punishment>> (2013-03-21)

Nevertheless, the respondents mean that the attitudes are beginning to change and when the rights are put in context, many people appreciate them. One way of doing this in the lectures is, “To speak about child rights but not directly”, as one of the Change Agents said. For example, emotional intelligence has been one of the issues discussed in class, which means to control your feelings and not take it out on the children, i.e. not cane them. This shows the benefits of contextualizing child rights. It is important to note that some parts of child rights do correspond with the Ugandan culture. As said, when put into context, many of the thoughts are appreciated. For many people, ‘child rights’ is a western concept, which in itself creates prejudices. But as noted, when talking about emotional intelligence it makes sense to most of the participants. People in a group share some, but not all, basic underlying assumptions and it is important to understand how different people think and to make sure that these differences are taken into account when implementing change (Schein, 2004). This example shows the importance of being aware of what espoused values, and if possible what basic underlying assumptions, are present in a group when implementing change.

4.2.2 The Organisational Culture

Makerere University is, as mentioned before, East Africa’s oldest university as it was started in 1922. One of the Change Agents said that people are proud to work at Makerere and also proud of its culture. Another one described it as a “traditional university that follows a kind of culture”. It was further mentioned that new concepts could be seen as a threat to the organisational culture; with regard to this, it is important to keep in mind that Makerere University was one of the few organisations that remained during the reign of Idi Amin, as one of the Change Agents said when speaking of the culture. According to Yukl (2013), new concepts can be seen as threat to a culture. Makerere University is, as mentioned, an organisation that has survived many challenges and has created a strong organisational culture. This strong culture could be an inhibiting factor in an implementation process. However, it was also said, “It is getting more liberal” at the university and as stated by the same person “we are the ones who know our students and what is important teach”.

Reactions at the Department

One of the questions to the Change Agents was if their colleagues were interested to hear about the programme when they returned from Lund. The three have had different reactions from their colleagues, and they have also experienced mixed attitudes towards the concepts. About one Change Agent, it was apparently said, “He will cool down” and we were also told, “Some were even laughing”. However, some of the colleagues were asking many questions which the Change Agents assumed to be a sign of interest. One colleague explained it as, “New knowledge is appreciated and can lead to promotion”. One of the Change Agents meant that the colleagues who had been to Europe or USA to study were more receptive than the others; for them, these concepts were not as foreign as for the other lecturers. These mixed reactions exemplify that there are espoused values that do correspond to child rights and values that do not. For example, “New knowledge is appreciated” is a supporting value in implementing child rights, whereas “It [child rights] somehow conflicts with our culture” is an inhibiting value. These are two different values that will affect the opportunity for the Change Agents to share their knowledge at the department. Further, people have different opinions about child rights, which mean they somehow have different basic underlying assumptions about family relations. One explanation to why some lecturers were more receptive after having been

part of a different context, e.g. studied abroad where child rights are part of the society, is that they have been affected and influenced by these other values.

A value within the culture that could be a supportive one is how age is regarded. One Change Agent meant that being slightly older than many of the colleagues at the department was a supporting factor as this means that he is given respect as he is treated as an elder. This is supported by one of the colleague who stated, “We who are young embrace what they [the Change Agents] bring”. This can be explained by Hofstede’s (2010) dimension of power distance. In societies with higher power distance, it is said that with age comes respect (ibid). As African countries relatively seen have higher power distance than e.g. Sweden, this could explain why one Change Agent experience respect from younger colleagues.

Resistance to Change

It was also said that some colleagues were “quite un-cooperative to embrace these new changes”, but at the same time it was emphasised that people are good at listening but rather when it comes to helping, “people start dropping off”. Another Change Agent who said, “Many people do not want to work more”, also mentioned this. The fact that resistance to change is a challenge when implementing new concepts was also mentioned by both of the supervisors and one colleague, “One of the main challenges would be that people tend to resist change”, one of the colleagues stated. This general attitude of being negative towards changes could have its root in the traditional culture that the University has. One of the supervisor said, “People are really reluctant to take on new things, when they [Change Agents] come and share with colleagues they [the colleagues] say ‘I’ve been doing things successfully, now you are bringing this new, you are wasting my time’ and many people wouldn’t take it on”. The lecturer expressing that he or she has done the work successfully until now, could be an example of learning anxiety. Schein (2004) describes learning anxiety as a result of understanding that changes will be carried out and that he or she will need to learn new things. A lecturer that will start teaching in a new way might feel unsure and afraid of failing. This anxiety might inhibit the process of implementing the new concepts at the department.

Participative Teaching Methods

Another aspect that was brought up was the attitude towards a more participative teaching approach. One Change Agent meant that some lecturers are afraid of losing power in the classroom if they allow the students to be more active. The loss of power as a result of a change in the working place has been brought up in the theory (Yukl, 2013). This is described as one reason to reject change and could therefore be seen as an inhibiting factor in the implementation process. This Change Agent meant that some lecturers, by empowering students, it becomes unclear to them what their role is. This can be connected to what Schein (2004) writes about loss of personal identity in a change process. By letting students be more active, the lecturers have to redefine their role and, as Schein (2004) explains, learn new concepts about their occupation. This is yet another explanation for why some colleagues resisted the new ways of teaching. One of the colleagues said, “The teaching-methods used to be a lot of dictating”; this is strengthened by one of the supervisors who said, “Many of our colleagues prefer lectures where they are in control”. The fact that many lecturers have lectures where

they are in control is in line with what Hofstede (2010) writes about the dimension of power distance, where African countries score high. Societies with high power distance tend to have education systems more centred on the teacher than the students (ibid.). Moreover, this has the consequence of students becoming more dependent on the teacher, even at University level (ibid). This could explain why teachers want to be in control since it means that as long as they are in control of the lectures, students depend on them and thus they retain the power. Empowering students would instead mean moving the focus to the students, which means risking to lose power by letting them become more independent.

