



Overview of Organization Development

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The central view of organization development (OD) is that OD has the capability of *unleashing human expertise*, resulting in improvements at the organization, work process, team, and individual levels. OD constitutes the smaller realm of HRD practitioner activity when compared to training and development (T&D). It can also be argued, however, that OD has a larger or more systemic influence on the organization. As much effort has been focused within organization development on studying individuals in organizations as it has been on studying organizations themselves. Although this is the history of OD, there is a growing shift to an organizational system focus beyond individuals and groups within OD theory and practice.

Organization development practice is more likely to be focused on existing conditions that are not functioning well than on long-range improvement or holistic change efforts. In all cases, whether present performance issues related to system maintenance or system changes for the future, OD interventions deal with the *change process* for the purpose of improvement. Cummings and Worley provide a definition of organization development that helps introduce this chapter: "Organization development is a system-wide application of behavioral science knowledge to the planned development, improvement, and reinforcement of the strategies, structures, and processes that lead to organization effectiveness" (Cummings and Worley, 1997, p. 1).

In earlier chapters, we identified three core theories that stand as the basis of HRD, T&D, and OD: psychological, systems, and economic theories. Embracing the three necessarily causes us to revise the previous definition to go beyond the behavioral science base (psychological only) that has limited OD. A revised definition would read as follows:

Organization development is a system-wide application of behavioral and social science knowledge (primarily psychological, systems, and economic theories) to the planned development, improvement, and reinforcement of the strategies, structures, and processes that lead to organization performance.

Our concise definition of OD is as follows:

Organization development is a process of systematically unleashing expertise for the purpose of improving performance.

Organizational leaders need help in their quest for sustainable performance. According to Beer and Nohria (2000), the mantra for the twenty-first century is to "lead change." They go on to report, "The results are not always encouraging, however. . . . The dramatic reduction in CEO tenure confirms that leaders do not have the knowledge and skills, or perhaps the will to transform their companies" (p. ix). Clearly, organizations need OD, and high-quality OD interventions are required to help organizations achieve their performance goals.

VIEWS OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

There is no single view of OD. The nature of organizations, the conditions surrounding the need for system change, and the process of change all vary so greatly that one lens would be inadequate. Alternative views are useful. Multiple snapshots will be presented in this chapter to capture the range of thinking in OD. First, we will look at some of the variation in the outcomes and definitions of OD as presented by various experts. Second, we will revisit early change models, including Lewin's classic unfreeze-move-refreeze change process. Third, we will take a look at whole systems change such as the rigorous Brache's (2002) holistic approach to organizational health.

The Outcome Variable and Definitions of OD

A great deal of literature and practice is aimed at systematically implementing organizational change for the purpose of improving performance that does not formally call itself "OD." From Beckhard's 1969 definition (the first reported use of the term in the literature) to the present, OD has been on an evolutionary journey. Egan (2000) produced an extensive report of this definitional history that is worth reviewing. Selections from that review along with some recent additions are presented in Figure 13.1.

Egan (2000) concludes from his analysis that ten key outcome variables are reported throughout the definitional literature (Figure 13.2). Reviewing these purported outcomes of OD highlights the range of thinking. For example, *Facilitating Learning and Development* as an outcome is very different from *Enhancing Profitability and Competitiveness*. The compilation of OD definitions found in the literature helps in understanding the range of thinking in OD and its historical development.

Taxonomy of Performance

Once again, the taxonomy of performance (see Figure 10.1) is one way of gaining perspective on OD. It poses the two challenges of "maintaining the system" and "changing the system." Both realms can demand OD interventions as the development of human expertise (T&D) may not be enough to get the system improved. The "changing the system" portion of the taxonomy of performance—in the form of improvements or inventions of whole new systems—is where the most challenging and risky OD work takes place. This is also where the dark side of OD is most evident. The tools of OD (and HRD) are powerful in directing, controlling, and manipulating human behavior for negative, as well as positive, ends. Using OD to get employees to accept unfair and exploitative policies and practices is rarely discussed. Most organizational bankruptcy and restructuring efforts use sophisticated OD tools to get employee acceptance of downward

Figure 13.1 Selected Organization Development Definitions

Author	Date	Definitions	Outcome Variable
Beckhard	1969	Organization development is an effort (1) planned, (2) organization-wide, and (3) managed from the top, to (4) increase organization effectiveness and health through (5) planned interventions in the organization's "processes," using behavior-science knowledge.	Increase organization effectiveness and health
Bennis	1969	Organization development (OD) is a response to change, a complex educational strategy intended to change the beliefs, attitudes, values, and structure of organizations so that they can better adapt to new technologies, markets, and challenges and the dizzying rate of change itself.	Adapt to new technologies, markets, challenges and change
Beer	1980	Organization development is a system-wide process of data collection, diagnosis, action, planning, intervention, and evaluation aimed at (1) enhancing congruence between organizational structure, process, strategy, people, and culture; (2) developing new and creative organizational solutions; and (3) developing the organization's renewing capacity. It occurs through collaboration of organizational members working with a change agent using behavioral science theory, research, and technology	Enhancing congruence; Developing creative organizational solutions and developing renewing capacity
Porras and Robertson	1992	Organizational development is a set of behavioral science-based theories, values, strategies, and techniques aimed at the planned change of the organizational work setting for the purpose of enhancing individual development and improving organizational performance, through the alteration of organizational members' on-the-job behavior.	Enhancing individual development and organizational performance
Cummings and Worley	1993	Organization development is a system-wide application of behavioral science knowledge to the planned development and reinforcement of organizational strategies, structures, and processes for improving an organization's effectiveness.	Improving organizational effectiveness
Burke	1994	Organization development is a planned process of change in an organization's culture through the utilization of behavioral science technologies, research, and theory.	Culture change

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Figure 13.1 Continued

Author	Date	Definitions	Outcome Variable
McLagan	1989	Organization Development: Assuring healthy inter- and intra-unit relationships and helping groups initiate and manage change. Organization development's primary emphasis is on relationships and processes between and among individuals and groups. Its primary intervention is influence on the relationship of individuals and groups to effect and impact the organization as a system.	Initiate and manage change to effect and impact the organization
French and Bell	1999	Organization development is a long-term effort, led and supported by top management, to improve an organization's visioning, empowerment, learning, and problem-solving processes, through an ongoing, collaborative management of organization culture—with special emphasis on the culture of intact work teams and other team configurations—using the consultant-facilitator role and the theory and technology of applied behavioral science, including action research.	Improve visioning, empowerment, learning and problem-solving processes
Lynham	1997	Organization development is a process of planned, systemic change through the utilization of human expertise for the purpose of improving individual, group, process, and organization performance.	Improve performance: individual, group, process, and organization
McLean	2006	Organization development is any process or activity, based on the behavioral sciences, that, either initially or over the long term, has the potential in an organizational setting to enhance knowledge, expertise, productivity, satisfaction, income, interpersonal relationships, and other desired outcomes, whether for personal or group/team gain, or for the benefit of an organization, community, nation, region, or, ultimately, the whole of humanity.	Enhance knowledge, expertise, productivity, satisfaction, income, interpersonal relationships and other desired outcomes
Swanson	2008	Organization development is a process of systematically unleashing human expertise for the purpose of improving performance.	Improve performance: individual, group, process and organization

Source: Adapted from Egan 2000, pp. 14–16. Used with Permission.

Figure 13.2 Ten Key Dependent Variables from Definitions of Organization Development

Facilitate Learning and Development
 Improve Problem Solving
 Advance Organizational Renewal
 Strengthen System and Process Improvement
 Increase Effectiveness
 Enhance Profitability and Competitiveness
 Ensure Health and Well-being of Organizations and Employees
 Initiate and/or Manage Change
 Support Adaptation to Change
 Engage Organization Culture Change

Source: Egan, 2000. Used with permission.

compensation and benefits while at the same time upper management very often retains and even gains added rewards. OD that is partner in facilitating acceptance of an increase in a disproportionate slice of the consequences of performance is an ethical problem facing the profession. For example, the financial burden required for United Airlines to reemerge from bankruptcy in 2003 was disproportionately borne by workers and retirees while top management went unscathed. Familiar OD tools were used to gain employee concessions.

An organizational system that is mature, works well, and yields great returns will not necessarily remain in that state. A variety of forces causes organizations to deteriorate and sometimes to simply disappear. Fundamental paradigm shifts in technology or customer demands are two examples. Thus, leaders and managers have the continuing pressure of changing their organizational systems to meet the new demands of the immediate and far future. Curiously, it gives rise to an odd variation of a familiar phrase, "If it ain't broke, fix it!"

Early Change Models

The classic change model of "unfreezing, moving, and refreezing" is attributed to Kurt Lewin (1951). This simple and basic model still has utility today as a word picture of change. The unfortunate part of this view is its rigid beginning and end states. But the 1950s was a different time. Today's view of the world is closer to *continuous* change. As powerful as Lewin's frozen imagery remains, it was refuted by systems theory in the 1950s, which informed us that all systems are open and therefore fluid and adapting.

It is important to note that the focal point of Lewin's work was on individuals and groups within organizations. The unfreeze-move-freeze model declares that *information* highlighting the discrepancy between the actual and desired be-

haviors among stakeholders will result in their willingness to engage in the change process—or to unfreeze. This was a fairly popular notion among various scholarly communities at the time and remains a basic tenet among many OD professionals.

Moreover, prior to Lewin's work, Gunnar Myrdal (1944), the Swedish economist who studied the white-black racial divide in the United States, proposed that in a democratic society the higher-order beliefs among its members would win out over unexamined illogical practices. This idea is fundamental to OD practice, and it is interesting to note that so many of the implicit values of OD coming out of the behavioral sciences are predicated on democracy. Myrdal was named Nobel laureate in 1974 for his pioneering and penetrating analysis of the interdependence of economic, social, and institutional phenomena.

Lewin's moving phase involves intervening in the organization through changes in the organizational processes and structures to develop a new set of values and behaviors. The *refreezing* phase is one that systemically installs and reinforces the new set of values and behaviors. Again, while the freeze-move-refreeze metaphor dominates the interpretation of Lewin, it is his reliance on information showcasing discrepancies between actual and desired states that is probably the greater contribution to OD.

That Lewin was a scholar (not simply a problem solver) who experimented with the change process of individuals in the actual social situation, or the milieu of life, led to "field theory." *Field theory* is the proposition that human behavior is related to one's personal characteristics and the environment (Lewin, 1954). This view of OD—working through the individuals and groups from a psychologist's view—continues to resonate in OD theory and practice. A rival to this behavioral science view is to study the organizational system and its connection with individuals from a social science perspective.

Whole System Change

One of the key characteristics of substantive whole system change through OD is the commitment to carefully study the organizational system. (This stands in contrast to engaging groups in a generic problem-solving method along with a reliance on stakeholder perception data as a measure of the intervention effectiveness.) Whole system change requires (1) careful study of the organization and (2) reliance on multiple sources of data. There is a fair amount of trite literature about whole system change that misses these two requirements and is reduced to action-oriented problem solving on narrowly focused issues.

Two examples of whole system OD can be characterized by system-level performance improvement by Brache (2002) and scenario planning by Schwartz (1996). Brache (2002) advocates a holistic analysis, planning, and action approach to organizational health that is "a function of understanding and managing an intricate and entwined set of variables" (p. 3). Schwartz advocates a scenario process of planning for an uncertain future and preparing for alternative

futures. The goal of his holistic future state systems planning is to provide paths to strategic insight for individuals and the company. Scenario planning can be seen as the expansive thinking that precedes traditional strategic planning.

The role of HRD and OD in strategic organizational planning is ill defined at best. One model for thinking about the theory and practice of strategic HRD combines scenario planning and strategic planning into strategic organizational planning (Swanson, Lynham, Ruona, and Provo, 1998). Central to this thinking are the three strategic roles of HRD and the inclusion of scenario building along with traditional strategic planning into an overall framework of strategic organizational planning. (See Figure 13.3).

HRD that is truly of strategic value to an organization is (1) *performance based*—it must contribute directly to important business goals and must be based on key business performance requirements; (2) *it demonstrates its strategic capability*—provides strategic organizational planning education and learning, and actively participates in the strategic organizational planning process, and (3) it is responsive to the emergent nature of strategy—it assumes a deliberate role in the emergent nature of strategic organizational planning (Torraco and Swanson, 1995).

KEY ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT TERMS

Beyond the definition of OD, key concepts and terms provide a basis of understanding the profession. A range of definitions are provided in Figure 13.4 that include basic OD terms as well as strategic OD and change role OD terms.

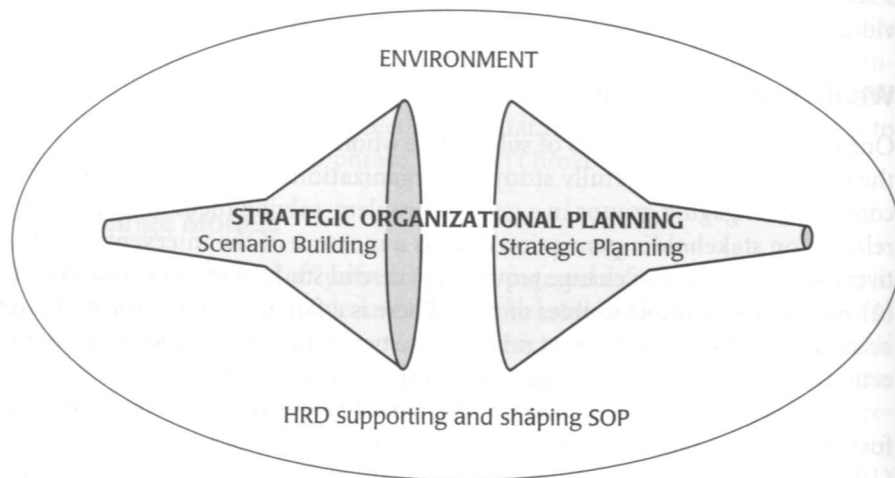


Figure 13.3 Strategic Organizational Planning (SOP)

Source: Swanson, Lynham, Ruona, and Provo, 1998, p. 591.

Figure 13.4 Definitions of Selected Organization Development Terms

OD Term	Description/Definition of the Term
Client	The client is the organization, group, or individuals whose interests the change agent primarily serves. It is to the client that the consultant is responsible. On occasion the "client" may differ from those who originally sponsored, or participated in, the change effort.
Culture	The basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organization, that operate unconsciously, and that define in a basic "taken-for-granted" fashion an organization's view of itself and its environment.
Intervention	A change effort or a change process. It implies an intentional entry into an ongoing system for the purpose of initiating or introducing change. The term <i>intervention</i> refers to a set of planned activities intended to help the organization increase its effectiveness.
Environment	Those external elements and forces that can affect the attainment of strategic goals, including suppliers, customers, competitors, and regulators, as well as cultural, political, and economic forces.
Human process intervention	Intervention processes focus on improving communication, problem solving, decision making, and leadership. Derive mainly from the disciplines of psychology and the applied fields of group dynamics and human relations.
Strategic intervention	Interventions that link the internal functioning of the organization to the larger environment and transform the organization to keep pace with changing conditions. They are organization-wide and bring about a fit among business strategy, structure, culture, and the larger environment.
Techno-structural intervention	Interventions focused on the technology and structure of organizations. Are rooted in the disciplines of systems engineering, sociology, and psychology and in the applied fields of sociotechnical systems and organization design.
Client-centered consultation	Using the client's knowledge and experience, by the OD practitioner, in delivery and conduct of the consulting process. Ensures consultant's views are not imposed on the client and that the client develops the expertise and knowledge to conduct and sustain the intervention.
Process	Refers to "how" things are done. Is a key definitional component of OD and is dynamic in nature. For example, products or service delivery methods and how inputs get converted to outputs.
Mission	The organization's major strategic purpose or reason for existing. May include specification of target customers and markets, principal products or services, geographic domain, core technologies, strategic objectives, and desired public image.
Change	A departure from the status quo and implies movement toward a goal, an idealized state, or a vision of what should be, and movement away from present conditions, beliefs, or attitudes.
Change agent	A person or team responsible for beginning and maintaining a change effort. May come from inside the organization (internal consultant) or from outside the organization (external consultant).

