EIILM UNIVERSITY
SIKKIM

CHANGE & DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

The Foundations of Organization Development

Introduction

Organization Development (OD) is the systematic application of behavioural science to bring about planned change in organizations. Its objectives are improved adaptability, productivity, effectiveness and a higher quality of work-life. It accomplishes this by changing values, attitudes, strategies, behaviours, procedures and structures so that organizations can adapt to the ever-increasing pace of change, technological advancement and competitive forces. During this first part of the module we will:

- Outline the Four Key Orientations and the 7-S model of OD;
- Review typical precedes to an OD intervention;
- Explore the motives and expectations that may be associated with OD;
- Review approaches to managing motivations and expectations.

1.1 The Four Key Orientations and Seven Ss of OD

OD is a complex behavioural science that has four key orientations:

- **A systemic orientation**: The understanding that all parts of an organization (structure, technology, processes, people) are highly connected. Problems can occur at one or more levels and have far reaching consequences throughout the organization;
- **A problem-solving orientation**: A focus on problem identification, data gathering, option generation, cost/benefit analysis, decision-making, action planning, monitoring, review and adaptability - in the light of subjective experience;
- **A humanistic orientation**: A positive belief about the potential of people, their rights, their need for autonomy and support in varying measures, and the value of their subjective experience;

- **An experiential learning orientation**: An acceptance that training, development and organizational learning should be based on the subjective experiences of all those involved.

OD also influences a wide range of organizational factors. To illustrate this, Peters and Waterman (1982) developed an analytical tool termed 'The Seven Ss'' - more latterly referred to as the 7-S Model. By way of an outline:

- **Structure** The framework in which the activities of the organization's members are coordinated. The four basic structural forms are the functional form, divisional structure, matrix structure, and network structure;
- **Strategy** The route that the organization has chosen for its future growth and to gain a sustainable competitive advantage;
- **Systems** The formal and informal procedures, including, management information systems, capital allocation systems, reward systems, quality systems and innovation systems;
- **Skills** What the company does best; the distinctive capabilities and competencies that reside in the organization;
- **Shared values** The guiding concepts and principles of the organization - values and aspirations, often unwritten - that go beyond the conventional statements of corporate objectives; the fundamental ideas around which a business is built; the things that influence a group to work together for a common aim;
- **Staff** The organization's human resources and the ways they are developed, trained, socialized, integrated, motivated, and managed;
- **Style** The leadership approach of top management and the organization's overall operating approach, including the way in which the organization's employees present themselves to the outside world, to suppliers and customers.

To be effective, organizations must have a high degree of alignment among the 7-Ss. Each S must be consistent with and reinforce the other Ss, with all Ss being interrelated such that change

in one has a ripple effect on all the others. It is impossible to make sustainable progress on one without making progress on all the others.

Within a comprehensive OD effort, all four orientations would be used to bring about an improved alignment between all seven Ss. Now, given the complexity that these orientations and factors encompass, effective OD interventions will typically consist of a number of interdependent steps or phases, each of which builds on the previous one. Each step of an OD process provides new data, which can then be evaluated and incorporated into data generated previously and, in the light of this process flow, objectives are reassessed and decisions are made regarding the next steps. Thus, OD is an evolutionary process that responds to emerging organizational needs as the process unfolds.

1.2 Typical Precedes to an OD Intervention

OD interventions usually have as their starting point a client's felt need. This can manifest itself in a variety of ways, ranging from frustration with poor operating results to perceptions of 'people problems.' The initial role of the OD practitioner is one of working with organizational leaders to assist them in the appropriate analysis of their felt need. But in order to establish collaboration and ensure support for eventual change processes, good practice dictates that all those potentially affected by change should be included in this initial phase, i.e. it is not enough only to include those that first perceive, subjectively, the need.

Regarding subjectivity vs. objectivity, OD is a science that strives – in the first instance – for an objective analysis of an organization's state. Although subjective experience is valued (the humanistic and experiential learning orientations), the closest possible approximation towards objectivity is the foundation upon which full value is based (the systemic and problem-solving orientations).

The practitioner can use any of a number of different methods in his/her journey towards objectivity. For example, s/he can administer questionnaires, conduct surveys, employ observational techniques, ask employees to generate on-the-spot data, or analyse the various performance indicators that are found in organizational records (e.g. absenteeism, turnover, service levels). Then, after shared analysis has revealed some of the realities underpinning the client's felt need, and some indication has emerged as to the desired change being sought, it is necessary to establish the degree to which each of the 7-Ss need to be targeted.

1.3 An Exploration of Motivations and Expectations Associated with OD

A factor that is crucial to the success of an OD effort is the managerial motivation for becoming involved. Managers who lack an adequate understanding of what OD can and cannot be expected to accomplish may become involved for the wrong reasons. For example, the motive for engaging in an OD effort may be to 'sort out' staff that are 'misguided.' This view is likely to cause considerable trouble during an OD effort. In contrast, a positive motivation for launching an OD effort would be a willingness to engage in self-examination to build realistic expectations for change within a climate of openness, trust and authenticity.

From this, we can categorize motivations as either:

- Those that are questionable in that they tend to impair the success of an OD effort;
- Those that are supportive and tend to enhance the success of an OD effort.

Let's explore this in a little more detail.

(a) Motives that impair the success of an OD effort

In each of the following motivations, the manager described has begun an OD effort based on an inappropriate set of expectations, or as an indirect means to achieve an alternative agenda.

To key into a new form of training for staff

This manager characteristically believes that OD is a new type of training program designed to bring about a change in staff attitudes to the benefit of the team or organization as a whole. The general image of the OD practitioner is that of an inspiring lecturer who provides insight, advice and a clear path forward. This type of manager is likely to have little awareness of real organizational problems or the challenges of change.

To offer OD as an extra reward

This motive is characteristic of a manager who has some unused budget and wants to use it (rather than loose it!). S/he believes that an off-site OD event would make a good 'reward' in the form of a reprieve from the regular work routine. Thus, OD is seen as a recreational and/or social event run by a practitioner with good social skills. As a result the effort is not taken seriously in terms of operational priorities or for the contribution it can make to change efforts.

To boost staff morale

This may be linked to the previous motive. The manager who manifests this motive feels that some activity is needed to raise the spirits of staff, to convince them of their importance, and to

show them that the organization really cares about them. The assumption is that an OD effort will persuade staff that their managers are not as insensitive as they perceive. In effect, OD is thought of as a form of rally that will stress the positive aspects of change and generate support. An OD practitioner is thus seen as a motivational expert who stimulates enthusiasm.

To be included in the trend towards OD

This motive is indicative of political game-playing as well as a desire to keep up with management and organizational trends. Managers who are motivated in this way may believe it is fashionable to demonstrate concern for staff, and often they undertake an OD effort in response to pressure from various sources to adopt new practices (because the old ones aren't working). OD is viewed in terms of a fashionable event at which the practitioner is expected to serve as an articulate and witty 'master of ceremonies' as part of the change programme.

To gain personal approval and advancement

An extension of the previous motive, this one centres on the manager's desire to make the right impression with more senior managers, to appear progressive and concerned, and to ensure that his or her image is consistent with what is expected. Such a manager may view OD as a gimmick that is part of a career-advancement strategy. A practitioner who participates in this fantasy becomes a potential co-conspirator in furthering the manager's career.

To learn how to be nicer

This motive is characteristic of managers who have been conditioned by years of autocratic leadership and suddenly become aware that top management no longer supports this style – at least in theory. The message they receive is that they need to show more appreciation for and interest in their staff and to improve human relations. Although such managers may view this trend as pampering staff, they resign themselves to co-operating as instructed. The OD process is thus perceived as a form of innocuous charm school, with the practitioner serving as a human-relations theorist who facilitates activities for the purpose of improving work etiquette.

To sell unpopular changes

The belief underlying this motive is that staff members are not mature enough to understand organizational needs and it is a waste of time to consult with them about related changes. Instead, management should make decisions independently and then win support for actions to

be taken. A further assumption is that efforts to build staff loyalty will pay off in terms of less questioning of change determined by management. The OD process is thus viewed as a form of advertising conducted by a practitioner who acts as a promoter of carefully orchestrated strategies.