One change that has been implemented is the use of group work. According to one Change Agent, some lecturers have questioned whether one can guarantee everyone's participation when the students are assigned to group-work. At the same time it was also asked how you could make sure that the students get the right mark when working in a group. This could be connected to the cultural dimension of uncertainty avoidance, which has to do with feeling more or less threatened by unknown situations (Hofstede, 2010). African countries generally have stronger uncertainty avoidance than e.g. Sweden and this could be an explanatory factor to why some teachers were sceptical to use group work as a teaching method, as this would mean to be approached by an unknown situation, which could feel threatening to some lecturers.

Students

In one of the Change Agent's opinion, the teacher trainers are not knowledgeable about the laws regarding child rights in Uganda and meant that this is one reason to implement child rights at the department. This was shown in one of the lectures we attended when corporal punishment was being discussed; it became clear to us that neither everyone knew about the prohibition, nor did everyone agree with it. It should though be emphasised that the majority seemed negative toward corporal punishment. This attitude towards corporal punishment could supposedly reflect how people generally think about physical punishment in Uganda, i.e. not everyone are aware of the prohibition which was introduced relatively recently and not everyone agrees with it. Moreover, as mentioned in the theory, corporal punishment is more accepted in societies with high power distance (Hofstede, 2010). This could probably be an inhibiting part of the culture when implementing concepts about child rights at the department.

When one of the Change Agents started to use group work in the course, he said that it "was hard in the beginning" and that some students thought he was "cheating them instead of teaching". However, at the end of the semester, the attitudes had changed a lot and many were positive to the new way of studying. The fact that the students initially were sceptical towards the new student-centred approach in the classroom could be connected to the dimension of power distance. As mentioned before, Uganda is a society where education is relatively centred on the teacher and when trying to change that, it is not surprising that students were critical as it meant implementing something different from what they were used to. As we have seen before, a change that is in contrast with existing norms and values is typically met with resistance (Yukl, 2013). As students are a part of the Change Agents' context, their attitudes towards the concepts they are trying to implement affect their opportunity to do so. A negative attitude among the students would most probably inhibit their possibilities to influence other lecturers to teach differently. However, as declared, the students were later

becoming more positive towards the new ways of teaching, which of course must be supportive in the implementation process. Seen from the perspective of uncertainty avoidance, group work could be regarded as a more uncertain context to study in compared to e.g. lectures and exams, which are more structured ways of working and where the demands are clearer and more explicit. As Uganda has relatively high uncertainty avoidance, it could explain why the introduction of these new ways of working in groups has partly been received sceptically.

4.2.3 Summary

- The strong organisational culture at Makerere University could be an inhibiting factor, as new concepts could be seen as a threat to the culture.
- Some discrepancies have been noted between the espoused values in the national culture and the values that the concepts of child rights are based on. This lack of congruence is an inhibiting factor in the implementation process.
- Different values have different effects on the implementation process. The fact that new knowledge is valued highly in the organisation is supportive. Values that are connected to how children are viewed are rooted in the national culture; these mainly have an inhibiting effect on the implementation process.
- Resistance to change has been noted at the department as an inhibiting factor. This can be explained by the existence of learning anxiety; the anxiety towards having to learn new things.
- Going from teacher-centred methods to student-centred would mean that lecturers are approached by many new situations, e.g. empowering students, redefining the role of a teacher etc. The resistance to these new situations is inhibiting the implementation of a learner-centred approach as it requires an altering of the culture, i.e. changing the ways of “how we do things here”.
- The attitudes towards corporal punishment were diverse among the students, although mainly negative. Further, students were initially sceptical towards the new ways of teaching but this changed and later appreciated them much, which is supportive in the implementations.

4.3 Leadership

The leadership is viewed from two perspectives. Firstly, the Change Agents are leaders in the sense that they possess knowledge about the concepts that are to be spread in the organisation. Secondly, the Change Agents' possibilities to share this competency will be affected by their supervisors who will affect their 'space of action'. Accordingly, the data regarding leadership will be presented in two sections, "Leadership as an external factor" and "Leadership as a tool".

4.3.1 Leadership as an External Factor

An overall impression is that the Change Agents seem to experience quite some flexibility and possibility to manage their own work, "Nobody tells us what to do. We manage our own time and programmes". This, however, that seems more accurate when it concerns the daily work tasks; when it comes to implementing new ideas and concepts, the importance of having the leaders on board becomes greater, "The head will only implement what he supports", as one of the Change Agents stated. However, one colleague meant that the supervisors, if they reject an idea, have to give good reasons why or say, "Add this or contribute themselves and then approve". Another colleague said, "I have not met with challenges with them [the supervisors], if there is something good they would definitely take it on". This is in line with what another colleague said, "I haven't observed that he [the supervisor] has ever rejected something". With regard to how the support from the management influences the implementation process, one of the supervisors said, "With the support of the Dean and HOD, you cannot fail". The other supervisor also meant that a lecturer needs the support from the administrators, which is himself and the other supervisor, in order to educate other members of staff i.e. spread the knowledge in the department. This was further mentioned by a colleague, who said, "The HOD communicates to staff about the new learning, the development and its possibilities". Moreover, this colleague described the HOD as the one who usually is the most knowledgeable person in the department and because of this, is "in a better place to carry on that [the implementations]".

The fact that it is harder to implement something without the support of the leader was experienced by one of the Change Agents, who was not allowed to present the experience in Lund and the new knowledge to the colleagues, "He did not like the idea of me presenting and he thought that no one was interested". Moreover, this manager was described as "a bit rigid and traditional". However, another Change Agent expressed that the leadership at the department and school has been very good and that the lecturers are allowed to talk to people and introduce new things. This Change Agent was allowed to present at a staff meeting after attending the programme. These different perceptions of the leadership are explained by the fact that the person on the lower management position has been exchanged during the implementation process.