(continued)

Figure 13.4 Continued

OD Term	Description/Definition of the Term
Sponsor	The one/s who underwrites, legitimizes, and champions a change effort or OD intervention.
Stakeholder	The one who has an interest in the change intervention. Includes such stakeholders as customers, suppliers, distributors, employees, and government regulators.

THE GENERAL ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

We have defined OD as a five-phase process that is essentially a problem-defining and problem-solving method related to the organization. For those who react negatively to the notion of problems, we suggest the use of a positive word of their choice (e.g., *opportunity, change, improvement*, etc). In fact, there is an OD methodology called *appreciative inquiry* that demands a positive approach to change (Cooperrider and Srivastva, 1987). This method only allows for the search and utilization of positive information in the OD process and thus is criticized for not presenting the complete picture (McLean, 2006).

The general five-phase process that captures the essence of OD is as follows:

1. Analyze/contract
2. Diagnose/feedback
3. Plan/develop
4. Implement
5. Evaluate/institutionalize

Recall that we identified the HRD phases as analyze, propose, create, implement, and assess and the T&D phases as analyze, design, develop, implement, and assess.

There are several overriding constructs that generally undergird sound OD. First, organization development involves planned and systemic change, as opposed to short-term, intuitive, or segregated change. Second, organization development is aimed at ensuring the development of the requisite human expertise necessary to initiate, implement, maintain, and sustain the targeted change. Third, organization development is guided by system theory, meaning that the planned change is understood and managed in terms of integrated inputs, processes, outputs, and feedback. Fourth, it is itself a process; that is, organization development involves a specific *way* of implementing change, which is informed by humanistic values and theories, techniques and tools. Fifth, organization development takes place within a performance system and for purposes of per-

formance improvement within that performance system. Finally, organization development results in outputs in various domains of performance—for example, individual, group, process, and organization/system performance.

Unfortunately, the application of organization development is not always implemented in a manner that reflects these characteristics. Common criticisms of organization development include change interventions that are often fragmented and disconnected from the core business performance outcomes; interventions that build dependence on the external consultant for the expertise needed by the organization to maintain and sustain the change begun; change “cures” that are based more on the expertise of the change agent (usually external to the organization) than on the performance needs of the organization; a lack of ability and intent to show measurable, verifiable outcomes throughout and in conclusion of the change implemented; and the dilemma of short-term, high-turnover leadership in the context of long-term, large-scale change that depends on ongoing leadership support.

OD professionals within HRD usually do not talk about their work in universally agreed-upon terms, and many OD process models having unique terminology exist. Three models are reviewed here to illustrate some of the range in thinking. They are: Action Research (AR), the Organization Development Process (ODP), and the Organization Development for Performance System (ODPS).

ACTION RESEARCH: PROBLEM-SOLVING METHOD

Cummings and Worley (2001) have summarized “action research” (actually a problem-solving method) in eight steps (Figure 13.5). Some claim that action research is the foundation for most OD interventions (Rothwell et al., 1995). The Cummings and Worley (2001) portrayal of the action research process and their description of each process step follows (pp. 24–26):

1. *Problem identification.* This stage usually begins with a key executive in the organization or someone with power and influence who senses that the organization has one or more problems that might be solved with the help of an OD practitioner.
2. *Consultation with a behavioral science expert.* During the initial contact, the OD practitioner and the client carefully assess each other. The practitioner has his or her own normative, developmental theory or frame of reference and must be conscious of those assumptions and values. Sharing them with the client from the beginning establishes an open and collaborative atmosphere.
3. *Data gathering and preliminary diagnosis.* This step is usually completed by the OD practitioner, often in conjunction with organization members. It involves gathering appropriate information and analyzing it to

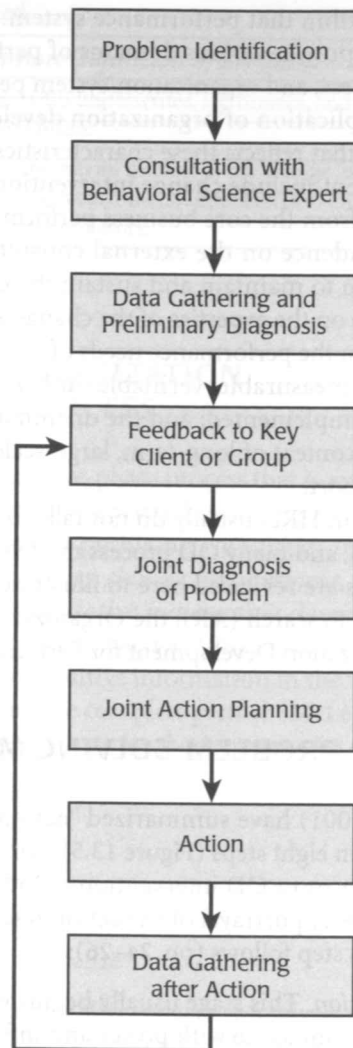


Figure 13.5 Action Research Model

Source: Adapted from Cummings and Worley, 2001.

determine the underlying causes of organizational problems. The four basic methods of gathering data are interviews, process observation, questionnaires, and organizational performance data (the latter, unfortunately, is often overlooked). One approach to diagnosis begins with a questionnaire to measure precisely the problems identified by the earlier steps. When gathering diagnostic information, OD practitioners may influence members with whom they are collecting data. In OD, every ac-

tion on the part of the consultant constitutes an intervention that will have some effect on the organization.

4. *Feedback to a key client or group.* Because action research is a collaborative activity, the diagnostic data are fed back to the client, usually in a group or work team meeting. The feedback step, in which members are given the information gathered by the OD practitioner, helps them determine the strengths and weaknesses of the organization or the department under study. The consultant provides the client with all relevant and useful data. Obviously, the practitioner will protect confidential sources of information and, at times, may even withhold data. Defining what is relevant and useful involves considerable privacy and ethics as well as judgment about when the group is ready for the information or if the information would make the client overly defensive.
5. *Joint diagnosis of the problem.* At this point, members discuss the feedback and explore with the OD practitioner whether they want to work on identified problems. A close interrelationship exists among data gathering, feedback, and diagnosis because the consultant summarizes the basic data from the client members and presents the data to them for validation and further diagnosis. An important point to remember, as Schein (1970) suggests, is that the action research process is very different from the doctor-patient model in which the consultant comes in, makes a diagnosis, and prescribes a solution. Schein notes that the failure to establish a common frame of reference in the client-consultant relationship may lead to faulty diagnosis or to a communications gap whereby the client is sometimes "unwilling to believe the diagnosis or accept the prescription." He believes "most companies have drawers full of reports by consultants, each loaded with diagnoses and recommendations which are either not understood or accepted by the 'patient'" (p. 78).
6. *Joint action planning.* Next, the OD practitioner and the client members jointly agree on further actions to be taken. This is the beginning of the moving process (described in Lewin's change model), as the organization decides how best to reach a different quasi-stationary equilibrium. At this stage, the specific action to be taken depends on the culture, technology, and environment of the organization, the diagnosis of the problem, and the time and expense of the intervention.
7. *Action.* This stage involves actual change from one organizational state to another. It may include installing new methods and procedures, reorganizing structures and work designs, and reinforcing new behaviors. Such actions typically cannot be implemented immediately but require a period as the organization moves from the present to a desired future state.
8. *Data gathering after action.* Because action research is a cyclical process, data must also be gathered after the action has been taken to measure

and determine the effects of the action and to feed the results back to the organization. This, in turn, may lead to rediagnosis and new action.

ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT PROCESS MODEL

The Organization development Process (ODP) model is presented by Gary N. McLean in his 2006 textbook. ODP represents a fully developed methodology for the OD process for achieving positive gains within in an organizational setting. Figure 13.6 illustrates the ODP Model and its unique process characteristics. The eight core phases are a variation of the basic input, process, output, feedback and open system model that organizes most HRD methods.

- Entry
- Start-up
- Assessment and Feedback
- Action Plan
- Implementation
- Evaluation
- Adoption
- Separation

Beyond the eight phases, the expanded description of the organizational context distinguishes and enhances the ODP model. McLean briefly describes the eight phases as follows (2006, p. 20-22):

- **Entry.** The first phase is when the OD professional (consultant), having done the requisite marketing, and a person representing the client organization (or part of an organization, or "client") meet to decide whether they will work together, assess the readiness of the organization for change, and agree on the conditions under which they will work together.
- **Start-up.** The next phase occurs after an agreement has been reached to work together, and a basic infrastructure (such as a client team with whom the consultant will work) is in place.
- **Assessment and Feedback.** This phase is sometimes called *analysis* or *diagnosis*; in this phase, the consultant and the client together, determine the organizational culture, including its strengths and weaknesses.
- **Action Plan.** Based on what was determined to be in the previous step, plans are mutually developed as to how the organization wishes to move forward, in terms of both goals and objectives and how this will be accomplished.

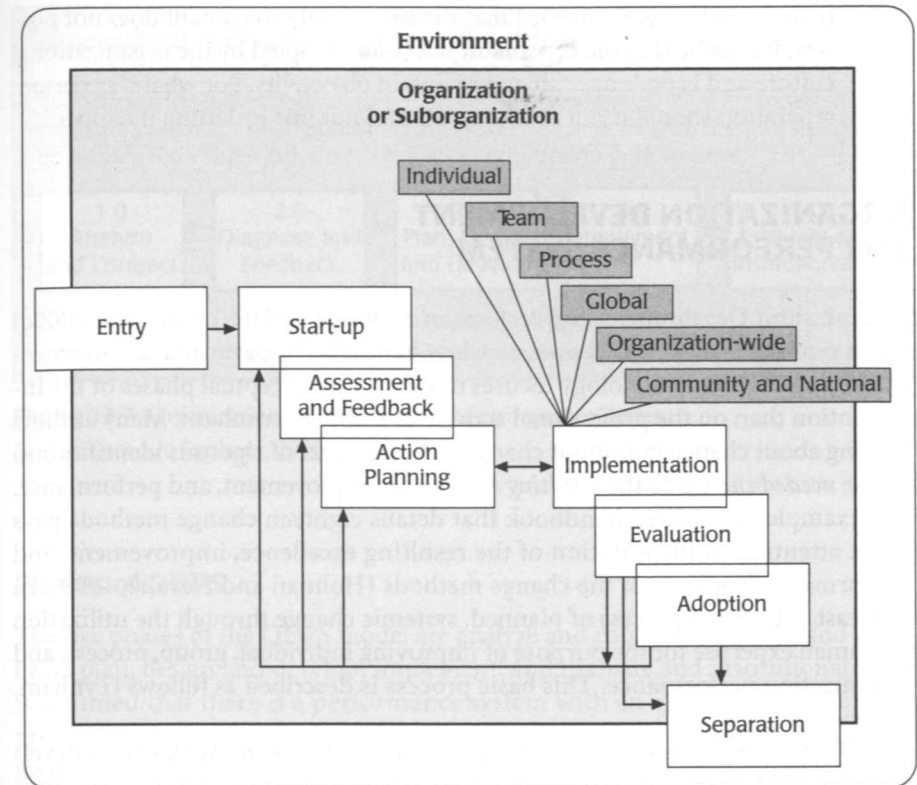


Figure 13.6 Organization Development Process Model

Source: McLean, 2006, p. xiii.

- **Implementation.** In this phase, the plans that were made in the previous step are implemented; in OD jargon, this is called an intervention.
- **Evaluation.** This phase answers the question, "How well did our intervention accomplish the objectives that were planned?"
- **Adoption.** If the evaluation indicates that the objectives of the intervention were accomplished, then the change that was implemented becomes institutionalized; that is, it becomes part of the way in which business is done in the organization. If the evaluation indicates that desired objectives were not met, then this phase is skipped. In both cases, the process begins all over again.
- **Separation.** At some point, the consultant will withdraw from the intervention process, having transferred his or her skills to the client organization (again, whether the OD consultant is internal or external). This may occur because additional change is no longer a priority to the client organization, or it is not ready for the next stage of change. It may be

because OD skills are needed that the current OD consultant does not possess. It may be that the consultant has been co-opted by the organizational culture and is no longer able to maintain objectivity. For whatever reason, separation should occur intentionally and not just by letting it happen.

ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT FOR PERFORMANCE SYSTEM

Organization Development for Performance System (ODPS) (Lynham, 2000c) again represents a basic OD process while highlighting performance improvement. The ODPS methodology focuses more on the conceptual phases of the intervention than on the professional activity of the OD consultant. Many authors writing about change talk about change out of context of rigorous identification of the *needed change* or the *resulting excellence*, improvement, and performance. For example, one edited handbook that details eighteen change methods pays scant attention to the question of the resulting excellence, improvement, and performance from any of the change methods (Holman and Devane, 1999). In contrast, ODPS is a process of planned, systemic change through the utilization of human expertise for the purpose of improving individual, group, process, and organization performance. This basic process is described as follows (Lynham, 2000c).

ODPS underscores the importance of system theory in organization development and frames organization development as a system of planned, systemic change, achieved through the development of related human expertise for the purpose of achieving specific and multiple performance domain outputs. ODPS embraces the above characteristics of traditional organization development as well as the titles of the traditional components of planned change presented in most models of organization development. These titles include (1) analyze and contract; (2) diagnose and feedback; (3) plan, design, and develop; (4) implement; and (5) evaluate and institutionalize. This five-phase model is generally referred to as the *generic change model*. In addition, the critical overarching task of “leading the organization development process” is added to the core change model.

The ODPS Model

The ODPS model is illustrated in Figure 13.7, which shows the five phases of the organization development for performance process being integrated and supported through leadership. Worthy of note is that the systematic process of the ODPS has integrity and can be maintained even in the simplest of situations (severe time, resource and budget constraints) or can be violated in the most luxurious of situations (generous time, resource and budget allocations). Professional expertise—organization development process knowledge and experience—is necessary to maintain organization development integrity.

Organization Development for Performance System

The Organization Development for Performance System (ODPS) is a process of planned, systematic change for developing human expertise for the purpose of improving individual, group, process, and organization performance.

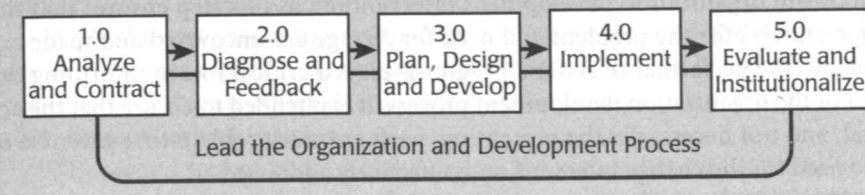


Figure 13.7 Organization Development for Performance System

Source: Susan A. Lynham, 2000.

Phases of ODPS

The five phases of the ODPS model are analyze and contract; diagnose and feedback; plan, design and develop; implement; and evaluate and institutionalize. It is assumed that there is a performance system with an apparent performance problem and need for change, and a recognized need to engage someone (either inside or outside the organization) to assist with the related problem solving and needed change.

Phase 1: Analyze and Contract

The first phase of the ODPS is composed of two steps. First, it is necessary to analyze the perceived performance problem and need for change. This first step requires that an initial analysis be done of the performance requirements of the organization that can be improved through the documenting and development of planned, systemic change and the development of human expertise required to implement, maintain, and sustain workplace change and performance. Analysis therefore provides the initial documented evidence that the problem presented for resolution and change is indeed real. Furthermore, analysis helps initially clarify the issues surrounding the problem, establishes the organization's apparent commitment to problem resolution and change, and provides an opportunity to determine and optimize the “match” between the needs, values and expertise of the organization and those of the change consultant or agent.

The second step in phase 1 involves the contract. Informed by the outcomes of step 1, the contract documents agreements about how the OD process will proceed. This includes specification of agreements in terms of mutual expectations, time, money and other resources that will be made available during the change process, and the ground rules under which all involved parties will operate.