To promote staff conformance

The manager who seeks to promote staff conformance characteristically clings to Theory-X beliefs (McGregor). Certain staff members are seen as unproductive and maladjusted and OD is viewed as a useful control device for manipulating or even shocking them into acceptable behaviour. The practitioner, therefore, becomes therapist, trouble-shooter, or 'hired gun.' Managers thus motivated are often acutely aware of morale problems and believe that the solution lies in an OD effort to communicate the organizational facts of life and to rehabilitate 'dinosaurs' by forcing them to change their attitudes. The probable results of such an effort are fear and its related consequences, including a closed atmosphere, a lack of trust and further 'hidden' resistance.

To avert personal disaster

This motive is characteristic of managers who are under great pressure either to change or to produce results that are not forthcoming. They see OD as a panacea, a last-chance miracle cure to save them from any number of punishments, including the loss of their jobs. Often they feel the need to improve costs, quality or profits quickly and to be able to show measures of improvement immediately. OD is perceived as a means to achieve quick payoffs and the practitioner is thought of as a saviour.

OD efforts based on any of the above motivations will almost certainly produce unrealistic expectations and eventual scepticism when nothing concrete or permanent occurs in the way of organizational and behavioural change.

(b) Motives that support the success of an OD effort

In contrast to the negative motives just discussed, those that follow represent a more legitimate motivational foundation that can provide the appropriate support for an OD effort. These motivation categories are indicative of more realistic views of OD and the practitioner's role. Consequently, the chances of success based on these motives are much higher than those associated with the negative motives outlined above.

To investigate problems

This motive and the two that follow are oriented towards 'learning'. The manager who enters an OD effort to investigate problems recognizes that the organization is not resolving its problems. S/he is likely to be aware that current statements of these problems are couched in terms that make solution improbable and wonders whether the real problems are, in fact, not being voiced. This type of manager relies heavily on intuition and wants to explore the situation to see whether OD can help to define the real problems. OD is thus viewed as an exploratory, analytical device, with OD activities perceived as cautious, judicious efforts to increase available data by opening communication and generating upward feedback within the organization. When an effort is conducted on this basis, the practitioner becomes a co-investigator.

To test OD as a helpful approach

The manager whose motive is to test the usefulness of OD will see human problems as the underlying cause for other problems being experienced by the organization, but is uncertain whether OD will confirm this perception. Such a manager generally feels that s/he has never been able to break through to the real problem areas, that staff are holding back and hesitant to say what they really think and that all staff should be more involved in problem-solving and decision-making processes. Thus, an OD effort is initiated as a test project to determine whether real problem-solving will occur. Each activity is fully supported and carefully monitored. The practitioner is viewed as a potential source of creativity, a catalyst and a resource.

To undergo an educational process

This motive, like the two preceding ones, is based on an observed need for learning. It is also indicative of a genuine respect for education and a strong belief in the connection between learning and problem-solving. In this case the manager wants to achieve a full understanding of basic OD values, the rationale behind activities, the commitments that must be made and the consequences - before launching an effort. S/he feels that OD may be helpful but wants to be certain about the practitioner's assessment of limitations. Thus, the OD process is seen as an unknown but potentially valuable management strategy. Activities are thought of as including learning and planning events as well as careful evaluations of various process options. The practitioner is considered to be both teacher and co-assessor.

To shape change

This motive, and the two that follow, are orientated towards 'doing'. The motivation to shape change reflects a clear realization that changes are necessary and that they will affect many people. Such a manager has a genuine desire to receive staff input about contemplated changes and wishes to reduce the fear associated with these changes. S/he wants to involve staff at all levels in the process of defining, implementing, and promoting commitment to change. This manager views OD as a respected strategy for bringing about change, and individual activities are seen as proactive steps that reduce the anxiety associated with change. The practitioner is thought of as a sensitive change agent whose responsibility is to help the manager to unfreeze communications.

To assist with preventive maintenance

A manager who manifests this motive believes that the organization is doing well, that interpersonal relationships are generally good and that these positive conditions should be preserved through some mechanism that ensures ongoing future commitment. S/he is aware of the constant need to develop plans for the future and to involve staff at as many levels as possible in maintaining a state of alertness for early-warning signals of deterioration in processes such as communication, delegation and joint problem-solving. Such a manager also recognizes the consequences of maintaining a fast pace in the organization without periodic checks on staff feelings about such matters as involvement and commitment. OD is seen as offering various ways to accomplish such maintenance checks. The practitioner becomes an objective resource, a co-analyst and a helpful critic.

To build organizational strength

This motive is characteristic of the manager who realizes that the organization is functioning well but that vehicles must be established for continual re-examination in order to sustain excellence in performance. An additional goal is to identify and to tap human resources that have not been used to an optimum level. This type of manager also supports the inclusion of as many staff as possible in problem-solving, decision-making and planning. Thus, the manager views the practitioner as a co-analyst and catalyst.

To help remedy human resource problems

This motive and the two that follow tend to be oriented toward reinforcing both the 'learning' and 'doing' aspects of OD. Managers who display this motive recognize organizational

difficulties in the human-resource area that may be worsening but are not unsolvable. Usually such a manager admits that people are not addressing these difficulties. OD activities are viewed as necessary, sometimes painful or challenging steps required to fully analyse issues. The practitioner's role is seen as being that of an expert in interpersonal relations, a confronter, and a human-systems analyst.

To change the organizational climate

Managers of this type are anxious to ensure that the climate of the organization facilitates the meeting of organizational objectives. They express a genuine desire to build trust between individuals and groups in order to reduce 'backbiting' and destructive conflict. In addition, they want to increase commitment to objectives, build greater ownership of personal behaviour, and reduce defensive behaviours. Such a manager seeks to enhance collaborative and problem-solving capabilities throughout the organization. OD is thought to be both a philosophy and a strategy for examining current behaviour patterns and influencing norms. Activities are viewed as interrelated steps aimed at long-range improvements in climate. The practitioner is seen as a strategist, an analyst and an interpersonal-behaviour expert.

To revitalize the organization

The chief concerns of this type of manager are lacklustre performance and mediocrity in the organization. S/he wants to revitalize staff interest and involvement in the organization's structure, tasks, objectives, philosophy and vision. OD is believed to represent a strategy for improving the organization's use of resources, particularly through emphasis on staff self-assessment. Activities are seen as steps that are taken to build awareness of problem performance patterns and to elicit support for changes related to these patterns. The practitioner serves as a catalyst and a guide in the process of change assessment.

1.4 Approaches to Managing Motivations and Expectations

Although no one has the ability to fully determine the motives and expectations of another person, it is possible to gain sufficient information to provide a workable assessment. To a certain extent, motivations and expectations can be screened during the preliminary contracting session. It is wise to request that this session be attended by the potential client manager, his or her immediate line manager, and at least some of his or her staff. If the manager seems reluctant to schedule a meeting with both the line manager and staff present, the practitioner can interpret this reluctance as a significant sign of inappropriate motivation. Sufficient time should be

allotted for this meeting to allow for a discussion of reasonable depth about felt needs, important issues, reactions and concerns regarding the ideas expressed.

To inquire into motives and expectations, the practitioner can ask questions such as these:

- What is it that interests you in exploring OD as an activity for your team/organization?
- If such an effort were launched, what end results would you expect or hope to achieve?
- What past developmental activities have you felt good about and why?
- What past developmental activities have you viewed as poor investments and why?
- If you had complete organizational power, what would you change and why?
- What concerns do you have about the possibility of engaging in an OD effort?
- What contributed to me being chosen to assist in this effort rather than someone else?
- What is your understanding of the motives of others in the organization for considering this effort? How do you feel about these motives?
- What specific role would you expect me to play in this effort?