Generally, the Change Agents have expressed that the current leaders are supportive and embrace the concepts from the Programme in Lund. This is exemplified by the fact that one of the supervisors already uses a learner-centred approach when teaching, according to himself. The leader of higher rank has been described as "very receptive", "open-minded", and "always positive". Moreover, when asked why the programme is important to the School of Education, this supervisor meant that they are responsible of informing and sharing this information with more people. Saying, "There must be a dose of Child Rights in every course", he further emphasised the importance. This is

also the person that has been in this leader position since the first Change Agent went to Lund.

The different impact from different supervisors can be connected to the LMX theory, which describes that the outcomes of leadership can be very different depending on the characteristics, competences and expectations of both the leader and the follower (Northouse, 2013). As was argued in the theory, all these aspects and the relationship between the leader and the follower must be taken into account when analysing the leadership. Further, the leadership has to be seen in the context where it is taking place. The fact that the outcome was so different with different supervisors can be traced to the different characteristics of the current supervisor and the former; the former was described as rigid and this trait had a negative impact on the relationship as one Change Agent was not allowed to present the new concepts at the department. It is also important to notice that even if the three Change Agents have been to the same programme and therefore, to some extent, have the same competence, their different characteristics, expectations and relationship with their supervisors will probably have affected the outcomes of these relationships and therefore also the different levels of support given. In addition, the different levels of power that the three Change Agents have at the department will affect the relationship with their supervisor and therefore also affect the outcomes of the leadership produced. As will be discussed in another section, the power of the Change Agents will also affect their opportunity to influence their colleagues at the department.

Position Power

Another aspect regarding the supervisors at the department is what kind of power they are holding and what consequences this has for the Change Agents to carry out the implementations. Both supervisors hold a position at the management level that give them authority and what Yukl (2013) calls position power. This includes possibilities but also requirements for them to carry out certain tasks. One kind of position power they have is information power (ibid) as the Change Agents have presented what they have done when returning from the programme. In this way, the Change Agents' knowledge from the programme has been shared with the supervisors. The closest supervisor at the department consequently has the opportunity to share this information with the colleagues at the department, i.e. decides what should be spread or not and what information is important or not. The closest supervisor's attitude to the concepts is thus more "central" to the Change Agents, as he has a more direct effect on what is being spread at the department and not, compared to the higher ranked supervisor. Further, this means that the former 'immediate supervisor', who had a negative attitude, inhibited the implementation but the current, being more positive to the concepts, is more supportive in the implementation process. Moreover, the supervisors can use their legitimate power (ibid) to make decisions. One Change Agent said, "He will only implement what he supports". What is inhibiting the Change Agents is when there is a person on the management position that does not allow them to present their knowledge i.e. when the supervisor uses his legitimate power to prevent them from sharing the concepts from the training programme. What is supporting on the other hand is that the current supervisors support the Change Agents and are letting them speak freely about what they want to implement, e.g. child rights.

Manager versus Leader

Another overall impression from the Change Agents' interviews is that the formal leaders at the department are more managers and administrators than "leaders". This was expressed by one Change Agent as, "We do not have mentoring here" and also that "The University as a whole lacks leaders". Our perception of the supervisors being more like managers and administrators is strengthened by the data we got when we asked how the supervisors were part of the application process for the programme; the answers were mainly about getting "permission", "a signature" and less about *why* they were going. When the supervisors themselves were asked about their leadership tasks, they mainly spoke about "*managing*" lecturers and one of them said, "My role is more an administrator".

This can be connected to the distinction made between transactional and transformational leadership made in the theory (Jackson & Parry, 2011). The fact that the Change Agents only got a signature from the supervisors can be seen as an instrumental exchange between the supervisor and employee. Moreover, transactional leadership is related to the more managerial tasks of leadership and the supervisors' roles in the application seems to have been more managerial as in "giving permission" to go, rather than discussing the contents of the programme and why it was important. As described in the theory, the distinction between "manager" and "leader" is problematic but it seems as if many authors (see for example Yukl, 2013) agree on one point, which is that both is needed but in different situations. If one looks at the situation where the Change Agents were to go to the training programme in Lund, they were of course in need of the authority of the manager to get permission; in this sense, the leadership, or rather "manager-ship" can be seen as a supportive factor in the process. However, as mentioned in the theory, in situations where some sort of change is going to take place, it is the leader rather than the manager that is needed (Yukl, 2013). Since the implementations at the department mean to instigate changes, the absence of leadership could be seen as an inhibiting factor in the process.

4.3.2 Leadership as a Tool

The former section was concerned with the leadership as a factor affecting the Change Agents' possibilities to implement the concepts from the programme in Lund. What follows now is the data and analysis concerning the Change Agents as leaders; one of the Change Agents expressed this as "I can influence colleagues through talks".

One colleague mentioned, "Involving other members of staff through conferences, meetings and network evenings" as ways to implement new concepts at the department. Another example of the Change Agents' leadership is the fact that they have influenced at least two colleagues to apply for the programme in Lund; "X told me to apply, later Y said that it would be good for me", as one of these colleagues said. Moreover, one of the supervisors spoke about two Change Agents as leaders since they have administrative tasks where they coordinate different issues. Seeing the Change Agents as leaders was also expressed by a colleague who stated, "They [the Change Agents] are the drivers at this department".

Personal Power

It is mentioned in the section above that the Change Agents have influenced others to apply, which can be connected to Yukl's (2013) theory about personal power, and more specifically reference power. The colleagues have expressed that they respect the

Change Agents, which is a sign of reference power that can help the Change Agents in getting the colleagues to listen to them. The other form of personal power is called expert power (ibid.). Expert power was exemplified by the statement that the three Change Agents are “the drivers of this department”. When talking to the supervisors and attending lectures, it was obvious that the Change Agents are popular teachers. As mentioned, the literature emphasise that solving problems successfully will increase a person’s expert power (ibid). What these Change Agents do is to handle big classes in a successful way. The expert power they hold can increase their opportunity to receive attention from the colleagues at the department. However, the Change Agents must be aware of the fact that they cannot, to a very large extent, be both the expert and the equal in the implementation process as these roles have different sources of power that contradict each other, the so called expert-reference dilemma (Raven & Erchul, 1997).