Phase 2: Diagnose and Feedback

The second phase of ODPS consists of two steps: to diagnose the performance problem and to provide feedback to the performance system on the change needed and the accompanying human expertise required to address and advance performance. A thorough diagnosis of the performance problem is critical to successful organization development intervention, as this step ensures that the root cause(s) for the problem and need for change are uncovered and made explicit to the performance system. Diagnosis plays a critical role in informing the rest of the organization development process. It is intended to ensure that the actual, and not necessarily the presenting, performance problem that gave rise to the need for the change intervention is effectively addressed.

Multiple data collection methods are used to perform a thorough diagnosis of the performance problem. Four commonly used methods of data collection used to diagnose the performance problem and inform the change needed include questionnaires or surveys, interviews, direct observations, and unobtrusive data (e.g., organization records). Each method of data collection has strengths and weaknesses. As a result, it is important that triangulation be pursued and as many data collection methods as possible used to conduct the diagnosis and inform the feedback steps in the ODPS.

Feedback, the second step in phase 2, involves the return of the data collected during the diagnostic step to the performance system for further verification, problem solving, decision making, and corrective action. The effectiveness of feedback varies according to both content and process—that is, *what* data are fed back and *how* data are fed back. Some criteria of good feedback data include relevance, appropriateness, timeliness, comparability, validity, clarity, and engagement. Criteria of a good feedback process include an appropriate setting, structure, and selection of participants, as well as using the feedback data to facilitate the development of human expertise for further problem solving and decision making regarding the performance problem and desired change.

Both steps in phase 2 of ODPS, diagnosis and feedback, are critical in harnessing and activating commitment and energy for the rest of the organization development process, namely to plan, implement, and evaluate and institutionalize the desired and necessary change in the performance system.

Phase 3: Plan, Design, and Develop

Phase 3 of the ODPS involves three steps. First is that of compiling the plan required to ensure corrective action and development of the necessary human expertise to address the performance problem in multiple performance domains (individual, group, process, and organization) and in an enduring way. During the development of the plan, the kind of planned change (or intervention) and human expertise needed to address the performance problem effectively are discussed and agreed upon. Numerous types of planned change processes (also referred to as *interventions*) can be selected at this stage, and these vary according

to the performance domain and corresponding human expertise development at which they are targeted (individual, group, process, and organization). Due to the systemic nature of organization development, the plan of action often spans multiple types of planned change. Also typically included in the plan for change is the recognition and initial consideration of the actions required to manage the changes that will likely accompany the change intervention(s).

A good intervention plan is specific, is clear about roles and desired outcomes, makes the resulting human expertise explicit in terms of knowledge and experience, includes an achievable time line, and is derived in a participative and commitment-seeking manner.

The second step of phase 3 is the design, through either creation and/or acquisition, of general and specific change strategies (or interventions) for people to develop the expertise to implement and sustain workplace change and performance. The third step involves the development or acquisition of specific participant and change agent materials needed to execute the planned change strategy(ies) and/or programs.

Phase 4: Implement

The fourth phase in the ODPS is to implement the planned change strategies selected, designed, and developed in phase 3 of the ODPS. This involves managing the individual change strategies and programs as well as their delivery to the participants of the performance system.

Phase 5: Evaluate and Institutionalize

To determine whether the planned change has been successfully implemented, the effectiveness of the planned change strategies/programs in terms of performance, learning, and satisfaction must be established. The first step in phase 5 of the ODPS requires that one evaluate multiple aspects of the actual outcomes of the planned change strategies and compare these against the desired outcomes of the planned change strategies. Evaluation therefore requires determining and reporting on change strategy/program effectiveness in terms of performance, learning and satisfaction.

It is generally recognized that it is easier to implement change than it is to maintain and sustain it. As a result, it is very important that the new behaviors, practices, and processes that accompany planned change strategies are embedded into the organization's culture and become part of the way business is done on a day-to-day basis in the organization. This embedding or stabilization of the new ways that accompany the planned change processes refers to the need to institutionalize the change strategies/programs, constituting the second step of phase 5. Institutionalizing the change strategies/programs for integrated and long-term performance requires both management of the institutionalization process and reinforcement of the changes through further feedback, rewards, and development of human expertise.

Leading the OD Process

The ODPS, like any performance system, requires leadership and management to maintain the integrity of the OD process in terms of inputs, processes, outputs, and feedback. Leading the ODPS requires, for example, championing the OD mission, values, and goals, as well as managing and improving the OD process.

CONCLUSION

Although the literature describes numerous OD processes, three have been selected here for the purpose of illustration and comparison. Organization development is a process with the potential of unleashing the expertise required to maintain and/or change organizations. As such, OD has the potential of strategically aligning the organizational components of its host organization in the context within which it must function. It also has the potential of searching out and utilizing the expertise required to create new strategic directions for the host organization.

REFLECTION QUESTIONS

1. How would you define OD and its relationship to HRD?
2. What are the unique aspects of the OD component of HRD?
3. What is the role of the OD consultant in the OD process?
4. Which OD model (AL, ODP, or ODPS) are you most attracted to? Explain why.
5. How does OD help with the organizational challenge of managing the system and the challenge of changing the system?
6. Discuss the personal attributes that you believe would help in facilitating OD projects and those that could hinder.

**The Nature of the Change Process****CHAPTER OUTLINE**

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- Perspectives on Change for HRD

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- Incremental versus Transformational Change
- Continuous versus Episodic Change

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- Sociotechnical Systems Theory
- Typology of Change Theories

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Conclusion

Reflection Questions

Change has been a central concept in human resource development (HRD) from the beginning. Thinking about change in HRD has emerged from two basic directions: individual change and organizational change. Individual change models focus on ways individuals change. While this may affect the organization, the primary emphasis is on the individual and helping the individual change himself or herself. Individual learning and expertise development through T&D can be seen as a special type of change at the individual level, especially transformational learning. Career development specialists focus on helping people to change their lives and jobs. Adult development theory focuses on the many ways that adults change throughout their life span. While none of these is usually thought of as change theory, we suggest that change is the overarching construct that unites them within HRD.

Organization change models embrace the individual, but within the context of changing the organization. Most of these models emerge from what is generically known as organization development. Organization development professionals specialize in change, usually at the group, work process, or organization level.

Thus, all HRD professionals can be seen as leading or facilitating change for the goal of improvement (Holton, 1997). The purpose of this chapter is to examine change as an organizing construct for human resource development in its effort to contribute to performance requirements. In this chapter we are not so interested in specific contexts of change, but rather in core understandings of the change process that cut across all areas of practice and research.

Perspectives on Change for HRD

Change is a familiar construct but one that is seldom explicitly defined. It is important to understand what is meant by change.

Change as Individual Development

Some definitions of change focus first on the fact that change in organizations always involves changing individual people: "Induction of new patterns of action, belief, and attitudes among substantial segments of a population" (Schein, 1970, p. 134). From this view, organizational change is about getting people in organizations to do, believe, or feel something different. It is this view of change that has dominated training-oriented change interventions.

Change as Learning

A second definition of change speaks to the means by which change occurs: "Change is a cyclical process of creating knowledge (the change or innovation), disseminating it, implementing the change, and then institutionalizing what is learned by making it part of the organization's routines." (Watkins and Marsick (1993, p. 21). This definition reminds us that change usually involves learning. "Learning and change processes are part of each other. Change is a learning

process and learning is a change process" (Beckhard and Pritchard, 1992). This fundamental relationship points out why change is one of the core constructs for the discipline of human resource development.

Change as Work and Life Roles

Within career development there is some disagreement about the exact definition of a career. Here are two leading definitions:

"the evolving sequence of a person's work experiences over time" (Osipow and Fitzgerald, 1996, p. 51).

"the combination and sequence of roles played by a person during the course of a lifetime" (Super, 1980, p. 282; Super and Sverko, 1995, p. 23).

The point of agreement is that a career is conceptualized as the sequence of roles a person fills. The point of disagreement is whether those changes include just work roles, or work and life roles. Regardless, career development is fundamentally concerned with change and evolution of a person's roles.

Change as Internal Adult Development

Another view of change comes from adult development theory, the now generally accepted notion that adults continue to develop throughout the life span—biologically, psychologically, cognitively, and socially and thus link adult development with change: "The concept of development, as with learning, is most often equated with change" (Merriam, Caffarella, and Baumgartner, 2006, p. 93). Thus, adult development theory serves to define the types of internal changes that adults experience in their lives in contrast to career development theory, which defines the roles adults fill in society.

Change as Goal-Directed Activity

The previous definitions offer little guidance toward the purpose of change. Other definitions suggest in their definition that change should have a purpose: "Change is a departure from the status quo. It implies movement toward a goal, an idealized state, or a vision of what should be, and movement away from present conditions, beliefs, or attitudes" (Rothwell, Sullivan, and McLean, 1995, p. 9). Change should therefore be directed at some goal or outcome that represents a vision of a more desirable end state. Thus, they remind us that not all change is good. Change can be in negative directions, resulting in a less effective organization if it is not focused on desired outcomes.

Change as Innovation

Poole and Van de Ven (2004) define organizational change as "a difference in form, quality, or a state over time in an organizational entity (p. xi). Equally purposeful is the definition of innovation in organizations: "The innovation journey

is defined as new ideas that are developed and implemented to achieve outcomes by people who engage in transactions (relationships) with others in changing institutional and organizational contexts" (Van de Ven, Polley, Garud, and Venkataraman, 1999, p. 7). Change in these definitions consists of new ideas implemented in a social process directed at achieving outcomes to change organizations.

CORE DIMENSIONS OF CHANGE

Two core dimensions of change are important to consider: the depth of change (incremental vs. transformational) and the tempo of change (continuous vs. episodic).

Incremental versus Transformational Change

The distinction between incremental and transformational change is concerned with the depth and scope of change. Incremental change deals with smaller, more adaptive changes while transformational change requires major shifts in direction or perspective. This distinction is found in both the organization development and adult learning literature. Not surprisingly, the two are closely aligned.

OD and planned incremental change

A fundamental issue for OD has been the scope of change in which its tools are applied. The traditional focus of OD has been on planned incremental change. The OD approach is distinguished from other organization change approaches in this way:

OD and change management both address the effective implementation of planned change. They are concerned with the sequence of activities, processes and leadership issues that produce organizational improvements. They differ, however, in their underlying value orientation. OD's behavioral science foundation supports values of *human potential, participation, and development*, whereas change management is more focused on economic potential and the creation of competitive advantage. As a result, OD's distinguishing feature is its concern with the transfer of knowledge and skill such that the system is more able to manage change in the future. Change management does not necessarily require the transfer of such skills. In short, all OD involves change management, but change management does not involve OD. (Cummings and Worley, 2001, p. 3; emphasis added)

The change process that lends itself best to the values of human potential, participation and development is incremental change. That is, change that "produces appreciable, not radical, change in individual employees' cognitions as well as behaviors" (Porrás and Silvers, 1991).

The traditional emphasis on planned incremental change has limited OD's influence on organizational change. This presents a perplexing dilemma for HRD. On the one hand, the philosophical ideals of human potential, participation, and development embedded in OD approaches to change are also ones traditionally embraced by HRD professionals. Most OD professionals have now embraced more holistic models of change (Poole and Van de Ven, 2004).

Transformational change

Transformational change has increasingly moved to the forefront of organizational and individual change and is defined as an

"extension of organization development that seeks to create massive changes in an organization's structures, processes, culture, and orientation to its environment. Organization transformation is the application of behavioral science theory and practice to large-scale, paradigm-shifting organizational change. An organization transformation usually results in totally new paradigms or models for organizing and performing work. (French, Bell, and Zawacki, 199, p. vii)

Thus, transformational change goes well beyond the incremental change characterized by traditional OD and is a fairly recent addition to OD practice, though not to organizational life. Transformational change has five key characteristics (Cummings and Worley, 2001):

1. *Triggered by environmental and internal disruptions*—organizations must experience a severe threat to survival
2. *Systemic and revolutionary*—the entire nature of the organization must change, including its culture and design.
3. *Demands a new organizing paradigm*—by definition it requires gamma change (discussion to follow).
4. *Is driven by senior executives and line management*—transformational change cannot be a "bottom-up" process because senior management is in charge of strategic change.
5. *Continuous learning and change*—the learning process is likely to be substantial and require considerable unlearning and innovation.

Clearly this type of change does not lend itself to traditional OD methodologies. Sometimes transformational change threatens traditional OD values because it may entail layoffs or major restructurings. In addition, it is not always possible to have broad participation in planning transformational change, and it is often implemented in a top-down manner.

New methods have emerged in an attempt to expand OD's reach into large-scale whole systems change in a manner that is consistent with OD values (Bunker and Alban, 1997). These include techniques such as future search (Weisbord

and Janoff, 2007), open space technology (Owens, 2007), real-time strategic change (Jacobs, 1999), and the ICA Strategic Planning Process (Spencer, 1989).

Incremental and transformational change can be implemented in reaction to events (reactive) or in a proactive way in anticipation of events that may occur (anticipatory) (Nadler and Tushman, 1995). Thus, they suggest four types of change: tuning, adaptation, reorientation, and re-creation (see Figure 14.1). Adaptation, which is reactive incremental change, is probably the most common type of change and occurs constantly in organizations. Reorientation, which is anticipatory transformational change, is the hardest type to implement.

Continuous versus Episodic Change

Another important dimension of change is its tempo, defined as the rate, rhythm, or pattern of the change process. The first tempo, continuous change, is described as “a pattern of endless modifications in work processes and social practices. . . . Numerous small accommodations cumulate and amplify” (Weick and Quinn, 1999, p. 366). Continuous change has historically been closely related to incremental change but is actually a different construct, which has an important implication in today’s fast-changing world.

The second tempo, episodic change, is defined as “occasional interruption or divergence from equilibrium. . . . It is seen as a failure of the organization to adapt its deep structure to a changing environment” (Weick and Quinn, 1999, p. 366). Episodic change tends to be infrequent and occurs in short-term episodes. In this view, organizations have a certain amount of change inertia until some force triggers them to change.

While this description is close to the definition of incremental versus transformational change, considering tempo of change (continuous vs. episodic) separately from scope of change (incremental vs. transformational) is useful. The problem is that deep change is defined as episodic. In today’s world, companies such as Internet-based firms are finding themselves having to make continuous transformational change, which is not even contemplated in the original definitions. The notion that transformational change only occurs episodically has been true historically but is increasingly being challenged today. Furthermore, it is also

	Incremental	Discontinuous (Transformational)
Anticipatory	Tuning	Reorientation
Reactive	Adaptation	Re-creation

Figure 14.1 Types of Organizational Change

possible for organizations to make episodic change that is actually only incremental rather than transformational. Corporate management teams are viewed as most likely to lead to incremental change—even when attempting strategic change—that ultimately causes them to overlook disruptive changes, technological and otherwise, that threaten their business (Christensen, 1997).

CHANGE OUTCOMES

When one considers the multitude of individual, process, group, and organizational constructs that can be affected by change, the possible outcomes from change are enormous. A more fundamental way to describe outcomes from change are through four basic types of change (Porras and Silvers (1992, p. 57):

- *Alpha change*—change in the perceived levels of variables within a paradigm without altering their configuration (e.g., a perceived improvement in skills)
- *Beta change*—change in people’s view about the meaning of the value of any variable within an existing paradigm without altering their configuration (e.g., change in standards)
- *Gamma(A) change*—change in the configuration of an existing paradigm without the addition of new variables (e.g., changing the central value of “production-driven” paradigm from “cost containment” to “total quality focus”). This results in the reconfiguration of all variables within this paradigm.
- *Gamma(B) change*—the replacement of one paradigm with another that contains some or all of new variables (e.g., replacing a “production-driven” paradigm with a “customer-responsive” paradigm)

For example, suppose you are dealing with an organization that has declining performance (e.g., profits) requiring some type of organizational change. An example of alpha change would be for them to focus on doing a better job at what they are already doing, perhaps by eliminating errors and waste. Beta change would result if the organization realized that the industry had become so competitive that their previous notions of what high performance meant had to be revised upward. An example of gamma(A) change might be the introduction of enterprise software to run their business more effectively but requiring a reorganization of their work processes. Gamma(B) change would result if they discarded their old business model of selling through retail stores and replaced it with one of selling through the Internet.