While those attending the session are answering these questions, the practitioner should exercise active-listening skills. In responding to these answers it is appropriate to concentrate on reflecting, which consists of restating, in one's own words, what has just been suggested. This technique helps the practitioner to maintain a supportive atmosphere during the question-and-answer part of the meeting. By uncovering the motives for considering the use of OD processes, the practitioner can determine whether those present have a reasonably clear and realistic understanding of OD and what it might be expected to achieve.

As a practitioner, it is important not only to express concerns about motives but also to make one's own position as clear as possible. Therefore, the following information should be shared with potential clients:

- Personal views and concerns about appropriate and inappropriate motivation;
- Reactions to client expectations regarding what can and cannot be accomplished through an OD effort;
- The potential negative consequences of OD efforts that are poorly motivated, poorly conceived and/or poorly executed;
- Personal expectations and requirements for launching an OD effort.

Although using this candid approach with potential clients may create short-term pressure for the practitioner, in the long-term it can pay dividends by laying the basis for the authentic and mutually supportive relationship necessary to achieve success in an OD effort.
The form that such short-term pressure takes depends on the following factors:

- The level of openness achieved during the discussion;
- The perceived receptiveness to feedback on the part of those present;
- The apparent level of credibility enjoyed at this point by the practitioner;
- The practitioner's opinion as to whether any negative motives are susceptible to influence and change.

Without question some intuition is involved here. However, intuition and personal judgement are integral to the practice of OD, and the successful practitioner learns to rely heavily on his or her feelings and evaluations of circumstances.
The practitioner can confront a negative motive by offering direct and immediate feedback if it seems likely that the recipient will react with acceptance and a willingness to do what is necessary for the success of the effort. However, such feedback should not be given in an accusatory manner. Rather, the practitioner should use active-listening techniques to reduce the possibility of a defensive reaction and open the way for co-operation.
To deliver such feedback effectively, the practitioner must explain clearly why the motive is inappropriate, how it might damage an OD effort and how to safeguard against potentially damaging effects by including specific actions and on-going joint analysis. Thereafter the design of the intervention should explicitly guard against the potential consequences of the identified inappropriate motivation.
When dealing with the negative motives of clients who do not seem receptive to feedback, delayed confrontation may be more appropriate. This approach allows time for the organization's representatives to reflect on the discussion and for the practitioner to develop a strategy for avoiding the consequences of the negative motive. Options include:

- Indicating a desire to think about what has been said and to meet again at a later date to discuss a proposal for a project that will ensure that the determined needs are met. In this

way the practitioner can formulate the challenge into a presentation, thereby increasing the probability of client acceptance of any necessary actions.

- Suggesting the client summarizes in writing his or her understanding of the project as discussed so far. This option allows the practitioner to confront the motive as clearly as possible in terms of design recommendations.

To illustrate what is meant by 'design recommendations,' the situation in which the practitioner is faced with the impairing motive 'To boost staff morale' (see earlier) will be considered. To recap, the manager who manifests this motive feels that some activity is needed to raise the spirits of staff, to convince them of their importance, and to show them that the organization really cares about them. In such a case, the approach suggested by the practitioner may be:

(a) Use a diagnostic-based intervention to confirm or otherwise the assumption that the problem is, in fact, related to staff morale, then …

(b) Plan the response for the fuller intervention only after additional data have been obtained and jointly interpreted;

By taking this approach, the practitioner confronts the questionable motivation in a productive manner. If, in response to this suggestion, the organizational representatives react negatively, this hesitancy provides the practitioner with an opportunity to deal with the impairing motive on the basis of data rather than impressions.

CHAPTER 2

Beginning an Od Effort

Introduction

A successful long-term, OD project invariably begins with, and is guided by, a comprehensive and carefully planned strategy. The purpose of this section is:

- To outline the concepts behind strategy building;
- To present some options for an overall approach;
- To suggest ways to avoid, or at least minimize, the probability of failure patterns developing.

As a general point, the term 'practitioner' has been used, and will continue to be used, to cover the manager, leader or consultant that is leading the OD effort.

2.1 Building an OD Strategy

An OD strategy is a comprehensive plan based on a thorough analysis of organizational needs and goals. It is designed to bring about specific changes and to ensure that appropriate steps are taken to secure those changes. Included in it are:

- Desired objectives;
- Specific interventions aimed at achieving objectives;
- Time scales;
- A monitoring, review and evaluation system.

The strategy must specify contingencies as well as primary interventions and take into account the power and influence dynamics of the organization.

Specific interventions, such as team building and job redesign, are not strategies. Interventions, unlike strategies, are simple activities with limited end objectives. Practitioners who confuse interventions with strategies seldom exert significant, long-term impact on organizational performance. If real organizational change is to be achieved and organizational performance improved, interventions must be seen only as parts of, and be embedded within, an overall strategy.

Because circumstances vary between organizations, organizational-change strategies will vary as well. Likewise, the steps to strategy-building may differ from organization to organization. However, it is possible to identify six general steps in this process.

Step 1: Defining the change (OD) problem

In this step, information is gathered regarding the performance of the organization and barriers to desired performance levels. Factors that might be identified as barriers include job designs, reward structures, skill levels, organizational structure, value systems, etc. Care must be taken at this stage not to confuse symptoms with causes. For example, absenteeism may reduce performance levels but, before progress can be made, the reasons for absenteeism must be determined.

Step 2: Determining appropriate OD objectives

In this step, OD objectives are clearly and specifically defined, in both behavioural and quantitative terms, so that they are appropriate to, and consistent with, the particular organization. Too often a practitioner initiates standard interventions without having identified clearly what needs to be accomplished or changed. Spending time in determining objectives increases the probability for success and enhances the practitioner's image as a contributor to the organization.

Step 3: Determining the system's and subsystem's readiness and capacity to change

Nothing is more discouraging to a change effort than reaching the middle of a project and discovering that the organization or a specific group within it is not ready or able to change. Analyzing readiness, willingness, and capacity before project initiation can help the practitioner to determine where to start and which interventions to use. Many change efforts fail because the practitioner starts with the wrong part of the system or does not take into account the relationships among readiness, willingness, and capacity. It will pay dividends to evaluate each key manager in this respect, as well as each major area or function.

Step 4: Determining key subsystems

In this step, the total organization is reviewed to determine its key parts and its key personnel. To be successful in an OD effort, the practitioner must focus on those groups within the organization that exert the greatest impact on organizational performance and on those managers who influence the direction of the organization.

Step 5: Assessing one's own resources

Assessing personal skills, talents, and emotional and social needs is not only consistent with meeting real organizational needs, it also assists the practitioner in maintaining an ethical stance. No practitioner can do well in all situations or with all interventions. However, the practitioner who takes stock of personal strengths and weaknesses before selecting a strategy is better able to determine which projects 'fit' his or her abilities and which do not. Consequently, it is easier to determine which activities to conduct oneself and which to refer to other practitioners, thereby matching the right resources with particular organizational needs.

Step 6: Selecting an approach and developing an action plan for reaching objectives

In selecting an approach to an effort and in planning the individuals steps for implementation, the practitioner must be concerned with which interventions to use, where in the organization to start, who is to be involved in the effort, how much time is required and how the effort will be monitored. In view of the fact that OD is a process and that the practitioner must remain flexible and responsive to new developments, it is helpful to establish a flow diagram that accounts for each step. This practice enables the practitioner to analyse the progress of the effort and whether it is leading where intended. In addition, it enables managers to become closely involved in the process and convinces them that the practitioner is committed to reaching specific objectives that will benefit the organization.

2.2 Working with the Organization's Dynamics

While building a strategy, the practitioner should keep in mind the following organizational dynamics or change requirements.

Consideration 1: Felt needs or goals

The selection of specific interventions should be based on client responses regarding problems that are not being solved or goals that are not being reached. Managers and organizations readily respond to proposals that address felt needs.

Consideration 2: Support system

Of major importance in the success of an OD project is the practitioner's initial identification of supportive forces in the organization and his or her subsequent commitment to working with those forces. A project is seldom successful when an attempt is made to influence the total organization at once.