In addition, one of the Change Agents was, as mentioned before, positioned at management level when he left for the programme in Lund and also when returning to the department. This person was to begin with not interested in the concepts from the programme but was, with help from another Change Agent, convinced to attend. When coming back, he was determined to make changes at the department as he had really taken on the concepts of the programme. The implementations he made when back was to initiate a curriculum review, create an external course in Child Rights and with regard to the ways of teaching, group discussions were introduced in his lectures as well as co-teaching. In his opinion, the management position he occupied when making those implementations has a big space of operation. He also said that he used “the force as a boss”. It should be mentioned that the other two Change Agents already used the group discussions and co-teaching as teaching methods. When leaving this position at management level, this Change Agent could still use the power or ‘space’, according to himself. The position itself gave him position power but when changing position, this power was turned into personal power. Even though he did not have the authority over e.g. resources, his power was instead connected to his person. Power based on a person’s expertise is called expert power (Yukl, 2013) and will support the implementation process at the department.

4.3.3 Summary

- Leaders’ (supervisors’) and followers’ (Change Agents’) attitudes, expectations and relationship to each other affect the leadership produced. This has had the result of the Change Agents being treated differently and been given different levels of support when returning from the programme in Lund.
- The supervisors have position power regarding decision making and access to information. With regard to the above section, the supervisor’s different characteristics and expectations affect how they use this position power.
- The fact that both the supervisors themselves and we, from the data analysed, regard them more as managers than leaders, could be problematical as the Change Agents are implementing new concepts, i.e. instigating some sort of change, which requires both leadership and ‘manager-ship’ in an organisation.
- The Change Agents have personal power in the implementation process as they are respected at the department and have the knowledge that is to be spread. This power is used as a supporting factor when implementing the concepts.

- At the department, position power can be transformed into personal power. As seen, if one has a managerial position, one can retain that “space” or power even after leaving the position.

5. Discussion

In this last chapter, three separate discussions will be held. Firstly, we will discuss methodological aspects and its challenges, including issues to do with ethnicity, power and gender. Secondly, a discussion regarding the Change Agents' space of action will be made, in order to more extensively answer our last research question and draw final conclusions from our study; this is also where we present our contribution to the research field. Finally, we sum up the discussion with some suggestions on what future research could focus on to further develop knowledge in this area. 5. Reflections on methodology

5.1 Methodological Aspects

As with all research projects, there are always methodological weaknesses. In this chapter, we will discuss how we have dealt with different challenges connected to the methodology. Issues that we will bring up are largely connected to the fact that we come from a different cultural context than our respondents, which brings challenges associated with language, ethnicity and power. We will also discuss matters that often arise in research.

5.1.1 Western Theories

To begin with, it could be questioned to what degree western theories about leadership and organisation conform with the context our study has taken place in. Jackson and Parry (2011) discuss the fact that the absolute majority of leadership research has been carried out in a North American context. Further, they discuss how this affects the “validity and applicability of this research in cultural context elsewhere in the world” (p. 76-77, Jackson & Parry, 2011). They bring up the two main challenges where number one is that the research “has been empirically tested within North American contexts and two; “that the researchers themselves are products of a specific cultural context” (p. 77, *ibid.*). Both these aspects are challenges in our study and affect its validity. However, it should be noted that a leadership study covering 62 countries, called the GLOBE study, found many similarities with regard to what values and practices are associated with effective leadership (*ibid.*). We have tried to meet these challenges by taking the national culture and context into account as one of our main factors affecting the implementation process; even if the leadership theories are grounded in the North American context, the cultural dimensions of Hofstede (2010) have served to modulate the data we have gotten and therefore, the cultural differences have not been forgotten in our research. In addition, this is why our choice of observation as a complementing method has been of key importance since it has allowed us to compare the reality to the theories and how well it corresponds with each other.

5.1.2 Challenges in Data Collection

The process of data collection often results in some difficulties. The ones we have experienced and will discuss below are challenges with observations, how the sample of interviewees has been chosen and lastly, how our supervision on site has affected the research.

Observations

With regard to observations, one must always be aware that the mere presence of researchers will affect the behaviour of the people observed (Cohen et. al, 2007).

However, we have, as far as possible, tried to minimise our effect by staying in the periphery. Nevertheless, we most certainly have had an influence on what has been said and this is something we have been taken into account when analysing the data. One example is when we have heard statements that seem very much rooted in social desirability, we have looked for other statements that support this and if these were not found, we have chosen to disregard this data.

Sample

The aspect of sample is always united with difficulties. To believe that one has made a completely objective sample, if that does even exist, would according to us be to fool ourselves. When choosing interviewees, the first five were relatively easy as they were the Change Agents and the two supervisors. Instead, the challenges arose when we were to choose which colleagues to interview. As mentioned in the methodological chapter, we made a type of convenient sample as we chose members of staff that were available at the time being. Nevertheless, we deliberately picked both colleagues that had been abroad to work or study and ones that had not. It should also be mentioned that we chose not to interview colleagues that we had created a closer connection to by sitting in their office and attending their lectures. We made this choice because these colleagues seemed to be the ones who were mostly “influenced” by the concepts from the training programme in Lund and could therefore give a misleading picture of how colleagues generally perceived the implementations. Nevertheless, one colleague that we interviewed appeared to have applied for the programme but as we did not know this in beforehand, it was just a result of chance and thus more interesting for the study. However, not knowing how much the colleagues knew about the training programme also implied difficulties that we prepared for. In our interview guides, we had one set of questions if the respondent was aware of the programme and implementations made and another if he or she was not. In two of the interviews with the colleagues, they were not very knowledgeable about neither the training programme, nor the implementations. This forced us to direct the interviews towards how implementations at the department generally are affected by different factors. As a result, our data from these interviews are not as closely connected to the implementations from the training programme specifically as we would have wished. On the other hand, the fact that the colleagues were not fully aware of the contents from the programme and the implementations could also be seen as a result in our study, as it indicates how effective the implementations and spreading of the concepts have been.