This conceptualization is useful because these different types of outcomes clearly would require different change strategies. These are portrayed in the model shown in Figure 14.2 (Porras and Silvers, 1991). Note that they begin with two

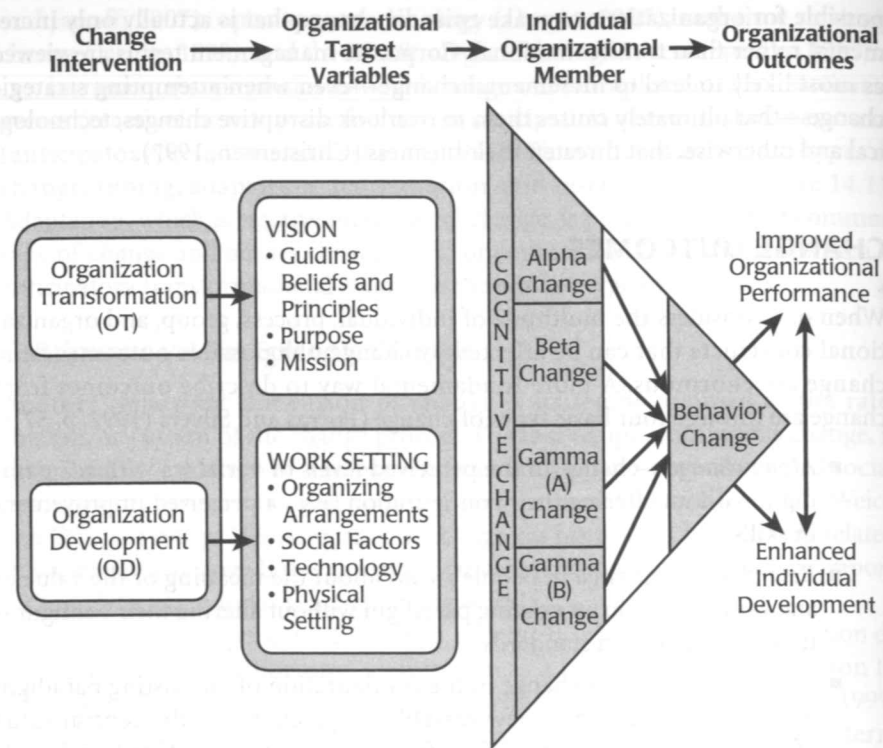


Figure 14.2 Model of Change Outcomes

Source: Porras and Silvers, 1991, p. 53. Used with permission.

(incremental) and organization transformation. The target variables are those at which interventions are aimed. As a result of the interventions on these target variables, alpha, beta, or gamma cognitive change results in individual members, leading to enhanced individual development and improved organizational performance.

GENERAL THEORIES OF CHANGE

In this section, three general theories of change are discussed. Most other theories or models of change processes can be located within these three basic frameworks.

Field Theory

The classic general of change is Kurt Lewin's (1951) field theory. This theory has influenced most change theories. The essence of field theory is deceptively simple and enduring.

The most fundamental construct in this theory is the *field*. According to Lewin, "All behavior is conceived of as a change of some state of a field in a given unit of time" (p. xi). For individuals, he said this is "the 'life space' of the individual. This life space consists of the person and the psychological environment as it exists for him" (p. xi). It is important to realize that a field also exists for any unit of social structure or organization. Thus, a field can be defined for a team, a department, or an organization.

The field or life space includes "all facts that have existence and excludes those that do not have existence for the individual or group under study" (p. xi). This is vitally important in considering change because individuals or groups may have distorted views of reality or may not see certain aspects of reality. What matters to the person or group, and what shapes their behavior, is only what they see as existing.

Finally, field theory acknowledges that behavior is not dependent on what happened in the past or what is expected to happen in the future, but rather on the field as it exists in the present. Lewin did not ignore the effects of history or anticipated events. Rather, he said that it is how those past or anticipated events manifest themselves in the present that affects behavior. In other words, it is how those events are perceived today that is part of a person's field and influences the person's behavior today.

Change, according to field theory, is the result of a constellation of psychological forces in a person's field at a given point in time. *Driving* forces are those that push a person toward a positive outcome, while *restraining* forces are those that represent barriers. Driving forces push a person toward locomotion (movement), while restraining forces may inhibit locomotion. Forces in a person's field create tension. If the driving and restraining forces are equal and in opposite directions, conflict results and no locomotion is likely to result. Thus, to understand a person or group's likelihood of changing, driving forces have to be stronger than restraining forces. A field in which the forces are approximately in balance results in a quasi-equilibrium state in which no change is likely.

Perhaps the best-known part of Lewin's field theory is his three-step change process: *unfreezing*, *movement*, and *refreezing*. However, it is rarely discussed in the context of field theory, which is the most useful way to understand it.

From the preceding discussion it would appear that all one has to do to invoke change is to increase driving forces or decrease restraining forces and a proportional change would result. According to Lewin, this is not the case. Social systems that are in a quasi-equilibrium develop an inner resistance to change, which he calls a social habit or custom. In force terms, the equilibrium level acquires a value itself, becoming a force working to maintain that equilibrium. Furthermore, "the greater the social value of a group standard the greater is the resistance of the individual group member to move away from this level" (p. 227).

To overcome this inner resistance, Lewin says that "an additional force seems to be required, a force sufficient to 'break the habit,' to 'unfreeze' the custom" (p. 225).

In other words, to begin the change process, some larger force is necessary to break the inherent resistance to change. The unfreezing force will result in a less than proportional movement, but it will begin the movement toward a new equilibrium. Lewin also notes that this is one reason group methods are so powerful in leading change. Because the inner resistance is often group norms, change is more likely to happen if the group can be encouraged to change those norms themselves.

Lewin goes on to note that change is often short-lived. After exerting the effort to unfreeze a group, change may occur but then people revert to the previous level. Therefore, equal attention must be paid to what he called *freezing*, usually referred to today as *refreezing*, rather than just moving people to a new level. Lewin defines freezing as "the new force field is made secure against change" (p. 229). Freezing involves harnessing the same power of the social field that acted to prevent change in the beginning by creating new group norms that reinforce the changes.

Sociotechnical Systems Theory

Sociotechnical system theory was developed by Eric Trist and was based on work he did with the British coal mining industry while he was at the Tavistock Institute (Fox, 1995). First presented in the early 1950s (Trist and Bamforth, 1951), it, too, has stood the test of time and remains at the core of most organizational development change efforts. Trist and Bamforth were studying a successful British coal mine at a time when most of the industry was experiencing a great deal of difficulty, despite large investments to improve mining technology. They observed that this particular mine had made improvements in the social structure of work (to autonomous work teams), not just to the technology. They realized that the cause of much of the industry's problems was a failure to consider changes in the social structure of work to accompany the technical changes being made. While this may sound obvious, the same mistake is still being made today. For example, many organizations have struggled while trying to implement software systems largely because they have approached them as a technology problem without considering the people aspects.

From that work emerged the relatively simple but powerful concept that work consists of two interdependent systems that have to be jointly optimized. The *technical system* consists of the materials, machines, processes, and systems that produce the outputs of the organization. The *social system* is the system that relates the workers to the technical system and to each other (Cooper and Foster, 1971). Usually, organizational change initiatives emphasize one more than the other. Typically the technical system is emphasized more than the social system because it is easy to change computers, machines, or buildings and ignore the effect of the change on people.

Sociotechnical systems has remained a loosely defined metatheory without detailed explication. Instead, the intent and elements of sociotechnical systems theory are present in detail in many change models such as total quality manage-

ment (TQM) and reengineering (Shani and Mitki, 1996) and The Enterprise Model (Brache, 2002). Thus, sociotechnical systems provides a very useful framework for organizational analysis and change.

Typology of Change Theories

Van de Ven and Poole (2004) present four basic process theories of change that they say underlie change in the social, biological, and physical sciences. They contend that these four schools of thought about change are distinctly different and that all specific theories of organizational and individual change can be built from one or a combination of these four. As a result, these four offer a more parsimonious explanation of organization change and development. "In each theory: (a) process is viewed as a different cycle of change events, (b) which is governed by a different "motor" or generating mechanism that c) operates on a different unit of analysis, and d) represents a different mode of change" (p. 520).

This four-part framework is particularly useful for understanding the variety of change theories in the literature (Figure 14.3). Using these four general theories, one can find the commonalities among diverse theories. It is helpful in practice

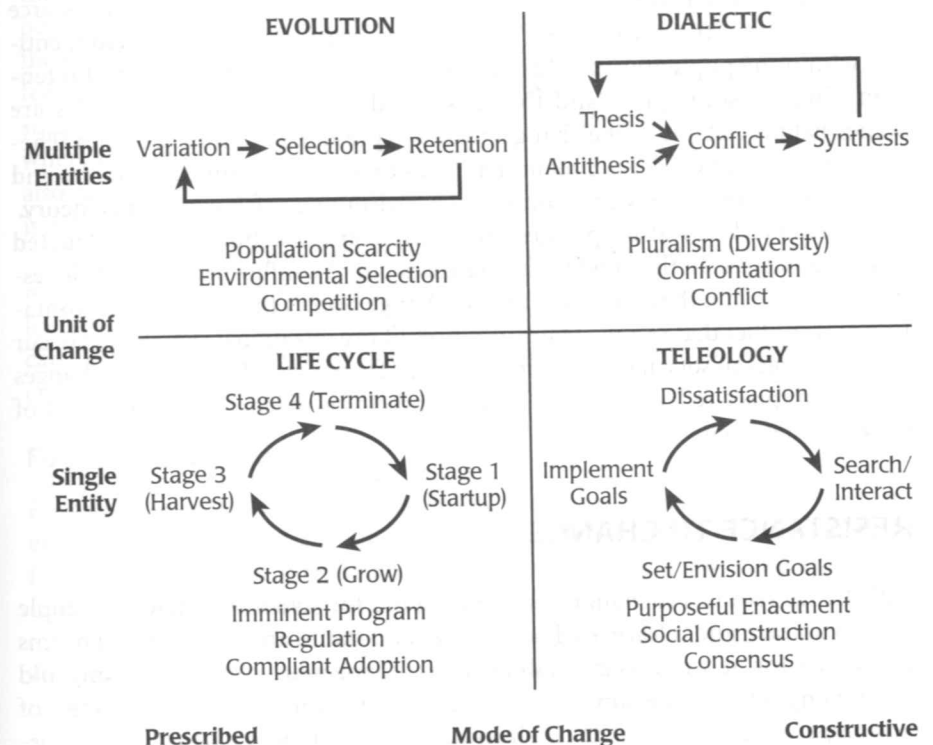


Figure 14.3 Process Theories of Organizational Development and Change

Source: Van de Ven and Poole, 1995, p. 520. Used with permission.

because it enables one to understand the multiple forces for change that occur. Van de Ven and Poole (2004) also identify sixteen possible combinations of these four theories that represent logically possible composite theories.

Life cycle theory depicts change as progressing through some sequence of stages that are governed by some natural or logical "law" that prescribes the stages. This theory operates on single entities with certain prescribed stages. For example, life cycle theories of organizations (Adizes, 1988) project certain critical stages that every firm experiences as it grows from a small company to a larger more complex organization. Life cycle theories of adult development portray predictable stages of adult life that occur at certain ages.

Teleological theory also operates within a single entity but is one that offers constructive rather than prescribed stages of change. Teleological theory views development as a cycle of goal formulation and implementation. These goals are constructed by individuals within the entity. Strategic planning could be a classic example of this theory whereby an organization sets goals for its future and works to implement them. Career planning might be an individual-level teleological theory.

Evolutionary theory differs from the previous two in that it operates on multiple entities. This model views change as occurring out of competition for scarce resources within the environment in which the entity operates. As a result, entities within the population go through cycles of variation, selection, and retention. That is, some grow and thrive; some decline or die. These cycles are somewhat predictable so the change process is prescribed in these theories. Theories of organization development that focus on external competitive forces and how firms thrive or die within competitive environments fall within this theory.

Dialectic theory also operates on multiple entities, but with constructed change processes. In this model, change arises out of conflict between entities espousing opposing thesis and antithesis. Change occurs through the confrontation and conflict that results. Many instances of organizational change that occur due to changes in societal norms fit within this framework. For example, changes in the workplace reflecting racial, gender, and ethnic diversity often arise out of dialectical tensions.

RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

"All change requires exchanging something old for something new. . . . People have to unlearn and relearn, exchange power and status, and exchange old norms and values for new norms and values. These changes are often frightening and threatening, while at the same time [are] potentially stimulating and providers of new hope" (Tichy, 1983, p. 332). The notion of exchange is particularly important because there are costs and benefits to each side of the exchange. Ultimately, the benefits have to outweigh the costs for change to succeed.

Nature of Resistance

Resistance to change is a universal phenomenon whether one is implementing a new strategy in an organization or helping individuals lose weight. In fact, without resistance, change would not be difficult, and many change interventions and models would be greatly simplified. It is resistance that shapes most change strategies and makes effective change leaders so valuable. If the causes of resistance are understood, then strategies to overcome it become clearer.

Resistance has been shown to be a multidimensional phenomenon. Piderit (2000) summarizes the resistance-to-change literature and proposes that resistance to change consists of three dimensions:

- Cognitive—beliefs about the change
- Emotional (affective)—feelings in response to change
- Behavioral—actions in response to change

This three-part view of resistance is particularly important because a person may not be consistent on all three dimensions. Clearly, if a person is negative on all three dimensions, resistance occurs, or, if positive on all three dimensions, support for change occurs. However, it is not uncommon for a person to be conflicted. For example, a person may believe change is needed (cognitive) but still fear it (affective). Or, a person may not believe in it and fear it, but act as if in support of the change. Piderit (2000) calls this *ambivalence*, defined as the state where two alternative perspectives are both strongly experienced (p. 787). She also suggests that this phenomenon may be more widespread during change than is acknowledged.

Tichy (1983) approaches organizational change from three aspects of organizational reality: the technical, political, and cultural views. The technical view focuses on organizing to get the work accomplished most effectively. The political view focuses on power and the allocation of rewards. The cultural view focuses on the norms and values in the organization.

Forms of Resistance

Probably the most vexing question in the literature is why resistance to change occurs. King and Anderson (1995) suggest that there are four fundamentally different views of causes of resistance in the literature, each of which we will explore in the following sections.

Resistance as Unavoidable Behavioral Response

This is probably the dominant view of resistance to change. In this view, individuals resist change simply because it represents a move into the unknown. Therefore, resistance is a natural and unavoidable response. The fact that individuals have a strong need to hold onto what is familiar is a powerful force, a point that

has been neglected in the change literature (Tannenbaum and Hanna, 1985). This deep-seated need to hold on may be the root cause of much resistance to change. Tannenbaum and Hanna (1985) suggest that there are four primary reasons for this need:

- Change is *loss*, requiring us to let go of something familiar and predictable.
- Change is *uncertainty*, requiring us to move from the known to the unknown.
- Change *dissolves meaning*, which in turn affects our identity.
- Change *violates scripts*, disrupting our unconscious life plans.

Change leaders who understand the natural psychological process individuals undergo are able to facilitate the letting go and moving on process. Those who ignore it encounter resistance to change that may seem insurmountable.

Resistance as Political and Class Struggle

The most radical of the four views, this view holds that resistance stems from the fundamentally inequitable relationship between workers and the organization. Because workers often feel alienated and exploited, they sometimes resist change that benefits the organization. King and Anderson (1995) suggest this type of resistance may be more prevalent among labor groups who feel most alienated from management and the organization. For example, some unions have been known to resist change because it is perceived to exploit workers. Also, one of the chief criticisms of the corporate restructurings is that it has exploited employees in organizations and rewarded top executives (*Economist*, 2008). As a result, many employees were reluctant to embrace other changes proposed in those organizations.