Consideration 3: Chance for success

The entire OD effort, as well as each related activity, should hold a realistic chance for success. This sounds obvious, but many projects are launched on the basis of little or no hope for success. To change an organization, a series of early wins must be achieved. The practitioner is seldom given a second chance if the first activity is not at least moderately successful.

Consideration 4: Multiple entry

Organizations of any size have a tremendous capacity to withstand change. When an organization experiences a short disturbance of the status quo as a result of an OD effort, it will naturally tend to settle back into its original patterns. This problem of inertia can be dealt with through the use of multiple entry points. Although care must be taken and planning must be deliberate, change in a larger organization is more likely to be accomplished if pressure is exerted on several different facets of its operation.

Consideration 5: Critical mass

One of the purposes for using multiple entry points is to bring about a critical mass. Just as a chain reaction builds sufficient force to produce a major result, so an organization is changed through the development of a strong and building effort. A strategy must be built in such a way as to plan for, and cause, the occurrence of a critical mass.

Consideration 6: Organization control

The chances for success in an OD effort are greater when the practitioner works with individuals or groups that have some autonomy or control over their own operations.

Consideration 7: Appropriate levels of involvement

Careful consideration must be given to developing and providing for the appropriate involvement of managers and other individuals who will be affected by the proposed changes. Attention must be centered on those who need to be active in decision making, those who need to be given information, and those who need to provide input for action and evaluation.

Consideration 8: Communication at all levels

It is useful to develop plans for communicating intentions, goals, and progress to the entire organization. In one major project in the social housing sector, a monthly, two-page update was given to all staff. This update had a marked impact on reducing resistance to the project and opening doors for suggestions and input.

Consideration 9: Determination of feasibility

Mechanisms must be established not only for letting key people know about OD plans, but also for enlisting the aid of these people in determining the feasibility of plans. One of the biggest traps in building OD strategies is planning in a vacuum.

Consideration 10: Linking with internal change agents

Most client organizations include staff who are responsible for organizational change and improvement. A practitioner's strategy is much more likely to succeed if s/he establishes ways to co-ordinate efforts with those of personnel such as designers, engineers, quality-control experts, financial analysts, etc. Major organizational change is greatly enhanced by linking change teams from several disciplines or functions.

2.3 Selecting an Approach

After building a strategy and considering organizational dynamics, the practitioner is ready to select an approach for initiating the effort. Several options exist, and combinations of these

options may be appropriate in some situations. Each option has, of course, certain advantages and disadvantages.

Option 1: Selection of a winner

With this approach the practitioner selects a project that is associated with a high probability of success and little chance of failure.

Advantages

- Low risk for the practitioner as well as the organization;
- A potentially high, quick return;
- The opening of doors to other opportunities as a result of early success.

Disadvantages

- The practitioner may be perceived as simply being in the right place at the right time rather than as working diligently on the organization's behalf;
- The problems addressed by the project may be seen as minor or of relatively little impact;
- Those involved in the project may be perceived as special or as 'different' from the rest of the employees.

Option 2: Use of a power play

This approach involves starting with the most influential and powerful group in the organization. A suitable project might be a team-building activity conducted with the manager of this group and his or her staff.

Advantages

- A high potential for change because of the target group's power to implement the change;
- A high return or impact attributable to the group's control over numerous variables;
- The fact that if the project is successful, the practitioner gains a great deal of credibility, as does the OD process.

Disadvantages

- This approach may make an overly powerful group even more so, thereby threatening the rest of the organization;
- The practitioner may be seen as part of the organization's power structure;
- If such a project fails, there is high risk to the organization and to the future of other OD projects.

Option 3: Limitation through a pilot project

In using this approach the practitioner proposes and gains acceptance for completing a project that is limited to one or two areas of the organization. Examples include a job-development project accomplished in one department or a team-skills workshop conducted for a particular level within the organization.

Advantages

- It is often more acceptable to key managers than a large-scale effort;
- Its limitation in scope affords greater manageability;
- It gives the practitioner an opportunity to demonstrate what can be done;
- If the initial effort is successful, the practitioner will find it easier to intervene in other parts of the organization on the strength of this success.

Disadvantages

- Such a project may be seen as successful only because it is 'special';
- It may be rejected on the basis that it is threatening to the rest of the organization;
- Further intervention may become difficult due to scepticism about activities that were 'not invented here.'

Option 4: Concentrating on a business problem

With this approach an attempt is made to concentrate on attacking an acknowledged business problem such as turnover, absenteeism, poor quality, high waste or deteriorating relationships. An example of such a project might be the use of problem-solving groups to improve service quality.

Advantages

- The effort is perceived as legitimate because it is directed toward an acknowledged problem;
- As with the pilot-project approach, the chance for success is enhanced because the effort is limited in scope;
- If such a problem is successfully resolved, everyone benefits;
- The organization gains a solution to the problem, and both the practitioner and OD itself gain credibility.

Disadvantages

- Success may be limited because of the many variables that influence business problems;
- The organization's personnel may be impatient with the time required to obtain visible results;
- If the project is unsuccessful, the practitioner may lose the opportunity to gain entry into other parts of the organization.

Option 5: Control through action research

In this situation the practitioner institutes a controlled experiment in which some aspect of the organization is changed and the impact is then monitored and evaluated. This type of activity is similar to the pilot project, but it is generally even more tightly controlled and limited in scope.

Advantages

- It is often more acceptable to key managers than a large-scale effort;
- Its limitation in scope affords greater manageability;
- It gives the practitioner an opportunity to demonstrate what can be done;
- If the initial effort is successful, the practitioner will find it easier to intervene in other parts of the organization on the strength of this success.

Disadvantages

- Such a project may be seen as successful only because it is 'special';
- It may be rejected on the basis that it is threatening to the rest of the organization;
- Further intervention may become difficult due to scepticism about activities that were 'not invented here';

- The practitioner may be viewed as a ‘researcher’ who is separated from the mainstream of the organization.

Option 6: Reduction of organizational pain

This approach is similar to concentration on a business problem except that ‘pain’ is defined more broadly than is ‘problem.’ Organizational pain might include poor decision-making or problem-solving, the inability to obtain valid information from staff, excessive time spent in initiating and/or implementing change efforts, the unwillingness of staff to take the initiative in directing their own activities, and so on.

Advantages

- The effort is perceived as legitimate because it is directed toward an acknowledged ‘pain’;
- As with the pilot-project approach, the chance for success is enhanced because the effort is limited in scope;
- The organization gains a relief from the pain, and both the practitioner and OD itself gain credibility. Managers who receive help in reducing the kinds of pain illustrated can become intense supporters of the practitioner.

Disadvantages

- Success may be limited because of the many variables that influence the pain that develops in organizations;
- The organizational personnel may be impatient with the time required to obtain visible relief;
- If the project is unsuccessful, the practitioner may lose the opportunity to gain entry into other parts of the organization;
- The pain may be social or psychological in nature, therefore improvement may be viewed as ‘soft’ or ‘fuzzy’ by personnel in other parts of the organization who are not actively involved in the effort.

Option 7: Involvement in an imposed change

This approach consists of becoming involved in a project or change that the organization has already mandated. Examples might include the promotion of a manager, a merger between two departments, the initiation of a new service procedure, or the launching of a new department or division. This type of project might involve such interventions as a transition meeting, a merger meeting, or a new-division start-up.

Advantages

- The need for change is already established;
- The change itself is the natural process employed in the intervention, which may make the organization more receptive to other OD activities;
- The practitioner is seen as assisting in a natural and/or legitimate process and thus is considered to have a relevant, helpful function;
- The potential for success with such a project is relatively high, and the practitioner shares with others the responsibility for success.

Disadvantages

- The practitioner may be seen as a meddler;
- Success in the project may be attributed to factors other than the OD interventions;
- The reasons for the change may not be consistent with OD values, therefore, the practitioner may be seen as hypocritical or unethical.

Option 8: Association with the influence leader

This approach is similar to the power play except that the focus is on an individual rather than a group.

Advantages

- A high potential for change because of the influence leader's power to implement the change;
- The fact that if the project is successful, the practitioner gains a great deal of credibility, as does the OD process.