The scenario described above with the colleagues is very similar to the interview with one of the supervisor, namely the one of lower rank. His lack of knowledge about the training programme in Lund could have to do with the recent merge of the two departments, as he used to belong to the department where the Change Agents do not work. With regard to this, it is natural that he is not as knowledgeable about the training programme and the implementations. Nevertheless, his lack of knowledge could also be regarded as interesting data, as it shows flaws in the communication when merging the two departments and what information was prioritised to give to the new supervisor, i.e. the current one.

Supervision

The last aspect we are going to discuss is the fact that our supervisor in Uganda was also one of the Change Agents. The fact that this person was both our supervisor and

one of the main respondents in the study could be argued to have a clear disadvantage as it created a problematic relationship with regard to power and dependence. However, without having access to his knowledge, both as a participant in the training programme in Lund and as a lecturer at the department, our questions would not have been as relevant. Instead, we argue that because of the relationship with our supervisor, we could access a lot of relevant background information regarding both the programme and the department, which helped us increase the quality of our study.

5.1.3 Gender, Ethnicity and Culture

Other aspects that could have had an effect on our study are aspects such as gender, ethnicity, nationality and culture. With regard to how these issues affect observation, Fangen (2005) discusses how being male or female can have different advantages and disadvantages depending on the research context. Fangen (2005) further refers to Døver, who claims that female researchers are usually met with less scepticism than male ones as they are not seen as a threat to neither the men, nor the women; in addition, Døver means that men usually like to “teach” women, which the female researchers can benefit from in order to collect valuable data. In our study, we have not had problems to get access to the field, which might have to do with us being women. However, we can never be sure that our gender was the reason but it could have been a supporting factor in getting access.

Issues to do with ethnicity and nationality are aspects connected to power (Fangen, 2005). With regard to our study, it is relevant to notice that power is unequally distributed between the western countries and developing countries such as Uganda. Fangen (2005) discusses how researchers from countries that were active in the colonisation of the “third world” have to have this in mind when conducting research in those developing countries. Even if this is not the case for us, we are still white, come from a similar context to e.g. England and might thus be regarded similarly. Moreover, coming from such privileged conditions, we could be seen as representatives of the people that suppress less developed countries (ibid). These issues have their evident challenges but as we have been aware of them, we have also been able to relate to them. Further, we have put in a lot of effort in order to create and build trust with the people we have observed and interviewed.

With regard to culture, issues to do with both language and different frames of reference are important to discuss. Conducting research in another language than your mother tongue has its obvious challenges. Furthermore, it should be noted that this is a two-way challenge as both their English is different from what we are used to and our English is different from their way of speaking. Therefore, we spent a lot of time at the University in order to acclimatise to both pronunciation and how conversations are held. Having spent two weeks at the University before holding our first interview made us well prepared and as we recorded everything in addition to taking notes, we could always listen again to avoid misunderstandings. Growing up in different culture contexts results in us having different frames of references from our respondents; this means that it is harder to fully understand our respondents’ answers than would it have been conducting the study in Sweden. This is yet another aspect we have had in mind when holding our interviews. To deal with this challenge, we have, as mentioned, spent a lot of time in the University context to deepen our understanding of the culture but also asked supplementary questions when we have had a hard time to understand our respondents.

Different Contexts

Another aspect of importance is that we come from the context where the International Programme is held and are thus a part of that context and culture; a learner-centred education is for us as Swedish students expected and a given state. This is something our interviewees have also been aware of and, naturally, this might have affected their attitudes towards us as well as their answers to our questions, and further their behaviours in our presence. The fact that we come from the context where the International programme is held also might give the impression that we represent the programme. This could, unfortunately, lead to our respondents wanting to answer in positive ways regarding the programme and the concepts. Another possible consequence of us coming from the context where the training programme takes place is that we seem to represent the teachers and thus are in a position of being in the “front edge” and represent the desirable ways of how teaching is “supposed to be”. This creates yet another imbalance with regard to power. Our way to deal with these challenges has been to be very clear in the beginning of every interview that we do not represent the International Programme and that we do not evaluate their actions taken around it.

As described in the methodology chapter, the hermeneutic approach values the researcher’s own context and perspective and in addition, the researcher’s pre-understanding is seen as a benefit. Consequently, the fact that we come from the context where the training programme is held gives us valuable knowledge about the Change Agents’ experience there. Moreover, our encounter with their context enables us to shift between those two perspectives and thus, we have gained a broader understanding of the implementation process and its challenges.

5.2 Space of Action

In this section, our fourth research question will be answered by discussing how the Change Agents' space of action appears. As mentioned in the theory, space of action is connected to control, which can be divided into two subcategories, 'control over actions' and 'control over the outcomes' (Ellström, 1992). These two subcategories will be used to describe the Change Agents' space of action. The earlier separation of the three factors will now be abandoned and we have instead interwoven them.

With regard to the Change Agents being autonomous in the daily work, this means that they have 'control over actions', i.e. they can design their lectures how they wish. However, they do not have full control over the outcomes of these actions; the desired outcome of changing their lecture methods is that their colleagues will change as well, but this is not something the Change Agents can guarantee. The ones with more control over the outcomes though are the supervisors at the department. In order for the Change Agents to profit from this, one way would be to have good relationships with the supervisors. This would give them the benefit of controlling both their own actions and, with support from the supervisor, have a larger control on the outcomes, i.e. influence their colleagues in the desired way. The fact that the supervisors have larger control over the outcomes can be explained in at least two ways. Firstly, they have the position power that the Change Agents lack and are therefore in a better position to spread the knowledge formally. Secondly, a leader is as mentioned in the theory a 'role model' in the sense that the leader, or supervisor for that matter, signals to the followers what actions are desirable. This shows how fundamentally important it is for the leader to accept the changes proposed and communicate the advantages of the new ways of working. The fact that one of the supervisors is using student-centred methods when teaching can be seen as one way to show support for the Change Agents' proposed changes. Accordingly, if the Change Agents have good relationships with their supervisors, they will, indirectly "through" their leaders, have a larger control over the outcomes. As they have described, their relationship to their leaders have mainly been positive, with some exceptions, which give them some control over the outcomes in addition to their control over their actions.