Resistance as Constructive Counterbalance

From this view, resistance may not always be a bad thing but rather acts as a counterbalance to change that is ill conceived, poorly implemented, or viewed as detrimental to the organization. Resistance to change has most often been discussed from a managerial point of view whereby resistance is viewed as a barrier employees present to management's change initiatives and something that must be overcome. However, implicit in that traditional view is that management is "right" and employees "wrong" when it comes to change. Yet, frequently management's change initiatives may not be the right course of action, and resistance is a healthy response by the organization to ill-conceived change. Thus, resistance may not be bad but instead serve as part of a check-and-balance system to prevent poorly conceived change from destroying the organization.

This is supported by evidence that employees are increasingly cynical about change (Reichers, Wanous, and Austin, 1997). According to these researchers, cynicism about change is different from resistance in that it involves a loss of faith in leaders of change due to a history of failed attempts at change. It has been

shown to be related to poorer job attitudes and motivation. A common cause of this is a history of "program of the month" types of change efforts. Cynicism may in turn lead to resistance, which is usually viewed negatively by employees. However, if an organization has a history of "program of the month" change efforts, then resistance may be a useful counterbalance to force management to think more carefully before proposing new change.

Resistance as Cognitive and Cultural Restructuring

In this perspective, resistance is conceived as a by-product of restructuring cognitive schemas at the individual level and as recasting of organizational culture and climate at the organizational level. The paradox is that individuals and organizations seek both change and stability (Leana and Barry, 2000). Individual schemas help people maintain a sense of identity and meaning in their day-to-day activities. Yet, change is also necessary to prevent boredom. Organizational schemas are necessary for efficient day-to-day operation and help perpetuate successful practices. Yet continuous change is necessary to adapt to fast-changing environments. Thus, there is always a tension between maintaining schemas and changing them when necessary.

The focus on individual schema has increased, in part due to Senge's (1990) earlier popular work on the learning organization in which he cites mental models (a closely related term) as one of his five disciplines. He defines mental models as "deeply held internal images of how the world works, images that limit us to familiar ways of thinking and acting" (p. 174). In other words, mental models are the cognitive structures that arise from an individual's experiences. While they help employees be more efficient, they also impede change because many people resist changes that do not fit their mental model, particularly if change involves restructuring long or deeply held schema.

Argyris (1982, 1999) describes two basic theories in use (mental models) that people use to guide action in organizations. Model I, as he calls it, has four governing values: (1) achieve your intended purpose, (2) maximize winning and minimize losing, (3) suppress negative feelings, and (4) behave according to what you consider rational. This theory in use leads people to advocate their positions and cover up mistakes, which he calls *defensive routines*. Defensive routines are blocks to individual and organizational learning. Model II, on the other hand, is predicated on open sharing of information and detecting and correcting mistakes. As a result, defensive routines are minimized and genuine learning is facilitated. The ability to change schema or mental models has been linked to a firm's ability to engage in strategic change and renewal (Barr, Stimpert, and Huff, 1992). Unfortunately, Model I is predominant in most organizations, serving as a fundamental source of resistance to change. Conversion to Model II usually requires double loop learning.

Similarly, the role of organization culture in blocking or facilitating change is widely recognized. In fact, changing culture remains as one of the most difficult

challenges in organizational change. Organizational culture, which is usually deeply rooted in an organization, can be a tremendous source of resistance to change. It represents organizational mental models of shared assumptions about how the organization should function.

As Schein (1999) points out, "changing something implies not just learning something new but unlearning something that is already there and possibly in the way" (p. 116). He equates the unlearning process to overcoming resistance to change. In the case of major change, such as changing culture, change has to begin with some disconfirmation such that survival anxiety exceeds learning anxiety. If so, then cognitive redefinition results for the learner.

In summary, resistance to change is a complex but vitally important change construct. Whether viewed from the individual, group, or organizational level, addressing resistance to change is a central concern for theory and practice.

FOCUSED PERSPECTIVES ON CHANGE

Numerous middle-range theories have arisen alongside the general theory of change to describe change from a particular perspective or lens. Each lens is instructive and useful for understanding change in more depth. This section is not intended to be a comprehensive review but rather to present several focused theories representative of major perspectives.

Organizational Theories

Four theories are presented here: organizations as performance systems, the Burke-Litwin model, innovation diffusion theory, and the organizational communications approach.

Organizations as Performance Systems

Thinking about the organization as a performance system functioning within the larger environment and as a collection of subsystems has been the work of numerous organizational scholars, including Senge's (1990) *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization* and Wheatley's (1992) *Leadership and the New Science: Learning about Organization from an Orderly Universe*. Both influential pieces have minimal direct connections of their theories to the substantive work of change.

In contrast, Rummler and Brache's (1995) and Brache's (2002) holistic and systemic views of the organization as performance system intricately bridges the theory-practice gap from much of the literature. The full model is discussed in more detail in chapter 9. They begin by viewing organizations as adaptive systems. A relationship map of a hypothetical computer company is presented in Figure 14.4 to illustrate an early step of their change process.

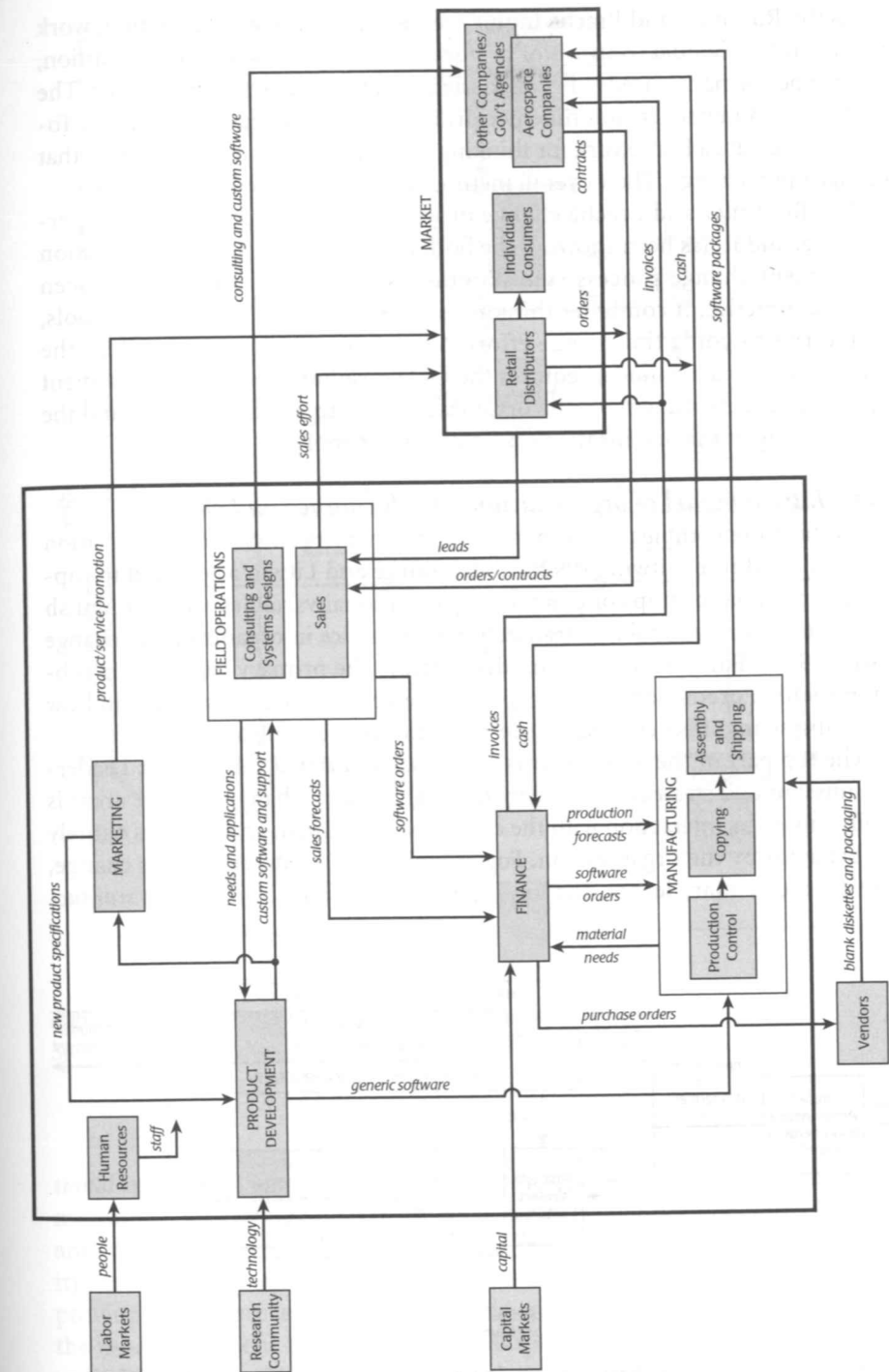


Figure 14.4 Relationship Map for Computec, Inc.
Source: Rummler and Brache, 1995, p. 38. Used with permission.

As the Rummler and Brache inquiry models unfold, the organization, work process, and individual contributor performance levels are laid out. In addition, the three performance needs of goals, design, and management are specified. The resulting 3×3 matrix creates nine performance cells (see Figure 2.4, p. 22). Together they create a framework for thinking about the performance variables that impinge upon change. Their overall methodology is portrayed in Figure 14.5.

The Rummler and Brache change process is aimed at organizational performance, and it has been shown to be both a theoretically sound organization development change process (see Wimbiscus, 1995) and one that has been proven in practice. It combines thinking models, systemic relationships, tools, and metrics to guide the change effort. More than most change models, the Rummler and Brache model requires the OD consultant and the improvement team to be serious students of the organization, its larger environment, and the inner working of the organization's processes and people.

Burke-Litwin model of organizational performance and change

One of the more complex but also more comprehensive models of organization change is the Burke-Litwin (1992) model. Burke and Litwin attempted to capture the interrelationships of complex organizational variables and distinguish between transformational and transactional dynamics in organizational change (Burke, 1994). Furthermore, the model portrays the primary variables or subsystems which predict and explain performance in an organization, and how those subsystems affect change. Figure 14.6 shows the complete model.

The top part of the model shows the *transformational* subsystems: Leadership, mission and strategy, and organizational culture. Change in these areas is usually caused by interaction with the external environment and requires entirely new behavior by the organization. For organizations that need major change, these are the primary levers. The lower part of the model contains the *transac-*

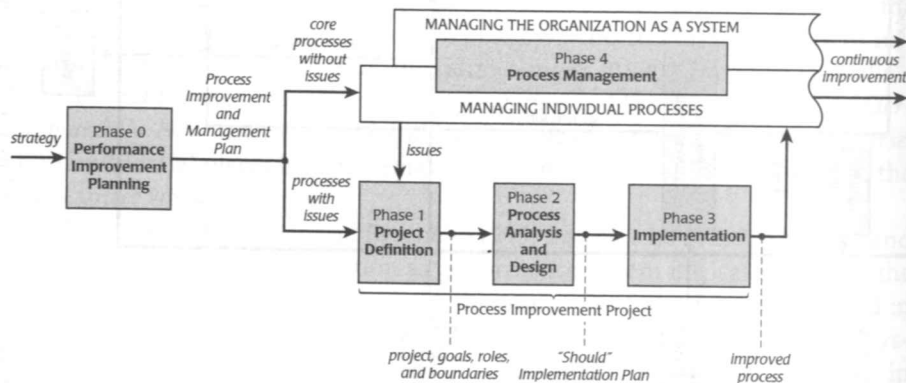


Figure 14.5 The Rummler-Brache Process Improvement and Management Methodology
Source: Rummler and Brache, 1995, p. 117. Used with permission.

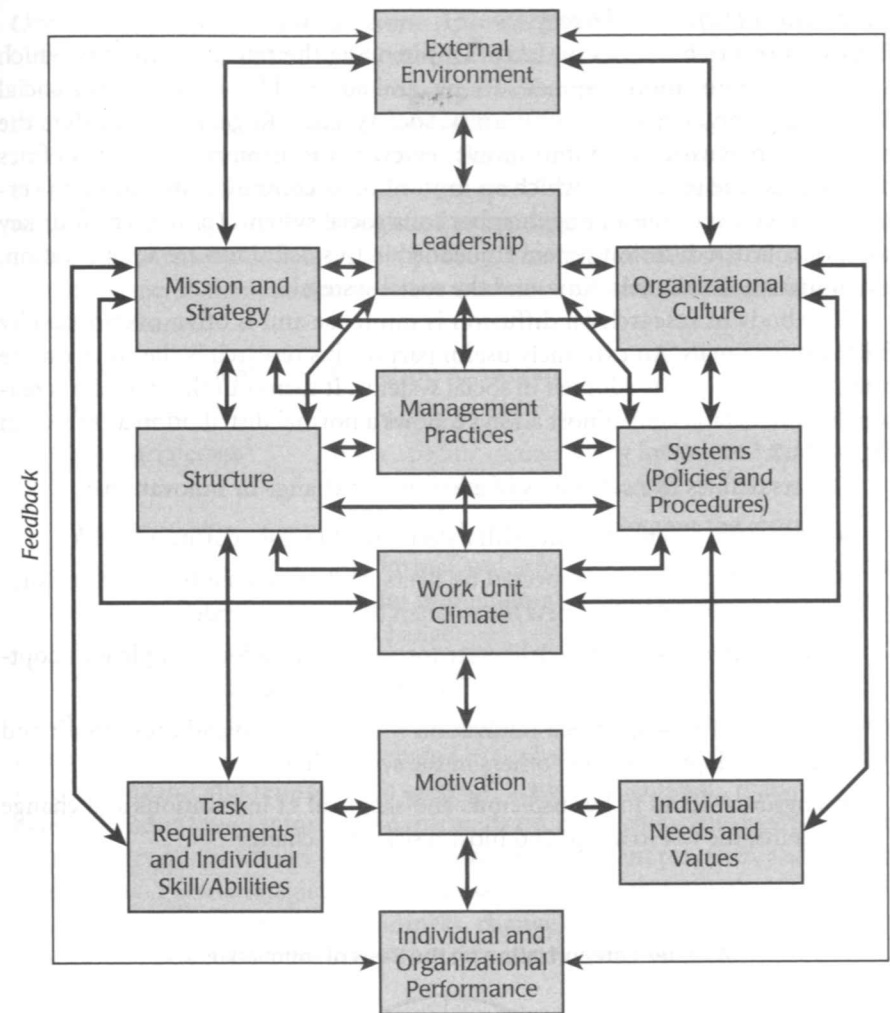


Figure 14.6 Model of Organizational Performance and Change
Source: Burke and Litwin, 1992, p. 528. Used with permission.

tional subsystems: management practices, systems, structure, work unit climate, motivation, task requirements and individual skills/abilities, and individual needs and values. Change in these areas occurs primarily through short-term reciprocity among people and groups. For organizations that need a fine-tuning or improving change process, these subsystems are the primary levers. The arrows in the model represent the causal relationships between the major subsystems as well as the reciprocal feedback loops. Burke and his associates have also developed a diagnostic survey that can be used to assess and plan change using the model.

Innovation Diffusion Theory

Diffusion research focuses on factors influencing the rate and extent to which change and innovation is spread among, and adopted by, members of a social system (e.g., organization, community, society, etc.). Rogers (1995) offers the most comprehensive and authoritative review of diffusion research. He defines diffusion as "the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among members of a social system" (p. 10). The four key components of a diffusion system embedded in this definition are an innovation, communication channels, time, and the social system.

The body of research on diffusion is immense and is often overlooked by HRD professionals. An extremely useful part of this research is the work on the rate at which change is adopted in social systems. It turns out that the rate is reasonably predictable and almost always follows a normal distribution as shown in Figure 14.7.