Disadvantages

- This approach may make an overly powerful influence leader even more so;
- The practitioner may be seen as part of the influence leader's power structure;
- If such a project fails, there is high risk to the organization and to the future of other OD projects;
- It may be extremely difficult for the practitioner to work in other areas of the organization in which the influence leader's work is envied or suspect.

Option 9: Association with OD support

With this approach, activities are initiated in those parts of the organization that are already supportive of OD values and activity.

Advantages

- Projects can be initiated quickly;
- The potential for their success is high;
- The employees involved feel a strong sense of ownership of these projects and perceive the practitioner as valuable.

Disadvantages

- Success with such projects may be viewed by personnel in other parts of the organization as merely perceived rather than real;
- Success may accomplish little in the way of opening doors into other parts of the organization;
- The practitioner may be seen by the rest of the organization as just 'one of those OD people';
- If the practitioner's support comes from a low-influence group, his or her own influence may actually diminish elsewhere.

Option 10: Total-system intervention

The objective of this approach is to affect all parts of the organization almost simultaneously. Such a project might be a new-division start-up in which the practitioner or a team of practitioners is involved in every aspect of planning and implementation.

Advantages

- Being involved in every aspect of the organization;
- Having more control of the variables;
- If the project is successful, the practitioner gains great credibility and influence.

Disadvantages

- Failure in this type of project has an extremely negative impact on the practitioner's credibility;
- Few managers consider this approach to be a viable starting point for OD.

2.4 Overcoming Failure Patterns

As alluded to in earlier comments, many OD efforts achieve limited or no success due to organizational or managerial circumstances. In addition, certain types of practitioner behaviour may precipitate the breakdown of an OD effort. These behaviours include failing to …

- Obtain and work through a contract (applicable to both external and internal practitioners);
- Establish specific goals for efforts and interventions;
- Demonstrate sufficient courage to confront the organization and key managers in particular;
- Be willing to try something new;
- Determine the identity of the real client;
- Work with real organizational needs;
- Develop viable options;
- Work with the organization as it is rather than as the practitioner would like it to be;
- Measure or evaluate OD activities;
- Plan for and avoid managerial abdication;
- Solve problems (by becoming involved in 'quick fixes');
- Specify both short- and long-term goals for the effort;
- Be honest about what needs to be done and why;
- Determine whose needs are being met;

- Plan for and build toward the client managers' ownership of the OD effort.

In reviewing these behaviours, a practitioner might feel overwhelmed or discouraged. However, simply being aware that certain negative behavioural patterns are potentially damaging to OD efforts can help a practitioner to avoid such behaviours. In addition, the practitioner who conscientiously attends to the following activities may have greater success in overcoming failure patterns.

Activity 1: Building a strategy

As discussed earlier (Section 2.1), one of the practitioner's primary responsibilities is to formulate a strategy. The systematic building of a strategy for specific activities and projects protects against failure by forcing the practitioner to consider and deal with such issues as developing a contract, establishing goals for the entire project and related interventions, and avoiding 'quick fixes.' In fact, a comprehensive strategy focuses attention on each of the failure patterns.

Activity 2: Establishing a flow diagram of activities

Another practice that forces consideration of the issues involved in failure patterns is establishing a flow diagram covering all activities of the OD effort. A flow diagram provides an illustration of the ways in which the various interventions tie together and build on each other, the perceptions of the practitioner and the client personnel regarding progress at various points, and aspects related to the critical question of timings.

Activity 3: Engaging in joint planning with prospective clients

During proposal development and prior to the launching of a long-term effort, the practitioner should engage in joint planning with the prospective client. Without sufficient joint planning and exploration, the practitioner tends to proceed with a high risk of falling into at least one, if not several, of the failure patterns.

Activity 4: Incorporating review and evaluation sessions

Of great help in avoiding failure patterns is the practice of incorporating into a contract a provision for periodic review and evaluation sessions. Such a meeting allows the practitioner

and appropriate organizational participants and managers to examine the immediate activity and to ask such questions as the following:

- Are we on track?
- Are the expected results materializing?
- What feelings are we experiencing about our working relationship?
- What modifications or changes need to be made?
- Are any failure patterns beginning to appear in the project? If so, what can we do to eliminate them?

Activity 5: Using consulting teams

Directly or indirectly involving one or more fellow professionals enables the practitioner to be more aware of, and sensitive to, potential failure patterns. Such involvement generates more analysis, the sharing of different perceptions, the use of more specialized skills and experience in given interventions, increased feedback and constructive confrontation.

Activity 6: Participating in OD activities

Frequently, practitioners attempt to guide clients through OD activities that they themselves have not experienced as participants. Being a 'disinterested observer' does not allow the practitioner to experience the dynamics and feelings of the 'owner.' Firsthand experience can be invaluable in planning OD activities for others.

CHAPTER 3

The Design of Od Interventions

Introduction

Having considered precedes, motives, strategies, organizational dynamics and approaches, this section details a range of interventions that may be used within the wider context of a full OD strategy. As such, it is intended to be a source of reference, to be scanned in the first instance and then considered in depth when a specific OD intervention is being developed. The interventions are arranged under three broad categories – the first focusing on implementation at the level of teams, the second at the total organization level and the third around the subject of supporting interventions. More specifically:

- Implementing OD at the level of team structure and function
  - New Team Start-up
  - Team Transitions
  - Team Building
  - Issue Consensus

  Implementing OD at the level of organization structure and function
  - Strategic Planning
  - Survey-guided Development
  - Team Goal Setting
  - Job Development
  - Role Development
  - New Division Start-up
- Supporting OD implementations
  - The OD Seminar;
  - Team Skills Training;

- Leadership Style Analysis;
- Diversity Awareness Training.

The overall intention here is to provide a broad bank of material that can be used to stimulate further thought when considering the specifics of an OD intervention, i.e. it is not expected that the illustrations provided in the following pages be used unchanged. However, in keeping with reality, although each and every OD effort should be geared towards to the unique needs of the client, all successful OD practitioners develop, over time, a large repertoire of 'tools' that have worked well in certain situations and are used frequently. It can be argued legitimately that, because client needs are often alike in important ways, drawing on a repertoire of tried and tested tools is appropriate. This is not to suggest that emergent conditions will not require the development of new combinations of techniques or that a practitioner should 'market' a previously successful intervention as universally applicable. The issue is, as ever, one of awareness and balance.

3.1 Implementing OD at the Level of Team Structure and Function

3.1.1 New Team Start-up

Key Objectives

- To accelerate the process by which individual team members coordinate their efforts and become an efficient and effective team.
- To make explicit, and practice, the desired norms for the team's interactions.

Developmental Focus

- The collective vision and mission for the team.
- Individual roles and responsibilities.
- The coordination of strategies, plans and measures of success for the team.
- Methods for conflict resolution.

Participants

- All members of a newly formed group (project team, matrix organization, new business start-up, etc.), including managers and, possibly, close external stakeholders.

Benefits

- An atmosphere is established for dealing openly with team membership issues.
- Team members are provided with an opportunity to work together on understanding their vision, mission, roles and interaction processes.

When to Implement

- When the team if first brought together to begin the process of developing its goals and objectives.

Timescale

- Three to four days, depending on the ambiguity and complexity of the team's mission.

New Team Start-up - Detail of Process

1. Planning session

- Developing a contract and ground rules.
- Sharing and clarifying general session goals and expectations.
- Planning the meeting agenda.

2. Getting to know each other

- Sharing aspects of personal history and own experience, traits and values.
- Responding to related questions.

3. Establishing the vision, mission and goals

- Developing or reaffirming the team's vision and mission.
- Identifying team goals and general objectives.

4. Exploration of questions and concerns

- Surfacing specific questions and concerns.
- Listing related desires, expectations and/or recommendations.

5. Issue summary

- Integrating key issues.
- Developing a key issue summary.

6. Preliminary role negotiation

- Identifying and clarifying specific roles within the team.
- Discussing and agreeing roles.

7. Action planning

- Identifying specific objectives.
- Developing associated action plans.

8. Intervention

- Implement Plans.
- Review and revise as appropriate.