However, it must be noted that the three Change Agents have unique relationships with both their supervisors, as they are individuals with different characteristics. Being individuals also mean that they have different types of relationships with their colleagues. All this affects the Change Agents' personal power at the department. In addition, the different positions they have had and have today result in them having different types, and amount, of personal power. Specifically, the Change Agent that held, and still holds, a position of higher rank has more personal power as the position power has been "transformed" into personal power. Having personal power increases the chances of influencing their colleagues, which means that the more personal power the Change Agents have, the more control over the outcomes they have. Since the three Change Agents have different amounts of personal power, they thus have different levels of control over the outcomes.

To be able to influence the strong culture that the University has, it becomes clear that the Change Agents are in need of both the leadership and "manager-ship" from their supervisors. As noted earlier, the supervisors are more managers than leaders. Even more, they have mainly acted as managers towards the Change Agents by letting them go to the training programme etcetera. However, when it comes to the managerial tasks

of helping and supporting the Change Agents to spread the concepts horizontally, the supervisors have not used their position power to do so. Moreover, they have not to any great extent used their personal power to influence the colleagues at the department. In addition, the lack of standardisation regarding how new knowledge should be implemented at the department could be seen as a reason for why the supervisors have not contributed actively to spread the concepts horizontally. Nevertheless, the fact that the supervisors have been regarded as positive, supportive and acknowledged the importance of child rights should not be underestimated in the implementation process; this has given the Change Agents control over actions e.g. being able to present the concepts to their colleagues at the staff meeting. However, to be able to have a larger control over the outcomes of this information, a more active role from the supervisors would have been desirable.

Resistance to change, which has been noted at the department, is connected to the strong culture in the whole organisation, including the department. This resistance directly obstructs the Change Agents' control over the outcomes. In other words, if the Change Agents talk about the training programme and its concept and start changing their ways of teaching but are met with scepticism and resistance from their colleagues, they have control over their own actions but do not influence their environment i.e. their colleagues, in the desired way. If, on the other hand, the culture was more open towards change, the Change Agents would not automatically have had control over the outcomes but the likelihood of influencing their colleagues in the desired way would have been greater. Moreover, the students' attitudes towards the new ways of teaching is another aspect to be taken into account in the influencing process; positive attitudes would most probably increase the likelihood of the colleagues to start working in the new ways.

Another aspect that has an impact on the likelihood of influencing the department in the desired way is that of values. As noted, both discrepancies and congruence exist between the values at the department and the values that the training programme in Lund is based on. It should be noted that we do not think that absolute control over the outcomes does ever exist. It is rather a question of more or less control. The more congruence, the more likely it is that the Change Agents are able to influence their colleagues and/or supervisors in the desired way.

The fact that there is a lot of bureaucracy when it comes to changing or starting a new course directly limits the Change Agents' possibilities to carry out the implementations at the department. The same goes for implementations that require money. This means that the Change Agents do not even have control over actions in this matter; if they for example would like to hold a seminar that requires materials i.e. money, this would not be within their control to decide on. This is true also for starting a new course or creating a new formal course unit on child rights, which would also require involvement from other levels in the organisational structure.

In conclusion, the Change Agents' space of action is mainly characterised by control over actions but to a very small extent control over the outcomes. As noted in the end of this discussion, in some areas they do not even have control over actions. Another way to put it is that they have space of action when it comes to the more *informal* implementations such as talking about child rights during their own lectures, changing their ways of teaching and talking to colleagues about the concepts. However, when it comes to more *formal* implementations such as creating new courses, holding seminars

and spreading the new ways of teachings in a more formal way e.g. by educating other members of staff, the space of action is much more limited.

5.2.1 Concluding reflections

This thesis began with investigating what within the leadership, culture and structure at the department have inhibited and/or supported the implementation process. Later, with help of theories, we analysed in what way the three factors influenced the process. After this, our fourth research question regarding the Change Agents' space of action was discussed and we mapped out what possibilities they have to implement the concepts from the programme in Lund at their department. A natural next step would now be to discuss how the Change Agents can benefit from this research in order to expand their space of action i.e. increase their opportunities to implement the concepts. This discussion will partly be based on what we have seen to inhibit the implementations but also what we think has been absent to fully be able to implement the concepts formally at the department. We will discuss how awareness of these aspects will help them relate to the more negative aspects that have inhibited the implementations in order to overcome them. Moreover, we will discuss how they can use the aspects of the factors that have shown to support the implementation.

To begin with, many values that have affected the process have been brought up. A supportive value that has been mentioned is the fact that new knowledge is appreciated at the department. This value could be supportive for the Change Agents to emphasize when talking to and influencing colleagues. Further, the Change Agents should aim for identifying more values that are congruent with the implementations. Yet another method to continue spreading the concepts at the department would be to empower the already convinced colleagues; by making them feel that they have an important role to play in spreading the concepts, a snowball effect would be created at the department where more people would be acting as Change Agents.

However, as mentioned, there are values that are incongruent with the concepts. We hope that this thesis have created an awareness of these discrepancies and that being aware of them will help the Change Agents to adapt their ways of talking about child rights so that it is more congruent with different colleagues' values. This has already been done by talking about emotional intelligence, which is one way of speaking about child rights but not directly. This is a fruitful way to contextualize the concepts so that they are adapted to values that are congruent with the values at the department. We encourage the Change Agents to find more of these ways to contextualize the concepts in order to influence more people at the department; the more people that are influenced in the desired way, the larger space of action they will get.