Rogers defines five categories of adopters (of change or innovation):

- *Innovators*—venturesome with a desire for the rash, daring and risky
- *Early adopters*—are respected by peers, and are the embodiment of successful, discrete use of new ideas; often the opinion leader
- *Early majority*—tend to deliberate for some time before completely adopting a new idea but still adopt before the average person
- *Late majority*—approach innovation with a skeptical and cautious air and do not adopt until most others in the system have
- *Laggards*—tend to be suspicious and skeptical of innovations and change agents; the last to adopt and most resistant to change

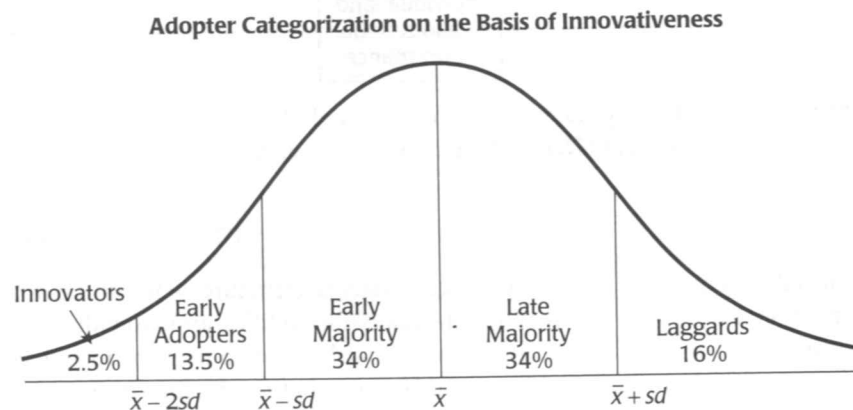


Figure 14.7 Adopter Categories

Source: Rogers, 1995, p. 262. Used with permission.

Organizational Communications Approach

Communication is central to any successful change effort. Surprisingly, few OD change models have focused on this aspect of change. Armenakis and his colleagues (Armenakis, Harris, and Mossholder, 1993; Armenakis, Harris, and Field, 1999) are a notable exception to this, offering an organizational change model built around the change message. In their view, "all efforts to introduce and institutionalize change can be thought of as sending a message to organizational members" (Armenakis et al., 1999, p. 103). The change message must have five key components that address five core questions organizational members have about the change:

Message Element	Question Answered
Discrepancy	Is the change really necessary?
Appropriateness	Is the specific change being introduced an appropriate reaction to the discrepancy?
Efficacy	Can I/we successfully implement the change?
Principal support	Are formal and informal leaders committed to successful implementation and institutionalization of the change?
Personal valence	What is in it (the change) for me?

Their model is considerably more complex than this, but the change message is the unique component. Also included in the model are seven generic strategies used to transmit and reinforce the message: active participation, management of external and internal information, formalization activities, diffusion practices, persuasive communication, human resource management practices, and rites and ceremonies. These strategies and the message combine to move people in the organization through stages of readiness, change adoption, commitment to the change, and institutionalization.

Work Process Theories

The quality improvement revolution of the 1980s was led by two elderly scholar practitioners—Dr. Joseph M. Juran and Dr. W. Edwards Deming. Both were called upon to help rebuild the Japanese economy after World War II and then again by the captains of American industry in the 1980s to help save the faltering economy. Their basic thesis was that producing quality goods and services ends up costing less money, increases profits, delights customers who will return for more, and provides satisfying work to people at all levels in the organization.

Both of these men began their journey in the realm of change at the work process level. In addition, they began at a time when the rate of change was much slower. Over the years, they expanded their process improvement models—up to the leadership level and down to the individual worker level. Even so, the core of

Figure 14.8 The Three Universal Processes of Managing for Quality

<i>Managing for Quality</i>		
QUALITY PLANNING	QUALITY CONTROL	QUALITY IMPROVEMENT
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Establish quality goals ■ Identify who are the customers ■ Determine the needs of the customers ■ Develop product features that respond to customers' needs ■ Develop processes able to produce the product features ■ Establish process controls; transfer the plans to the operating forces 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Evaluate actual performance ■ Compare actual performance to quality goals ■ Act on the difference 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Prove the need ■ Establish the infrastructure ■ Identify the improvement projects ■ Establish project teams ■ Provide the teams with resources, training, and motivation to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Diagnose the causes – Stimulate remedies ■ Establish control to hold the gains

Source: Juran, 1992, p. 16. Used with permission.

their work has been anchored at the work process level. A few defining features from each are highlighted here.

Juran's Quality by Design

At the process level, Juran (1992) defines process control and process design as follows: "Process control is the systematic evaluation of performance of a process, and taking of corrective action in the vent of nonconformance" (p. 509), and "Process design is the activity of defining the specific means to be used by the operating forces for meeting product quality goals" (p. 221).

At the overall level, Juran identified three universal processes of managing for quality: quality planning, quality control, and quality improvement (Figure 14.8).

Deming's Fourteen Points for Management

Like Juran, Deming was a statistician who relied heavily on hard data to make decisions about process improvement. He believed in documenting processes to the point that many of the flaws in the work process would simply reveal themselves. While he generally distrusted work processes that informally emerge and evolve in the workplace, he trusted numbers from good measures of those processes as the basis of improving them. He also trusted human beings and human nature—the people that work in the processes. Over time, Deming became better known for his fourteen points for management that he believed would produce saner and more productive workplaces. They are as follows:

1. Create constancy of purpose for improvement of product and service.
2. Adopt a new philosophy.
3. Cease dependence on inspection to achieve quality.
4. End the practice of awarding business on price tag alone. Instead, minimize total cost by working with a single supplier.
5. Improve constantly and forever every process for planning, production, and service.
6. Institute training on the job.
7. Adopt and institute leadership.
8. Drive out fear.
9. Break down barriers between staff areas.
10. Eliminate slogans, exhortations, and targets for the workforce.
11. Eliminate numerical quotas for the workforce and numerical goals for management.
12. Remove barriers that rob people of pride of workmanship. Eliminate the annual rating or merit system.
13. Institute a vigorous program of self-improvement for everyone.
14. Put everybody in the company to work to accomplish the transformation (Deming, 1982).

Group Theories

Group dynamics researchers have long had an interest in how groups change and evolve over time. The result has been a plethora of sequential stage theories describing predictable stages that groups move through as they grow and develop. While they appear different on the surface, there is more agreement than disagreement in them.

Probably the best-known group change theory is described by the following five stages (Tuckman, 1965; Tuckman and Jensen, 1977):

- *Forming*—As the group comes together a period of uncertainty prevails as members try to find their place in the group and the rules of the group are worked out.
- *Storming*—Conflicts begin to arise as members confront and work out their differences.
- *Norming*—The group reaches some consensus regarding the structure and norms for the group.
- *Performing*—Group members become proficient at working together.
- *Adjourning*—The group disbands.

These stages are a fundamental part of organizational life and HRD. They help explain critical features of group dynamics and help practitioners work effectively with groups.

Individual Theories

Two groups of theories, adult development theory and career development theory, represent significant change theories at the individual level.

Adult Development Theory

Adults do not grow up overnight—they undergo a developmental process. Researchers now understand that development does not end when adulthood is reached, but rather continues to progress in a variety of ways. Adult development theories are having a profound influence on thinking about learning and change because adults' learning behavior varies considerably due to developmental influences. What is not clear is exactly how it changes, largely because adult development theory is still mostly an array of untested models. This section provides only a brief overview of adult development theory. Readers seeking a more complete discussion of adult development should consult Knowles et al. (1998), Bee (1996), Tennant and Pogson (1995), Knox (1977), or Merriam and Caffarella (1991).

Overview of adult development theories

Adult development theories are generally divided into three types: physical changes; personality and life span role development; and cognitive or intellectual development (Merriam and Caffarella, 1991; Tennant, 1997). Role development theory's primary contribution is to help explain how adults change in life roles. Cognitive development theories help explain key ways adults' thinking changes over their life.

Bee (1996) characterizes development theories as varying along two dimensions. First, theories vary in whether they include defined *stages* or *no stages*. Stage theories imply fixed sequences of sequentially occurring stages over time. Stage theories are quite common, while others offer no such fixed sequence of events.

Second, some theories focus on *development*, while some focus on *change* during adult life. *Change theories* are merely descriptive of typical changes experienced by adults. There is no normative hierarchy intended, so one phase is not better than another. They merely seek to describe typical or expected changes. Many of the life-span role development theories fit into this category. The premise of these theories is that there are certain predictable types of changes that occur throughout an adult's life. Here are some examples of these:

- Levinson's (1978, 1990) life stage theory, which divides adult life into three eras with alternating periods of stability and transitions. Each era brings with it certain predictable tasks and each transition between eras certain predictable challenges.

- Erikson's (1959) theory of identity development, which proposes that an adult's identity develops through resolution of eight crises or dilemmas.
- Loevinger's (1976) ten-stage model of ego development progressing from infancy to adulthood.

The contribution of all life span theories to HRD is similar. First, they say that adult life is a series of stages and transitions, each of which pushes the adult into unfamiliar territory. Second, each transition to a new stage creates a motivation to learn.

Development theories imply a hierarchical ordering of developmental sequences, with higher levels being better than lower levels. They include a normative component, which suggests that adults should progress to higher levels of development. Many of the cognitive development theories fit into this category. The core premise of cognitive development theories is that changes occur in a person's thinking processes over time. The foundation of most adult cognitive development theories is the work of Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget. Piaget hypothesized that children move through four stages of thinking: *sensory motor*, *preoperational*, *concrete operational*, and *formal operations*. Formal operations, at which a person reaches the ability to reason hypothetically and abstractly, is considered the stage at which mature adult thought begins, though many adults never reach it. Because Piaget was a child development specialist, his model implies that cognitive development stops upon reaching adulthood. Adult development theorists dispute that idea, focusing on various ways that cognitive development continues beyond formal operations.

Though few of the theories about adult development have been thoroughly tested, they have persisted because most adults intuitively recognize that change and development continues throughout adult life. The implications of the adult development perspective for HRD are immense because adult learning is inextricably intertwined with adult development. We tend to agree with the prevailing thinking today that there is no one theory that is "best." Rather, adult development should be viewed as consisting of multiple pathways and multiple dimensions (Daloz, 1986; Merriam, Caffarella, and Baumgartner, 2006).

Career Development Theory

While McLagan (1989) defines career development as one of the three areas of practice for HRD (see chapter 2), in recent years it has had declining influence on HRD. HRD has increasingly coalesced around personnel training and development and organization development as the primary fields of practice. Career development functions as an extension of the development component of T&D.

This shift in responsibility for career development is due to the changes that have occurred in the workplace where the notion of long-term careers with single organizations is mostly gone. Individuals have taken control of their own career development where organizations once had prevailed.

Career development has been slighted as a contributor to HRD. Career development theories pertaining to career choice among young people are less important to HRD because they do not fit traditional venues for HRD practice. However, career development theories that describe adult career development are important contributors to HRD practice because they describe adult progression through work roles—a primary venue for HRD practice. Fundamentally, these theories are a special type of change theory at the individual level. Two streams of research are particularly useful to HRD: Super's life span, life space approach to careers, and Dawis and Lofquist's theory of work adjustment. Readers wishing more information on these theories are encouraged to consult Brown and Brooks (1996), Osipow and Fitzgerald (1996), Super and Sverko (1995), and Dawis and Lofquist (1984).

Super's life span, life space approach

Super's theory developed over a lifetime of research. Currently, the theory consists of fourteen basic propositions (Super et al., 1996). Because it is the most complex career development theory, many elements are included in the propositions. Fundamentally, it includes these basic components:

- *Self-concept*—Development through life is a process of defining, developing, and implementing one's self-concept, which will change over time.
- *Life space*—A person's life is composed of a constellation of work and non-work roles, the balance of which change over life.
- *Life span*—Life also consists of a macrostructure of developmental stages as described in adult development theory.
- *Role changes in life*—A person's self-concept changes as life roles change, in turn resulting in career changes as a person fits work to the changes in life roles and self-concept.

Unlike more traditional trait approaches to career choice and development, Super's theory is focused on change. Super sees adult life as built upon change and development (the adult development perspective), which in turn changes a person's self-concept. A person's work and career is, then, a place where the self-concept is acted out.

The power of this theory for HRD is that it directly explains many of the work-related changes adults undergo. A large portion of the demand for HRD in organizations is influenced by adults in the workplace changing roles and acting out their changing needs at work. Furthermore, adults often turn to HRD to help them make career changes outlined in this theory. Thus, because this theory is change oriented, it is a powerful career development theory for HRD.

Theory of Work Adjustment

This theory is built on the process of individuals and organizations adjusting to fit each other (Dawis and Lofquist, 1984). According to this theory, individuals

and organizations have needs, and they interact in order to meet these needs through the other. When the interaction is mutually satisfying, the person and environment are said to be in correspondence with each other. Correspondence will mean that workers are *satisfied*, and they are *satisfactory* to the organization because they possess the necessary skills and expertise. This is called *person-environment correspondence* (PEC).

What makes this a change-oriented theory is that correspondence rarely lasts, because the needs of the worker and of the organization are constantly changing (Morris and Madsen, 2007). Thus, work and a career is an ongoing process of the organization and the worker providing feedback to each other. Both may attempt to make changes to accommodate the other, called *adjustment behaviors*. A person's perceptions of needed adjustments is influenced by his or her self-concept. This adjustment often takes the form of development as capabilities are expanded to meet organizational requirements.

Like most good theories, it is deceptively simple to describe but powerful in practice. It describes the fundamental systemic dynamics underlying much of the employee-organization interaction. Again, many of the adjustments made as a result of the interactions lead directly to HRD interventions. For example, changes in skills needed by the organization will result in developmental opportunities for employees. Similarly, changes in individual employee needs will often lead to HRD assistance for changing work roles. When combined with Super's work, these theories provide valuable insights to change dynamics at the individual level in organizations.

LEADING AND MANAGING ORGANIZATION CHANGE

Of primary interest to the study of change has been development of prescriptive process models to help change agents understand the best approach to leading change. These models provide specific tasks that change agents must accomplish in order to lead change successfully. Many different process models have developed, and while each has its different nuances, at the core most are really quite similar.

Five key activities for contributing to effective change management have been proposed: motivating change, creating a vision, developing political support, managing the transition, and sustaining momentum (Cummings and Worley, 2001, p. 155). A more detailed eight-stage model for creating major change is shown in Figure 14.9.

CONCLUSION

By understanding the complexities of change the HRD professionals can be more effective in organizations. The integration of learning, performance, and change

Figure 14.9 Stages of Change Phases

1. **Establishing a Sense of Urgency**
 - Examining the market and competitive realities
 - Identifying and discussing crises, potential crises, or major opportunities
2. **Creating the Guiding Coalition**
 - Putting together a group with enough power to lead the change
 - Getting the group to work together like a team
3. **Developing a Vision and Strategy**
 - Creating a vision to help direct the change effort
 - Developing strategies for achieving that vision
4. **Communicating the Change Vision**
 - Using every vehicle possible to constantly communicate the new vision and strategies
 - Having the guiding coalition role model the behavior expected of employees
5. **Empowering Broad-Based Action**
 - Getting rid of obstacles
 - Changing systems or structures that undermine the change vision
 - Encouraging risk taking and nontraditional ideas, activities, and actions
6. **Generating Short-term Wins**
 - Planning for visible improvements in performance, or “wins”
 - Creating those wins
 - Visibly recognizing and rewarding people who made the wins possible
7. **Consolidating Gains and Producing More Change**
 - Using increased credibility to change all systems, structures, and policies that don’t fit together and don’t fit the transformation vision
 - Hiring, promoting, and developing people who can implement the change vision
 - Reinvigorating the process with new projects, themes, and change agents
8. **Anchoring New Approaches in the Culture**
 - Creating better performance through customer- and productivity-oriented behavior, more and better leadership, and more effective management
 - Articulating the connections between new behaviors and organizational success
 - Developing means to ensure leadership development and succession

Source: Kotter, 1996, p. 21. Used with permission.

under one umbrella discipline makes HRD unique and powerful. These three constructs are central to organizational effectiveness and will continue to become even more important in the future.

REFLECTION QUESTIONS

1. Why is change an important organizing construct for HRD?
2. How can HRD become more of a change leader in organizations, rather than a change facilitator?
3. What similarities and differences do you see among the organization, work process, group, and individual change theories?
4. Can all theories of change be captured in one type or a combination of types within Van de Ven and Poole’s typology?
5. What is the responsible connection between change and performance?