9. Evaluation

- Evaluating the group from a process perspective.
- Discussion the development and evolution of group norms.

3.1.2 Team Transitions

Key Objectives

- To provide the opportunity for a team to analyse the impact of, and plan its adjustment to, a new team leader.
- To give a newly appointed team leader the opportunity to become familiar with group activities, goals and team member resources.
- To allow both the incoming team leader and the team members the opportunity to share and explore working styles and preferred practices.

Developmental Focus

- The team's goals, tasks, methods and priorities.
- The team's structure and operating procedures.
- Team member's roles and contributions to the team's performance.
- The incoming team leader's experience, priorities and goals.
- Leadership, communication and decision-making styles.
- Role conflict and ambiguity, and resistance to change.

Participants

- All members of an existing team and the incoming team leader.

Benefits

- All participants are given the opportunity to analyse the team's historical performance and use of resources.
- Heightened awareness of teamwork needs during the period of transition.
- Open affirmation, or re-affirmation, of the team's goals, priorities and norms.
- Assistance in accelerating the path through forming, storming, norming and performing.

When to Implement

- Suitable for a group that has never experienced an OD intervention before.

Timescale

- Three to five days, depending on group size and information-collection methods.

Team Transitions - Detail of Process

1. Preparatory session (all participants)

- Developing a contract and ground rules.
- Sharing and clarifying purpose, procedure and content.
- Agreeing information collection items and procedures.

2. Information collection

- Gathering information from individuals (through questionnaires and interviews).
- Compiling information into handouts.

3. Operations review (all participants)

- Clarifying current goals and objectives as well as current projects and activities.

4. Leadership-style review (all participants)

- Identifying similarities and potential differences in the leadership styles of the outgoing and incoming team leaders.

5. Information feedback and analysis (all participants)

- Sharing, clarifying and analysing information regarding concerns about the change.

6. Issue census (New Team - i.e. out-going manager no longer involved)

- Identifying key issues.
- Developing plans to deal with key issues.

7. Role clarification (New Team)

- Redefining/reaffirming roles.
- Reviewing goals and objectives to establish trade-offs between old ones and new ones.

8. Evaluation (New Team)

- Assessing the meetings.
- Planning the follow-up.

3.1.3 Team Building

Key Objectives

- To review and improve the team's effectiveness.
- To provide an opportunity for the team to analyse its processes, performance, strengths and weaknesses.
- To identify problem areas of team behaviour and corrective actions to be taken.

Developmental Focus

- Team performance.
- Individual contributions to performance.
- Team goals, long and short term strategies, goal-setting processes.
- Specific plans for individuals connected to team goals.
- Team composition, structure, operating procedures and efficiency.
- Team norms, culture and feedback processes.

Participants

- The team leader and all team members (from three to fifteen for practical purposes).

Benefits

- The process provides a setting for a realistic self-appraisal of team processes and team member relationships.
- The use of anonymous, topic-related information facilitates problem-centred rather than person-centred analysis.
- The team leader has an opportunity to model the type of behaviour preferred for effective team working.
- Teamwork is enhanced as team members get to know each other better, particularly with regard to work-style preferences and in the context of current work pressures and priorities.

When to Implement

- Usually not the first step for a team unless its members are familiar with OD interventions.
- Useful as an early step for the senior management team in an organization, prior to a more comprehensive OD effort throughout the organization.
- The initial session(s) to be followed by a session 3 to 9 months later to evaluate progress on action plans.

Timescale

Five to seven days, depending on team size.

Team Building - Detail of Process

1. Contract session

- Developing a contract.
- Discussing needs and expectations.

2. Pre-work session

- Developing ten to twenty interview questions and arranging interviews.

3. Information collection

- Conducting individual interviews.

- Compiling responses into a handout.

4. Information feedback

- Distributing copies of the handout to all group members for review.

5. Information analysis

- Analysing the responses in the handout (either in sub-groups or the whole group).
- Identifying key strengths and key weaknesses/problems.

6. Agenda development

- Rank ordering key weaknesses/problems according to importance.

7. Problem examination

- Discussing each key weakness/problem in depth.

8. Option generation

- Generating ideas for solving each key weakness/problem.

9. Action Planning

- Developing a written plan of action for each weakness/problem identified.
- Scheduling a session for review/follow-up.

10. Assessment

- Evaluating the meeting in terms of content and process.

11. Review/follow-up session

- Meeting to examine follow-up, as planned.

3.1.4 Issue Consensus

Key Objectives

- To examine and improve the effectiveness of a hierarchical organizational system.
- To identify key issues undermining effectiveness.
- To explore ways to resolve priority issues.
- To generate specific goals and action commitments.

Developmental Focus

- Organizational goals, priorities, long and short term strategies, and related goal-setting procedures.
- Organizational performance.
- Organizational structure, operating procedures and efficiency.
- Specific plans for achieving organizational objectives.

Participants

- The entire organization if possible. If not, representatives from all organizational levels. Participation should only be limited by the constraints of time and the ability to deal with the processing of the information.

Benefits

- The intervention emphasises honest organizational self-appraisal in an open setting with all organizational levels being present.
- Improved communication, a better understanding of organization-wide issues, and a related action plan that enhances commitment among top, middle and front-line staff.

When to Implement

- This intervention should follow other OD activities, i.e. not be an initial intervention.

Timescale

- Approximately three days depending on group size.

Issue Consensus - Detail of Process

1. Contract session(s)

- Discussing the following with organizational leaders:
    - felt needs
    - mutual expectations
    - overall strategy
    - format and content
    - related logistics.

2. **Information collection and issue identification**

- Dividing into sub-groups to determine organizational strengths and weaknesses.
- Screening information in sub-groups to select major issues that require work.

3. **Information feedback**

- Summarising the results of the work.

4. **Agenda building**

- Reviewing overall information and developing an agenda of priority issues requiring resolution.

5. **Information analysis**

- Sharing feelings about the agenda items.
- Analysing each item in detail.

6. **Option generation**

- Brainstorming issue resolutions in sub-groups.

7. **Action planning**

- Sharing brainstormed ideas.
- Modifying suggestions until consensus is reached on all solutions.
- Developing action plans to ensure the implementation of solutions.
- Setting a date for a review session.

8. **Assessment**

- Evaluating the session from the standpoint of both content and process.

9. **Review session**

- Reconvening to evaluate progress to date.
- Developing further plans to ensure continued implementation.

CHAPTER 4

Implementing OD at the Level of Organization Structure and Function

Strategic Planning

Key Objectives

- To identify strengths and weaknesses, both current and future, in relation to accomplishing the mission of the organization.
- To identify environmental factors that presently influence the organization's effectiveness – forecasting their future impact.
- To generate specific strategies, plans, goals and objectives to which the organization is committed to ensure that the problems identified are resolved.

Developmental Focus

- The team's awareness of future issues and factors likely to affect performance.
- The team's goals, long- and short-term strategies, and goals setting processes.
- Specific plans and objectives for individuals, departments and/or functions as they relate to team action plans.
- Development of contingency plans and solutions to forecasted problems.

Participants

- All members of the organization's management if possible. If not, representatives from all levels of management.

Benefits

- Effective medium- to long-term strategies can be developed with the maximum involvement of those who are expected to commit themselves to their implementation.
- Minimizes time-wasting digressions during planning by separating facts from assumptions.
- Allows managers to develop effective change plans by examining constraints and environmental contexts that will affect their organization.

When to Implement

- An excellent starting point for an OD intervention.

Timescale

- Three to five days.

Strategic Planning - Detail of Process

1. Development of an organizational mission statement

- Defining the organizational mission in two or three sentences.

2. Identification of strengths and weaknesses

- Listing ‘assets’ and ‘liabilities’ (including the less obvious psychological ones) that affect mission accomplishment.

3. Assessment of operational constraints and environmental influences

- Listing key constraints and influences within which the organization must operate.

4. Determining the facts and assumptions

- Listing facts as well as assumptions about the future for each key constraint and environmental influence.