The above section describes how incongruence between the values at the department and the concepts from the training programme in Lund is a reason for resistance to the suggested changes. Further, we described how the Change Agents can find ways to overcome these obstacles. We would like to point out two other aspects that are important to have knowledge about in a change process, which are inspired by the literature. Firstly, it is of crucial importance for the Change Agents to be aware of the leaders' importance as 'role models' in the implementation process. This means that both the supervisors and the Change Agents as informal leaders have to be attentive to the fact that more or less everything they do and what issues they choose to focus on, serve as examples to the other staff members at the department. Secondly, another task

for both the formal and informal leaders is to make the changes feel necessary and desirable. This means that they have to make the advantages of the new ways of working visible for the staff.

One thing that appeared after analysing the data was the absence of a standardised follow-up after the Change Agents returned from Lund. What they have done is to inform their supervisors about the contents from the programme; however, what we suggest is a standardized plan for how the acquired competence is utilized and shared at the department. If this kind of system is created, the department will work more proactively with in-service training. Moreover, this system would benefit both supervisors, Change Agents and other lecturers that attend training programmes in the future; partly as their different roles in the follow-up process will be more clear, partly as the implementation will not only be dependent on the individual's interests or expectations.

With regard to the above discussion about the Change Agents' space of action, our contribution to the research field has been made. Very little has been written in the field of space of action and the available literature is in addition quite aged. Nevertheless, the concept of 'space of action' is widely used, not least in various dissertations, but is often used with a meaning taken for granted, without further problematizing and theorising the concept. Our discussion of the Change Agents' space of action with regard to control over actions and control of outcomes is thus hopefully a valuable contribution to the research field. Moreover, the way we have developed the concept of space of action and further divided it into the mandate to make formal respectively informal implementations is yet a contribution as it shows a new way of looking at space of action. In the next section, we will discuss what further research in the field could focus on.

5.3 Further Research and Improvements

As with all studies, when reaching the stage of “concluding reflections”, it becomes obvious what more aspects would have been of interest to investigate. As the time given to this study has already been exceeded, we will in this section shed light on which areas could be further studied, with the hope that some of our readers find it to be their mission to do so.

One main aspect is the lack of a standardised system on how to make the most out of lecturers’ newly acquired knowledge. Further research could focus on how this type of system might look, what important aspects must be considered and how it best would promote organisational learning.

Another aspect that could further be analysed is how the learning process in an organisation takes place; in this thesis, we have focused on how different factors affect the implementation of the concepts and mainly seen it as a process of change. Nevertheless, it could also be seen as a form of organisational learning where competence is shared, at least to some extent. Further research could wear the glasses of workplace learning and from that point of view look at other inhibiting and supporting factors.

A last reflection, not directly connected to further research but rather to how the training programme could be improved, will now be made. If the lecturers at the training programme in Lund could create space for a discussion where the participants could lift the issue of how the concepts are to be implemented at their own workplace, we believe that the Change Agents would be better equipped to do so. As the programme is structured today, the focus is to run a project in their home country after attending the programme, which is mainly focused on schools. However, in order to make the Change Agents’ work more long-term, a focus on their own workplace could be suitable and they could see the process of being a Change Agent as “life-long learning”. Moreover, tools and education to the Change Agents’ colleagues would further endorse the implementations and create a “snowball-effect”; this would of course require a lot of resources but might in the end be repaid by the surplus value created.

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Appendix

Below are our four interview guides; one for the Change Agents, two separate for the supervisors and finally one for the colleagues.

Appendix 1. Interview guide - Change Agents

We will inform them that the data will be treated confidentially and that they are free to break off the interview at any time. We will tell them that the interviews will be recorded but that the recording will only be used by us when analysing data.

Further, we will inform about the study and the aim of this project and moreover, that we study Human Resources. We will emphasise that we are not a part of the Child Right, Classroom and School Management Programme, i.e. we do not represent it. We will further make clear that our study is not an evaluation of neither the programme nor the them as change agents.

Background

- How long have you been working at the Department/School of Education?
- What is your position at the Department of Foundations and Curriculum Studies?
- Please tell us more about your position in terms of responsibilities and duties.

- What subjects do you teach?

- How many hours a week do you teach at the Faculty?

The International Programme (i.e. the Child Right, Classroom and School Management Programme)

- What year did you attend the programme in Lund?
- Why did you apply for this programme?
- Was your supervisor a part of the application process? (specify which supervisor)

- Where there any obstacles to attend the programme (go abroad)?

- What did you think about the programme in general?
- What parts of the programme did you find more interesting? Why?

- How did you implement the concepts from the programme at the department? (way of lecturing, way of greeting, literature)
- From your perspective, where in the process of implementation are you now? (finished or life-long learning...)
- How did/are people react to the implementations? Colleagues, students, supervisors (focus on the implementation at the department)
 - Has this reaction changed?

- When you tried/trying to implement this in your organisation, was there anything in particular that helped you in this process? Anything particular that inhibited the

implementation?

Explain the three factors that are to be investigated and that both supporting and inhibiting aspects will be taken into account. This is where we will go deeper into the three factors, even if we have briefly discussed them earlier

Structure

- How does *the organisational structure* in general affect your opportunity to initiate change/make implementations at the department?
 - What positive aspects are there?
 - What negative aspects are there?

- The implementations you wanted to perform at your department, how were these decided upon? (decision-making)
 - Were there changes that you were not able to do?

- How does *your position* affect your opportunity to initiate change? (position specifically)

Culture

- What did your colleagues think about you attending this programme?
 - Did others also want to attend?/Did others also apply for the programme?

- Did you discuss the contents of the programme with you colleagues?
 - Were they interested in hearing about it?

- How was the implementation received at the department? (Were people involved? What did your colleagues think about the implementations you made?)

- What do you think they (colleagues and supervisors) perceived to be the aim of the implementations?
 - According to you, how well does the values of the implementation correspond with the values at the department?

Leadership

- How much did your supervisor know about the Child Rights, Classroom and School Management Programme?