Organization Development Practices

CHAPTER OUTLINE

Introduction

Variations in OD Practices

- Expected Results from OD Interventions
- OD in Relation to the Host Organization
- OD Process Expertise

Core OD Practices

- OD Revolves around the Change Process
- Trust and Integrity in OD
- OD Dynamics in Practice

Organization-Focused OD Practices

- Organization Strategy and Culture Practices
- Planning for the Future Practices

Work Process-Focused OD Practices

- Process Improvement Practices
- Benchmarking Practices

Group-Focused OD Practices

- Cross-Cultural Team Building Practices
- Group Conflict Practices

Individual-Focused OD Practices

- 360-Degree Feedback Practices
- Career Development Assessment Center Practices
- Coaching Practices

Conclusion

Reflection Questions

INTRODUCTION

Part Five of this book has dealt with organization development (OD). Chapter 13 captured the essence of the OD component of HRD, and chapter 14 delved deeper into the nature of change, the heart of OD interventions. This third and final chapter in Part Five provides illustrations of OD practice as it spans from organizations to individuals along with variations in the core thinking that guides OD practices, interventions, and tool selection.

VARIATIONS IN OD PRACTICES

OD is the process of implementing organizational change aimed at improving performance through the direct and indirect utilization of expertise. Under this banner there are variations in OD practice. Practices in OD have historically been rooted in the psychological realm, with intervention outcomes being human perceptions of effects versus hard business measures. This remains a fundamental problem for OD as the field seems to value its OD processes more than its results. Scholarly reviews of the organization change and development literature pays scant attention to verified outcomes (Clegg, Hardy, Lawrence and Nord, 2006; Weick and Quinn, 1999). OD authors spend large amounts of time talking about the inner workings change process—adaptation, learning, intervention, and transformation—with scant connection to success or failure other than the stakeholder perceptions of effectiveness. Similarly, Church and McMahan (1996) studied the perceptions of OD practitioner leaders in top U.S. firms as to the purpose of OD. When asked to react to the statement, “Practitioners should focus more on effectiveness, efficiency, and competitive advantage to remain viable organizations for the future,” only 53 percent strongly agreed, 29 percent moderately agreed, 12 percent slightly agreed, 6 percent slightly disagreed, and none strongly disagreed.

Expected Results from OD Interventions

Expected outcomes from OD interventions have shifted so an emphasis on organization results. This coincides with the inclusion of economic and systems principles and tools increasingly being utilized in OD practice. Historically, OD has been noted for its focus on behavioral science processes and tools. For example, the iconic “The OD Cube” (Schmuck and Miles, 1971) with its axes of (1) diagnosed problems, (2) focus of attention, and (3) mode of interventions illustrates this point. The list of diagnosed problems does not include any mission-level outcomes or financial measures as a focus of problems. Instead, the cube offers solutions to unidentified mission-level organization problems.

Thinking more clearly about the anticipated results from the onset of any OD effort fundamentally affects the process. For example, the assessment domains of performance, learning, and perceptions from the *Results Assessment*

System (Swanson and Holton, 1999) help to frame the anticipated results. *Performance results* are defined as follows:

System: The units of mission-related outputs in the form of goods and/or services having value to the customer and that are related to the core organizational, work processes, group/individual contributors in the organization.

Financial: the conversion of the output units of goods and/or services attributable to the intervention into money and financial interpretation. (p. 14)

Learning results are defined as follows:

Knowledge: Mental achievement acquired through study and experience.

Expertise: Human behaviors, having effective results and optimal efficiency, acquired through study and experience within a specialized domain. (p. 17)

Perception results are described as follows:

Participant Perceptions: Perceptions of people with first-hand experience with systems, processes, goods and/or services.

Stakeholder Perceptions: Perceptions of leaders of systems and/or people with a vested interest in the desired results and the means of achieving them. (p. 18)

OD in Relation to the Host Organization

The range of OD providers spans from a single consultant (internal or external), to consultant firms larger than their clients (e.g., Accenture Global Services, formerly Arthur Anderson Consulting), to guru status consultants (e.g., management consultant Tom Peters). The authority and credibility of the OD organization and the OD person leading the process have a fundamental impact on OD work.

OD Process Expertise

OD process expertise is considered a strategic variable. Consultants and consultant firms often define themselves through their particular method of entry into the firm or by their up-front analysis method. For example, large consulting firms pride themselves on their industry-level data (e.g., banking or auto industry) and holistic analysis methods, high-profile consultants (e.g., Brache, 2002; Chermack and Walton, 2006; Nadler et al., 1992; Rummler and Brache, 1995) may have a unique up-front organizational diagnosis methodology that they market through their books, and others use an inviting planning or diagnostic tool (e.g., future search or 360-degree assessment) for entry into organizations.

CORE OD PRACTICES

OD does not employ a large number of standard practices; rather, issues related to practices are fairly standard. Three of these standard issues are presented here.

OD Practices Revolve around the Change Process

OD is committed to change and to guiding the change process. With all the evidence of the constancy of change and the increasing rate of change, OD is eager to assist and to help organizations and individuals drive change not for the sake of change but for the attainment of worthy goals. McLagan (2001, p. 44) writes about change being everybody's business and offers the following beliefs about change:

- Both stability and change are normal
- Resistance is a wake-up call
- Change starts before we see it
- Change moves in cycles and waves
- Leaders are co-learners
- Followers have power

She goes on to say "beliefs are more important in change than techniques. Beliefs affect whether you even think to or want to use techniques" (McLagan 2001, p. 3). In that OD practice is rife with techniques and advocates of those techniques, her words are important.

Trust and Integrity in OD Practice

OD processes rely on information from stakeholders and ultimately provide information back to those stakeholders. This information is often very uncomfortable, even threatening. Information confidentiality is an overriding practice issue with OD. Intelligent synthesis and sensitive presentation of information to clients build both trust and integrity. The trust in the OD process itself and the integrity of the process depends on the essential character of the OD consultant. Peter Drucker, management guru, wrote in 1973 that "it is character through which leadership is exercised; it is character that sets the example and is imitated" (p. 462). OD tools and techniques have the capacity to change people and organizations for better or worse, for personal gains or for the larger good. It is the acknowledgment of this power that elevates trust and integrity as being essential to sound OD practice.

OD Dynamics in Practice

The analogy of the card game and the challenge of knowing when to play, hold, or fold the cards is useful in thinking about the OD process dynamics. Practi-

tioners know that once the OD practitioner is engaged in an intervention, he or she becomes part of the ongoing organization. Change is a dynamic process that stretches out over time. It may be that this dynamic is the most challenging part of OD and why some people enjoy the process. The threat to an OD consultant, as with most helping professions, is in overrating one's importance in the process and not utilizing powerful analysis methods. Consultant humility and the engaging of sound sources of authority (beyond the consultant) is essential in managing the dynamics of the OD process.

ORGANIZATION-FOCUSED OD PRACTICES

As we have noted elsewhere in discussions about HRD, almost every sound OD effort has a T&D component, and almost every sound T&D effort has an OD component. A change effort in an organization will likely be classified as an OD intervention or carry a mission-focused title such as the classic Ford Motor Company mantra of "Quality is Job 1." Organization-wide OD practice is often focused on *organization culture* or a *future state* to ensure the sheer existence of the organization as well as its advancement. Thus, OD is best thought of as originating from concerns about the organization and then drops to the individuals and then back to the organization. In contrast, T&D is usually thought of as originating with concerns about individuals and up to the organization and then back to the individuals. Both function within and are held accountable by their host organization.

Organization Strategy and Culture Practices

Given shifts in the environment (economic, political, and cultural forces) and the organization itself (mission/strategy, organizational structure, technology, and human resources), an organization can find itself in or on the cusp of mission erosion, cultural disarray, and system disconnects. Consider the following example.

In a three-phase change effort, OD experts led the management team of a small manufacturer through a strategic planning process including (1) strategic planning, (2) culture assessment and realignment, and (3) quality improvement. Based on careful and deliberate analysis, revised vision and mission of the firm was produced by the top management team. It was painfully apparent that the existing state of the firm was far from this new vision and that all employees in the firm needed to be informed of, and seriously consider, the implications of the change required. It was decided to use external OD consultants to oversee a process of culture assessment and realignment before moving on to any effort at quality improvement implementation. This intermediate phase was seen as critical in moving from the strategic planning to the focused issues of quality improvement. Culture surveys, an important tool for managers in business and

industry in heading off such problems and facilitating the change journey, were employed. What is done with the survey data is critical in getting the full benefit. The following discussion is a closer look at the use of culture surveys.

Culture Survey Practices

Culture surveys can be used to gather information directly from all employees that are not quickly available from other sources. For example, managers experiencing problems in operations often use production reports to get information about the status of operations, but production reports are insufficient for guiding any organization-wide change effort.

A culture survey, by its nature, is a participatory and highly visible organizational assessment. Culture surveys can be useful in up-front organizational analysis. They can also be used to benchmark a present state and to monitor change over time. Management can use a culture survey to communicate its vision and performance expectations for the organization's culture to the organization's and operationalize the vision. For example, if management's vision of the organization culture emphasizes employee participation in decision making for the purpose of improvements, items on the culture survey could measure employees' perceptions of their involvement in specific decision-making processes.

Some principles that have proven useful in successfully implementing a cultural survey include the following (Sleezer and Swanson, 1992):

- Analyze the situation before developing the survey.
- Design the survey instrument to collect specific information.
- Administer the survey consistently.
- Take care not to overreact to the data.
- Act on the results of a survey.

Sleezer and Swanson (1992) describe a company-wide change effort that was driven by the use of culture surveys filled out by all employees every six months. The survey was first organized around dimensions of the strategic plan of the company. Those dimensions were then used as means of selecting the general cultural variables and the specific survey questions. McLean's (1988) bank of culture climate questions framed the categories and specific questions for the culture survey. The first survey provided baseline information to which management and employees reviewed and reacted. The consultants identified the key issues related to the purpose of this survey and suggested specific actions in sharing the data with all employees through group meetings. Employees became trusting when they discovered that their responses had been accurately reported and confidentiality had been maintained.

When the second survey was implemented six months later, the newfound trust in the survey process and follow-up meetings allowed for much more open and honest discussion and planning. When management examined the report

from the second survey, they were surprised at the intensity of the employees' feelings and the specificity of their concerns.

The culture survey results caused managers to look closer at its reorganization plan and to reexamine their vision. Workers and managers then decided that they needed to focus on quality, be a more participative organization, and execute an open-door policy. They also supported a six-point action plan with such items as (1) changing the structure of the workforce and (2) insisting that managers and supervisors work in participation with employees.

By the time the third survey was implemented, management had begun to see changes in the way workers were talking about their company and responding to problems throughout the company. Employees were beginning to contribute toward product quality and quantity. The culture survey process forced management to listen to employees, and their listening began to pay off in increased employee satisfaction and in increased productivity measures—a new company culture was emerging, and they began to engage in full-blown quality improvement efforts that continued to result in process efficiencies and significant reductions in reject rates.

Planning for the Future Practices

As more organizations face continuous change, OD practitioners have developed expertise and tools to operate successfully in such an environment. In an environment of constant change and challenge, nontraditional tools for anticipating and planning for change are being used, such as future search conferences, large-scale interventions, and scenario planning—all aimed at attaining future performance results.

Organization development for a future state of an organization is the purpose of the scenario-planning process (Chermack, 2005). A scenario is "a tool for ordering one's perceptions about alternative future environments in which decisions might be played out" (Schwartz, 1996, p. 4). The process of scenario planning generally involves development of several plots and supporting narratives that illustrate primary forces driving change within a system, their interrelationships, and uncertainties in the environment (Wack, 1985b). Scenarios help decision makers structure and think about uncertainty, test their assumptions about how critical driving forces will interact, and reorganize their mental model of reality (Wack, 1985a). Chapter 16 devotes a major section to scenario planning.

Many think of scenario development as an art rather than a science (Schwartz, 1996). The process provides safe and often engaging opportunities to explore the implications of uncertainty and to think through ways of responding to it. Scenarios enable planners to deal more confidently in the midst of uncertainty (Chermack and Burt, 2008; Schwartz, 1996; van der Heijden, 1995).

Van der Heijden (1996) characterizes the individual and organizational learning process of scenario planning as organizing complex information on future

trends and possibilities into a series of plausible stories. Scenarios are seen as interpretive tools that create meaning and thereby guide action. The use of multiple plausible futures helps decision makers think more expansively about change and to adopt multiple perspectives for the purpose of understanding future events. In the end, scenarios offer entrepreneurial and protective benefits to organizations (Wack, 1985b).

The Centre for Innovative Leadership (van der Merwe, 1997) describes the scenario development process as follows:

1. Identification of a strategic organizational agenda, including assumptions and concerns about current strategic thinking and vision
2. Challenging of existing assumptions of organizational decision makers by questioning current mental models about the external environment
3. Systematically examining the organization's external environment to improve understanding of the structure of the key forces driving change
4. Synthesis of information about possible future events into three or four alternative plots or story lines about possible futures
5. Development of narratives around the story lines to make the stories relevant and compelling to decision makers
6. Use of the stories to help decision makers "re-view" their strategic thinking

Chapter 16 deals with the strategic roles of HRD and contains a discussion of the integration of scenario planning and strategic planning into a strategic organizational planning process.

WORK PROCESS-FOCUSED OD PRACTICES

W. Edwards Deming (1982) believed that 80 percent of the problems in organizations were the result of bad systems, not bad people. Nevin (1992) went on to say, "If you want to drive people crazy, give them a great sense of responsibility and no authority." Good people are working in bad processes over which they have no authority. The great advantage of studying work processes is that they are there and they are inanimate, something apart from individual perceptions and emotions.

While work systems and work processes are inventions of individuals, they end up taking on a life of their own. When work processes are used as the point of OD problem entry into the organization (versus people problems), they simply represent the way things get done. So many of the OD models and methods start with people and finger pointing (usually an exercise in power). When an OD practitioner asks would-be finger pointers to review and document the actual way things get done (the work processes that are regularly carried out), the present work process (good or bad) becomes more a matter of fact versus blame—"it is simply the way it is."

We believe that engaging stakeholders in studying work processes is one of the most underused OD strategies. Two specific practices are *process improvement* and *benchmarking*.

Process Improvement Practices

Numerous strategies are available for improving work processes. Process reengineering as proposed by Hammer and Champy (1992) is the most radical and unacceptable methodology. It fails in most cases and causes systemic havoc (Swanson, 1993). Shewhart's classic "plan-do-check-act" cycle (Schultz and Parker, 1988) is one method of studying processes (Figure 15.1). Rummier and Brache (1995) have a very practical tool in their larger organization development methodology for producing "is" and "should" process flow charts. The act of documenting things just as they are produces a pragmatic and objective view of reality. This strategy is in contrast to the accumulation of people's feelings and

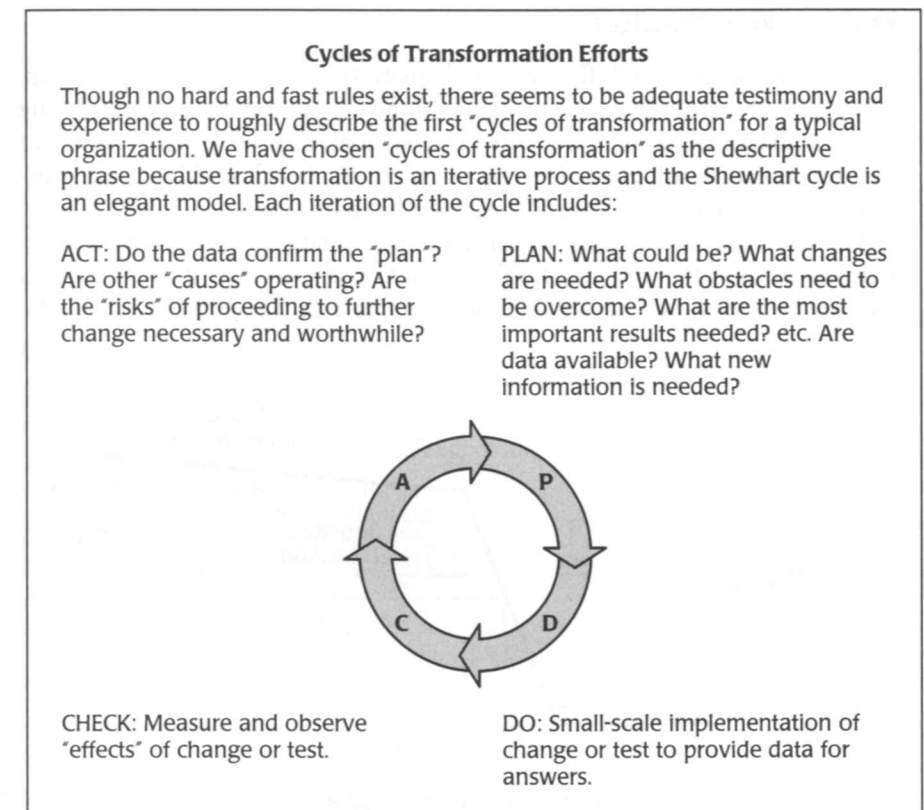


Figure 15.1 Shewart's Plan-Do-Check-Act Cycle

Source: Shultz and Parker, 1988, p. 53. Used with permission.

perceptions of their reality, the focus of many OD methods. In both process improvement models noted, the gap between the existing process and the re-designed process represents the improvement focus that can be easily understood and pursued.