5. Goal identification

- Identifying goals related to the organization’s mission, strengths and weaknesses, and current assessments of key constraints and environmental influences.

6. Generation of objectives

- Determining individual objectives for the more complex goals identified in step 5.

7. Action planning

- Writing a plan of action for achieving each goal and each objective.
- Agreeing a date for the review session.

8. Review session

- Reviewing progress towards achieving each goal.
- Developing further action plans or modifying original ones as appropriate.

Survey-guided Development

Key Objectives

- To improve organizational performance by surveying all employees, feeding back resulting information through individual teams, and developing analysis and problem-solving plans in response to the information obtained.
- To take a measurement of an entire organization.

Developmental Focus

- Information that covers organizational effectiveness across the whole span of its operations.
- Patterns in information that reveal particular strengths and weaknesses.
- The development of solutions to problems affecting the whole organization.

Participants

- The entire organization.

Benefits

- Allows organizational climate to be assessed at a particular point in time.
- The survey method offers a relatively quick, efficient method of gathering information on attitudes.
- All teams, including the least influential, are given the opportunity to review information that is relevant to them, to interpret the information for themselves and to assess how they compare with the overall organization. They can then develop their own requests, recommendations and plans.

When to Implement

- Provides an indication of areas of concern that may be addressed by localized OD interventions. As such, it can be useful as a first step towards OD – assuming the organization has not previously misused attitude surveys.
- Useful as a follow-up to initial skill-building activities.

Timescale

- Six to ten days.

Survey-guided Development - Detail of Process

1. Contract session

- Clarifying the characteristics of survey-guided development.
- Outlining the objectives and expectations of the intervention.
- Establishing the need for a survey-planning team.

2. Survey planning

- Selecting appropriate dimensions and questions for the survey.

3. Survey administration

- Administering the survey to all participants.

4. Consolidation of information

- Processing survey results.
- Preparing information packages for participants.

5. Training of team facilitators

- Teaching facilitators how to conduct survey-feedback meetings with their teams and how to help teams respond to the information.

6. Feedback meetings

- Distributing and discussing information packages in each team.
- Clarifying relevant team issues.
- Dealing with issues within the team's control.
- Making suggestions on issues beyond the team's control for referral to higher levels.

7. Review of items referred upward

- Determining appropriate responses to suggestions submitted by lower-level teams.

8. Development of a communications strategy

- Establishing a constructive method of conveying decisions made in the previous step.

9. Communication of decisions

- Conveying decisions via the method determined in step 8.

10. Assessment

- Surveying participant reactions to the intervention.

Team Goal Setting

Key Objectives

- To generate goals and a related action plan to which a team is committed.
- To clarify the team's mission and related accountabilities, focusing group energy and reducing role confusion.

Developmental Focus

- Team mission, structure, accountabilities and procedures.
- Team goals, objectives and processes.
- Specific plans for accomplishing goals, including individual action plans.
- An analysis of the related facts, assumptions and potential problems associated with team objectives.

Participants

- A full team (team leader and all members), but ideally between three and twenty for practical purposes.

Benefits

- Provides teams with the essential component of clear goals to ensure they focus their energies, ownership and commitment.
- Helps avoid dysfunctional competition and ensure cooperation.
- Increases commitment to team goals.
- Reviews the inter-relationships between individuals and allows these to be improved through planned actions.

When to Implement

- An excellent starting point for an OD intervention, but can be initiated at almost any point during a team's life.

Timescale

- Approximately two days.

Team Goal Setting - Detail of Process

1. **Development of a team mission statement**

   - Composing a statement regarding the team's purpose, customers and unique attributes.

2. **Development of team accountabilities**

   - Determining the results and/or conditions for which the team will be accountable.

3. **Identification of cascaded accountabilities**

   - Identifying accountabilities that should be delegated to individuals or sub-teams.
   - Determining the parameters for each accountability that is cascaded.
   - Establishing a method for communicating these accountabilities to individuals or sub-teams.

4. **Goal brainstorming**

   - Generate possible goals associated with accountabilities, feedback and related team concerns.

5. **Development of team's goal criteria**

   - Developing criteria for identifying final team goals.

6. **Goal identification**

   - Employing criteria to screen goals brainstormed in step 4.

7. **Determination of cooperative goals**

   - Deciding which goals require working with other individuals/sub-teams.

8. **Goal-information brainstorming**

   - Generating information pertinent to achieving each goal.

9. Action planning

- Establishing a plan of action (containing SMART objectives) for each goal.

Job Development

Key Objectives

- To systematically redesign an existing job such that the conditions for motivation are improved along with attendant performance.
- To identify the components of a job that under-utilize talent.

Developmental Focus

- The impact of job content on performance.
- The impact of technology on job content and process.
- The motivational potential of an existing job.
- The sources of variance in desirable vs. actual performance.
- The specific conditions that create the conditions for motivation.

Participants

- A job-design intervention team consisting of all employees in the organization who hold the job in question as well as their line managers. Typically six to eight participants.

Benefits

- Those best qualified to redesign jobs are those doing the jobs along with their line managers.
- Employees will more readily accept changes when they are involved in, or are represented in, change development.
- Both psychological and technical needs must be addressed in an effective re-design of work.

When to Implement

- When evidence suggests the development or emergence of a problem related to job content.

Timescale

- Typically half-day sessions weekly for two to three months, depending on job complexity

Job Development - Detail of Process

1. Orientation of job-design intervention team

- Introducing the members of the Job-design Intervention Team to basic principles of job development.

2. Development of a job-purpose statement

- Writing a statement that specifies the reason for the job's existence.

3. Identification of key accountabilities

- Establishing the end results or desired conditions for which a job holder will be responsible.

4. Identification of systems and operations

- Identifying the target system.
- Describing the operations of that system.
- Identifying related systems.
- Developing a flow diagram of work performed in all of these systems.

5. Brainstorming of job dimensions

- Generating ideas for increasing feedback about performance and for increasing autonomy.
- Generating ways to complete entire tasks and determining ways to deal with barriers to the accomplishment of those tasks.

6. Screening of information

- Selecting and eliminating brainstormed items according to criteria agreed by the Job-design Intervention Team.

7. Development of final job description

- Listing items retained after screening.
- Grouping items into work modules.
- Comparing items with the purpose statement and the key accountabilities.

- Developing an integrated job description.

8. Development of training plan

- Establishing an action plan for training and orienting employees.
- Reviewing problems that might be encountered with the job description.

Role Development

Key Objectives

- To clarify the definitions and expectations of a specific role.
- To identify the obligations of the interdependent members of a work group.
- To resolve conflict associated with role confusion and ambiguity.

Developmental Focus

- The clarification of a target role.
- The expectations of others regarding the behaviour associated with the target role.
- The development of a consensus regarding individual accountabilities and related authorities.

Participants

- All members of the target team and members of interacting teams as desired.

Benefits

- Minimising role conflict with a team.
- Addressing interpersonal tensions and conflicts that are often the result of role ambiguity.
- Promoting a more supportive environment for the target job, as team members gain a clear understanding of that job.

When to Implement

- Likely to follow other OD interventions that have revealed role conflict or role ambiguity as a key issue.
- An excellent follow-up to OD interventions for new-team start-up, transition planning, new division start-up and job development.

Timescale

- Two to three days.

Role Development - Detail of Process

1. Contract session

- Meeting with appropriate team members to discuss and plan the intervention.

2. Target-role selection

- Agreeing the specific role to be examined and developed.

3. Target-role analysis

- Analysing the purpose, accountabilities and tasks of the target role.

4. Identification of the target-role job-holder's expectations

- Determining what the job-holder expects of those in interacting roles.
- Achieving agreement on legitimate expectations.

5. Identification of others' expectations

- Determining what those in interacting roles expect from the target role.
- Achieving agreement on legitimate expectations.
- Comparing final expectations with those established in step 4.

6. Role-profile development

- Incorporating all information into a profile of the target role (prepared by the job holder after the meeting).

7. Follow-up session

- Meeting to review and approve the job holder's job profile.