- Do you feel that you have had enough resources to carry out the implementations?
 - E.g. in terms of time, money, support. (Both positive and negative)

- In general, in what way does the leadership at the department affect your opportunity to initiate changes/make implementations at?

- Is there anything else that has affected this implementation that we have not spoken about today?

Appendix 2. Interview guide - Colleagues

We will inform them that the data will be treated confidentially and that they are free to break off the interview at any time. We will tell them that the interview will be recorded but that the recording will only be used by us when analysing data.

Further, we will inform about the study and the aim of this project and moreover, that we study Human Resources. We will emphasise that we are not a part of the Child Right, Classroom and School Management Programme, i.e. we do not represent it. We will further make clear that our study is also not an evaluation of neither the programme nor the change agents.

Background

- How long have you been working at the School of Education?
- How long have you been working at the Department of Foundations and Curriculum Studies?
- What is your position at the Department?
- Please tell us more about your position in terms of responsibilities and duties.
- What subjects do you teach?
- How many hours a week do you teach at the Faculty?

The programme

- How much do you know about the contents of the Programme that Peter, Anthony and Betty attended?

If knowledgeable: - Why is this important for the Department of Foundation and Curriculum Studies?

The implementations

- Has something changed at this department after these three came back from this programme? (maybe one more than the others...) In what way?
 - What did you perceive to be the *aim* of these implementations?

If knowledgeable: In what way has this *affected your department?* (e.g. students more participative)

- What do you think “**people in general**” at the faculty think about these implementations?
 - What do **you** think about this these implementations?
- What factors can you see that support the implementation of the concepts?
- What factors might inhibit the implementation process?
- How does *the organisational structure* in general affect their (Betty, Peter & Anthony) opportunity to initiate change?

- How well does the implementations correspond with the values in the department?

If not knowledgeable: More generally, when lecturers attend training programmes, both in Uganda and in elsewhere, in what way are these concepts implemented?

- What factors can you see that *support* the implementation of the concepts?
- What factors might *inhibit* the implementation process?

- How does *the organisational structure* in general affect initiating of changes (when it comes from a lecturer versus HOD etc)?

- What role would Head of the Department have in a process of implementing new concepts? The Dean? Other leaders?

- How does *the organisational culture* in general affect initiating of changes (when it comes from a lecturer versus HOD etc)?

Appendix 3. Interview guide - Dean, School of Education

We will tell the Dean that the interview will be recorded but that the recording will only be used by us when analysing data. We will further inform about the study and the aim of this project and moreover, that we study Human Resources. We will emphasise that we are not a part of the International Training Programme, i.e. we do not represent it. Further, we will make it clear that this is not an evaluation of neither the programme nor the change agents.

Background

- *How long* have you been working at the School of Education?
 - For how long have you been working as dean?

- Please tell us more about your position in terms of *responsibilities and duties* (Finance? In charge of personnel?)

- What is your major *subject*?

- What do you perceive to be the most *important leadership tasks* at the School of Education?

The programme

- How much do you know about the contents of the programme that Peter, Betty and Anthony attended?

If knowledgeable: - Why is this important for the School of Education?

The implementations

- Has something changed at this department after these three came back from this programme? In what way?
 - What did you perceive to be the *aim* of these implementations?

If knowledgeable: In what way has this *affected the department/School of Education?* (e.g. students more participative)

- What do you think **people in general** at the faculty think about these implementations?
 - What do **you** think about these implementations?)

 - What factors can you see that support the implementation of the concepts?
 - What factors might inhibit the implementation process?

- What has *your role* been in this implementation process?

- How does *the organisational structure* in general affect their (Betty's, Peter's & Anthony's) opportunity to initiate changes/implement the concepts?

- How well does the implementations correspond with the values in the school?

- How well does the implementations correspond/agree with the values in the department of foundation and curriculum studies?

If not knowledgeable: When lecturers attend this kind of programmes, in what way are these concepts implemented?

- What factors can you see that *support* the implementation of the concepts?
- What factors might *inhibit* the implementation process?

- How does *the organisational structure* in general affect initiating of changes (when it comes from a lecturer, HOD etc)?

- What would *your role* be in this implementation process?

- How does *the organisational culture* in general affect initiating of changes (when it comes from a lecturer, HOD etc)?

Appendix 4. Interview guide - Head of Department

We will tell the HOD that the interview will be recorded but that the recording will only be used by us when analysing data. We will further inform about the study and the aim of this project and moreover, that we study Human Resources. We emphasise that we are not a part of the International Training Programme, i.e. we do not represent it. Further, we will make it clear that this is not an evaluation of neither the programme nor the change agents.

Background

- *How long* have you been working at the School of Education?
 - For how long have you been working as head of department? Who was HOD before you?

- What is your major *subject*?

- Please tell us more about your position in terms of *responsibilities and duties* (Finance? In charge of personnel?)

- What do you perceive to be the most *important leadership tasks* at the Department of Foundations and Curriculum Studies?

The programme

- How much do you know about the contents of the programme Child Rights and Classroom Management?

If knowledgeable: - Why is this important for the Department of Foundation and Curriculum Studies?

The implementations

- Has something changed at this department after these three came back from this programme? In what way?
 - What did you perceive to be the *aim* of these implementations?

If knowledgeable: In what way has this *affected your department*? (e.g. students more participative)

- What do you think **people in general** at the faculty think about these implementations?
- What do **you** think about these implementations?)

- What factors can you see that support the implementation of the concepts?
- What factors might inhibit the implementation process?

- What has *your role* been in this implementation process?

- How does *the organisational structure* in general affect their (Betty, Peter & Anthony) opportunity to initiate change?

- How well does the implementations correspond with the values at the Department of Foundations and Curriculum Studies?

If not knowledgeable: When lecturers attend this kind of programmes, in what way are these concepts implemented?

- What factors can you see that *support* the implementation of the concepts?
- What factors might *inhibit* the implementation process?

- What would *your role* be in this implementation process?

- How does *the organisational structure* in general affect initiating of changes/implementations (when it comes from a lecturer versus HOD etc)?



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