Another plan for process improvement has been put forward by Davenport (1993) (see Figure 15.2). It is conceptually between incremental process improvement and radical reengineering. Calling it *process innovation*, he believes it “encompasses the envisioning of new work strategies, the actual process design activity, and the implementation of the change in all its complex technological, human, and organizational dimensions” (p. 2). A high-level depiction of his unique five-step process includes: identifying processes for innovation, (2) identifying change levers, (3) developing process visions, (4) understanding existing processes, and (5) designing and prototyping the new processes. Clearly, work process expertise is required to engage in process innovation. Process improvement is much more focused on systems than many of the people-oriented problem-solving methods used by OD practitioners.

Benchmarking Practices

Benchmarking is the search for, and implementation of, best practices (Camp, 1995, p. 15). It is a process of learning from the best of the best and emulating those best practices. As such, it is best suited to analyzing work processes aimed at defined organization goals. The five phases of the benchmarking process include planning, analysis, integration, action, and maturity (see Figure 15.3).

Walton (1999) notes that “best practice benchmarking entails comparing a particular aspect of an organization’s product or service against organizations which are held to be ‘best in class’ in that particular area. They may or may not be

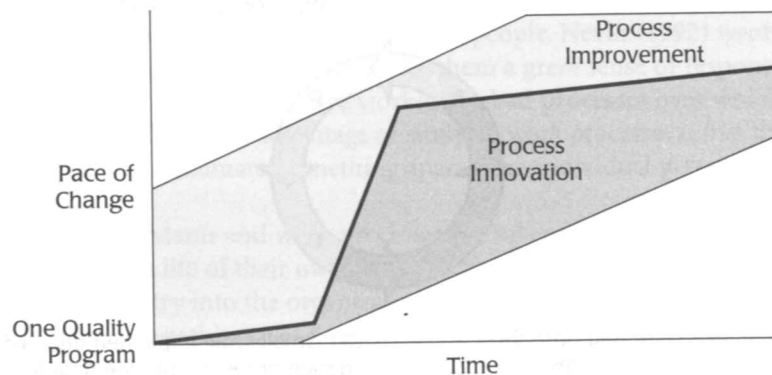


Figure 15.2 Process Improvement and Process Innovation
Source: Davenport, 1993. Used with permission.

- **Planning:** Identify what to benchmark, identify whom to benchmark, and gather data.
- **Analysis:** Examine the performance gap and project future performance.
- **Integration:** Communicate the findings and develop new goals.
- **Action:** Take actions, monitor progress, and recalibrate measures as needed.
- **Maturity:** Achieve the desired state.

Phase 1: Planning

A plan for benchmarking is prepared.

- **Decide:** What to benchmark
- **Identify:** Whom to benchmark
- **Plan:** The investigation and conduct it
 - Gather necessary information and data
 - Observe the best practices

Phase 2: Analysis

The gap is examined and the performance is assessed against best practices.

- **Determine:** The current performance gap
- **Project:** Future performance levels

Phase 3: Integration

The goals are redefined and incorporated into the planning process.

- **Communicate:** Benchmark findings and gain acceptance
- **Revise:** Performance goals

Phase 4: Action

Best practices are implemented and periodically recalibrated as needed.

- **Develop:** Action plans
- **Implement:** Actions and monitor progress
- **Recalibrate:** The benchmarks

Phase 5: Maturity

Leadership may be achieved.

- **Determine:** When leadership position is attained
- **Assess:** Benchmarking as an ongoing process

Figure 15.3 The Five Phases of the Benchmarking Process
Source: Camp, 1995. Used with permission.

competitors. Techniques tend to be more overt than competitive benchmarking and often include prearranged site visits in order to confirm by observation what one has been told" (p. 306).

GROUP-FOCUSED OD PRACTICES

Group-focused OD has been the mainstay of organization development practice. More OD discussions and tools are aimed at this level than any other. Two examples highlighted here are team building and group conflict.

Cross-Cultural Team-Building Practices

Team building is "the process of helping a work group become more effective in accomplishing its tasks and satisfying the needs of group members" (Cummings and Worley, 2001, p. 676). Personnel Decisions International (1996) describes a cross-cultural team-building challenge they addressed:

The Challenge: Copenhagen-based Oresund Tunnel Contractors was formed in 1995 to build a tunnel that will connect Copenhagen, Denmark and Malmo, Sweden. Oresund's parent companies—NCC (Sweden), John Laing (United Kingdom), Dumez GTM (France), Boskalis (Netherlands), and Phil and Soen (Denmark)—challenged the company's new management team, which included 45 representatives from each of the founding companies, to create a cohesive culture that would benefit from the leadership of a diverse management team and communicate clear goals and consistent strategies.

The Solution: Early in 1996, the consultants from each of the companies' parent countries administered a questionnaire to Oresund's management team that examined the impact of cultural differences on their success. The consultants also interviewed certain members of the team about the effectiveness of the group's new working relationships. Using the results of their research, the consultants designed and facilitated workshops that addressed how cultural differences affect corporate culture. The program culminated in a three-day team-building event consisting of exercises that developed the communications skills and trust levels between Oresund management team members.

The Result: Members of Oresund's management team reported that their new understanding of how cultural differences impact working behavior has reduced the potential for misunderstanding and conflicts between colleagues. They also said that the positive relationships that existed between key managers improved the consistency and flow of information. The consultants planned a follow-up session to track how the management team had progressed against a "change" questionnaire.

Group Conflict Practices

OD is often called upon to intervene when group conflict arises or could arise. OD practitioners employ any number of diagnostic and communication techniques to analyze and resolve relationship and communication problems. While differences in perceptions can vary between any two people, situations are heightened when there are age differences, ethnic differences, gender differences, educational differences, and national differences. OD practitioners must be sensitive to those differences and fair in their transactions.

At a national level, Hofstede's (1961) classic model for understanding national-level cultural differences highlights both the differences and challenge those differences pose to the OD practitioner (Figure 15.4). The ideal situation would be that the potential for conflict would be anticipated and that interventions would be carried out to ward off conflict rather than react to conflict.

At a work-group level, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator identifies the personality dichotomies of individuals as being extroverted-introverted, sensing-intuitive, thinking-feeling, and judging-perceiving. Combinations within individuals, and among individuals in work groups, are believed to predict communication and relationship problems, needs, and solutions (Briggs, 1995). In a related realm, attention to the emotional intelligence of people working in organizations has gained interest along with questionable utility (Weinberger, 2002).

INDIVIDUAL-FOCUSED OD PRACTICES

Much of OD's history has been focused on the development of individuals (primarily the process of changing a person's Gestalt from one pattern or another) and the expectation that such a transformation would result in organization development. The highly criticized T-groups advanced in the 1950s are the most vivid example. The avenue to organization development through individual development and the unleashing of human expertise remains strong. Two OD practices that are focused on the individual include 360-degree feedback and career assessment centers.

360-Degree Feedback Practices

Individual contributors in organizations almost universally desire to be effective. Even so, individuals nearly always function in their environments with limited feedback as to how well they are functioning in the eyes of those around them. Addressing this need is 360-degree feedback, sometimes referred to as *multirater appraisals*, *multisource feedback*, or *360-degree profiling*. It is essentially a process that enables a person to receive feedback from a number of people, usually entailing developmental feedback relating to behaviors, skills, and competencies. Typically, in

Figure 15.4 Cultural Values and Organization Customs

Value	Definition	Organization Customs When the Value is at One Extreme	Representative Countries
Context	The extent to which words carry the meaning of a message; how time is viewed	Ceremony and routines are common. Structure is less formal; fewer written policies exist.	High: Asian and Latin American countries Low: Scandinavian countries, United States
Power distance	The extent to which members of a society accept that power is distributed unequally in an organization	People are often late for appointments. Decision making is autocratic. Superiors consider subordinates as part of a different class. Subordinates are closely supervised. Employees are not likely to disagree. Powerful people are entitled to privileges. Experts have status/authority. Clear roles are preferred. Conflict is undesirable. Change is resisted.	High: Latin American and Eastern European countries Low: Scandinavian countries
Uncertainty avoidance	The extent to which members of an organization tolerate the unfamiliar and unpredictable	Conservative practices are preferred. Achievement is reflected in wealth and recognition. Decisiveness is valued. Larger and faster are better. Gender roles are clearly differentiated. Personal initiative is encouraged. Time is valuable to individuals. Competitiveness is accepted. Autonomy is highly valued.	High: Asian countries Low: European countries
Achievement orientation	The extent to which organization members value assertiveness and the acquisition of material goods		High: Asian and Latin American countries, South Africa Low: Scandinavian countries
Individualism	The extent to which people believe they should be responsible for themselves and their immediate families		High: United States Low: Latin American and Eastern European countries

Source: Based on Hofstede, 2001. Used with permission.

a 360-degree feedback scenario, an individual would receive feedback from his or her peers, direct reports, and manager. Sometimes other stakeholders such as clients, professional associates, and friends are polled.

Feedback can include ratings against questions or statements as well as comments and suggestions. The purpose of the feedback is usually to help individuals determine areas they need to develop. In some organizations it is also used to determine performance increases as part of a performance appraisal process. The question of whether 360-degree feedback should be used to determine performance increases is the cause of debate, however, and the misuses of this tool have been cited (McLean, 1997). In other contexts, this approach could be part of an ongoing leadership development process.

Suggestions for making 360-degree feedback work include the following:

- Enable participants to contribute to the design of the 360-degree feedback system.
- Develop a competency standard with careful consideration and much feedback from the people who will use it and from experts in the field.
- Develop a system that will not require employees to spend excessive time learning and then using.
- Run a small trial before implementing across the organization.
- Make changes to the system based on the feedback from the trial.
- Educate everyone in the organization before implementing the system.
- Ensure that confidentiality is maintained.
- Monitor the success of the system and modify appropriately.

Career Development Assessment Center Practices

Assessment centers within organizations or external consulting firms provide in-depth information about individual contributors. They are used for selection, individual development, and organization development purposes. Assessment centers engage people in high-fidelity simulations, role plays, and in-basket exercises. The military has done a great deal of work with the assessment center approach, and it has been used for upper management and executive-level career development.

Career development assessment centers sponsored by large organizations are often part of the career development assistance they provide to benefit individual and organization objectives. Responsible assessment centers do both.

Centers gain a large amount of information on individuals that can be used as a basis for advancing individual career development and actual careers in the sponsoring firm. When this is not feasible, assessment centers help individuals get to new employment that offers a better fit. With this level of integrity being known to company personnel, there is a willingness to "risk the growth."

Overview of an assessment process as reported by the Personnel Decision International (1999) Web site is as follows:

1. Understand the company's business strategies, context, and requirements of the role.
 - Review documentation.
 - Interview those knowledgeable about the role.
2. Determine the purpose of the assessment.
 - Needs that drive the assessment.
 - How the results will be used.
 - Key questions to be addressed.
3. Design the assessment to meet organizational requirements.
 - Ensure the content of the assessment matches the content and requirements of the target role.
 - Use multiple, valid measurement techniques (e.g., could include tests of thinking ability and work style, structured interviews, work simulations) to assess the needed capabilities.
 - Use measures that are appropriate for the person's culture and language.
 - Tailor the output to meet the organization's needs.
 - Communicate clearly to all stakeholders about the purpose, process, and outcomes.
4. Conduct the assessment.
 - Provide a standardized setting.
 - Create a supportive environment.
 - Use well-trained staff.
5. Provide feedback/results.
 - Address the company's needs and questions.
 - Address the needed capabilities.
 - Provide input on how to develop the person's potential.
 - Protect confidentiality.
6. Use the results to align people with the business requirements.
 - Review the fit between people's capabilities and the needs of the business.
 - Advise on how to optimize allocation and development of competencies.

Coaching Practices

Coaching involves a senior manager or external consultant working one-on-one with another worker, focusing on the results of a job and what it takes to achieve

those results (Walton, 1999). Mentoring is different in that mentoring is more likely a life-long or extended personal relationship.

Coaches help to clarify performance goals and development needs, reinforce effective on-the-job performance, recommend specific behaviors needing improvement, and serve as role models in demonstrating professional behavior (Lieowitz and Schlossberg, 1981). The process requires multisource feedback from the coach and for the coach to help the manager or executive absorb the information (Church, Walker, and Brochner, 2002). Coaches, working in confidence, help the person being coached deal with a variety of sensitivities. These sensitivities are profiled in Figure 15.5.

CONCLUSION

Organization development takes many forms. At the narrow and specific end of the spectrum, it can be focused on one person who has difficulty fitting in and

Figure 15.5 Common Types of Sensitivities and Associated Distortions in Performance

Sensitivity to . . .	Impact on Performance	
	UNDERDO—DO TOO LITTLE	OVERDO—DO TOO MUCH
Intellectual interdependency	Doesn't contribute ideas in meetings Doesn't trust own feelings Avoids technical learning Avoids industry analysis and strategic planning	Strains to prove self Works extra hours Impatience with the pace of others Overprepares for meetings, presentations
Being/appearing weak	Doesn't delegate or empower Doesn't seek, listen to, or use input Doesn't check own judgment Short on praise or encouragement	Talks too much, or "knows-it-all" Taking over when problems arise Has to always be right, always with arrogance
Disapproval/rejections	Doesn't hold people accountable Doesn't express dissatisfaction Doesn't defend his/her ground Not viable	Indiscriminate with praise Sugarcoats tough messages Too inclusive Overreacts to constructive criticism
Depending on others	Difficulty building a team Doesn't delegate or seek help Reluctant to partner with peers	Micromanages Tries to do it him/herself Parochial—too focused on own self
Authority	Avoids conflict with superiors Ambivalent about own authority	Too aggressive with superiors Unduly deferential

Source: Kaiser and Kaplan, 2006, p. 469.

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contributing to an organization. At the other end of the spectrum, it can emphasize shaping the future state of the organization through whole systems analysis, alignment, and improvement or through guided future search or scenario planning. The dominant OD practices in the middle of the OD spectrum center on team functioning, improving existing work processes, and work group conditions in a changing environment.

REFLECTION QUESTIONS

1. What are three principles of good OD practice?
2. Identify an organization with which you are familiar and briefly describe it. Speculate as to how that organization's mission would impact the OD practices.
3. What are two to four major implications of having an OD effort in a single site location versus ten sites across the nation?
4. When does work process-focused versus group-focused OD make sense?
5. How do career development and OD connect?
6. Discuss how OD tools and techniques could be used for unethical ends.