CHAPTER 5

Supporting Od Implementations

The OD seminar

Key Objectives

- To provide managers with information on the objectives and methods of OD.
- To assist managers in making decisions regarding the use and potential of OD in their organization.
- To clarify the types of organizational issues and problems that can be addressed by OD.
- To increase the potential for OD being implemented for legitimate reasons.

Developmental Focus

- Organizational analysis (including climate).
- Management style and philosophy.
- Systemic thinking.
- Norms, values and inter-group dynamics.
- Consulting approaches, skills and sources.

Participants

- The entire management system if possible. If not, representatives from all levels of management. No more than twenty for maximum effectiveness.

Benefits

- Managers are provided with a common base of knowledge about OD.
- A setting is provided for a candid appraisal of the potential for OD before activities are initiated within the organization.
- The seminar process helps to ensure that managers implement OD in a rational, appropriate manner.
- Realistic outcomes for OD are discussed.

When to Implement

- Usually a first step in a situation in which the organization is new to OD and/or when interventions are likely to affect the entire organization in a relatively short period of time.
- Conducted several times in a large organization, starting with senior management and proceeding through the hierarchy.

Timescale

- One evening plus two full days.

The OD seminar - Detail of process

1. Introductory session

- Getting acquainted.
- Explaining the seminar format.
- General definition of OD.

2. General overview

- Clarifying the history and background of OD.
- Presenting further definitions and a basic process model.

3. Intervention review

- Explaining the basic process model by specifying the steps involved in typical interventions.

4. Intervention activities

- Conducting activities that illustrate the content of steps 2. and 3.
- Exploring workplace relevance.

5. Presentation of case studies

- Sharing case studies from the practitioner's own experiences, including an example of large system change and an example of inter-group team building.

6. Clarification of the role of management

- General data regarding the participants' perceptions of the role of the manager in the OD process.

- Adding the practitioner's thoughts on the subject.

7. Discussion of beginning an OD effort

- Discussing resource requirements, strategy and analysis, pitfalls, initiating options, ways to sustain the effort, and the role of internal and external consulting resources.

8. Application to workplace Situations

- Dividing the participants into sub-groups to discuss workplace applications.
- Sharing with the whole group and presenting any unanswered questions.

9. Evaluation

- Assessing the seminar.
- Making suggestions for improvement.

Team-skills training

Key Objectives

- To introduce a range of teamwork concepts.
- To develop knowledge, skills and competencies in group dynamics, group influence, personal leadership style, self-assessment and interpersonal awareness in individual and group relationships.

Developmental Focus

- Strategy and goal setting.
- Problem solving and creativity.
- Resource utilization and coordination.
- Influencing.

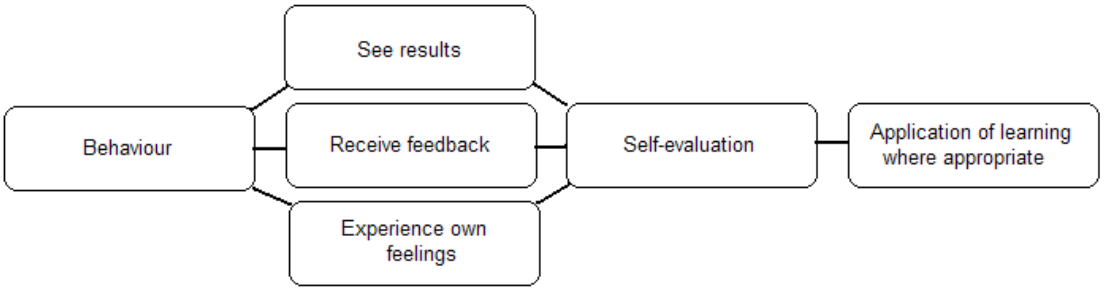
Participants

- Members of a single work group or peers from a range of groups, but no more than sixteen for maximum effectiveness.

Benefits

- An analysis of group behaviour is actively achieved.
- Individual assessment of behaviour and results is achieved by:

1. Active learning;
2. The analysis of a range of activities in terms of their relevance to the working context;
3. Encouraging individual and group feedback;
4. Allowing participants to share responsibility for their learning;
5. Drawing effectively on the model for experiential learning illustrated below.



Model of Experiential Learning

When to Implement

- A key first step in situations where the organization is new to OD. Where conflict or non-cooperative behaviour is evident.

Timescale

- Two to three days.

Team-skills training - Detail of process

1. Planning meeting

- Meeting with designated members of management to outline content, format and rationale, answer related questions, determine logistics, etc.

2. Introduction

- Drawing out feelings and expectations of participants regarding the training experience.
- Establishing the ground-rules.
- Introducing the concept of experiential learning.

3. Orientation

- Administering instruments to assess present knowledge and use of team skills.
- Conducting an activity that introduces and reinforces the need for team skills.

4. Teamwork

- Using an activity, simulation or discussion to reinforce the importance of teamwork in organizations.

5. Group decision-making and problem-solving

- Using an activity and a discussion to expose participants to the issues of participation and involvement in relation to problem-solving and decision-making.

6. Values and perceptions

- Using a presentation, simulation or an activity to illustrate the ways in which people's value systems affect their perceptions and their behaviour in groups.

7. Cooperation and communication

- Using activities and a discussion to raise group awareness of issues and dynamics involving cooperation and communication skills as applied in group settings.

8. Evaluation and reconnection

- Sharing perceptions of the first day of training.
- Evaluating adherence to the ground-rules.

9. Power and conflict management

- Using an activity, simulation and/or presentation to explore the issues of power dynamics and conflict management in and between groups.

10. Inter-group teamwork

- Using a simulation and a discussion to illustrate the ways in which team skills affect inter-group relations.

11. Feedback and workplace planning

- Using instruments and/or feedback discussions to provide the participants with data concerning their workshop behaviour.
- Developing plans to experiment with new behaviours back in the workplace.

12. Assessment

- Generating data about the training experience.
- Relating the training to workplace situations and other OD events.

Leadership style analysis

Key Objectives

- To provide an opportunity for leaders to examine their own personal preferences, tendencies and values concerning leadership style.
- To increase understanding of the strengths associated with different leadership styles.
- To help leaders explore different ways of developing their leadership styles and effectiveness.

Developmental Focus

- Personal awareness of the nature, tendencies and strengths associated with various leadership-behaviour styles under both favourable and unfavourable work conditions.
- Exploring the impact of various leadership styles on staff and work environments.
- Broadening behavioural options through exposure to alternative leadership styles.

Participants

- Leadership peers.
- Management teams.
- Boards of Directors.
- No more than sixteen for maximum effectiveness.

Benefits

- Improved organizational effectiveness through the improved application of leadership by those in positions of influence and control.
- The creation of an environment for supportive self-analysis.
- Increased self-awareness and ability to employ appropriate situational leadership.

When to Implement

- A good initiating or follow-up event for team-skills training, team building or inter-group team building.

Timescale

- Three full-day sessions over a period of three weeks.

Leadership style analysis - Detail of process

1. Orientation and pre-work

- Reviewing the workshop objectives.
- Distributing instruments on leadership style and giving instructions for completion.

2. Presentation of basic leadership model

- Presenting a model of leadership based on contingencies.
- Introducing the concept of authenticity.

3. Consideration of value systems

- Discussing the completed instruments and helping the participants to understand their leadership profiles.
- Conducting an activity that demonstrates the impact of values on leadership behaviour.

4. Integration of values and leadership

- Explaining the theories behind the instruments.
- Discussing the organizational variables associated with various leadership styles.

5. Experiential activity

- Conducting an experiential activity that stresses the interconnections of personal needs, value systems, and leadership style options.

6. Discussion of stress

- Discussing primary sources of organizational stress.

7. Analysis of the consequences of fear

- Generating data about fear-producing leader behaviours.

8. Presentation of authentic leadership

- Presenting the benefits of developing an authentic, unique and internalised leadership style.

9. Reinforcement of authentic leadership

- Conducting experiential activities that illustrate authentic leadership theory.

10. Discussion of workplace issues and opportunities

- Discussing, in small groups, real-life concerns about style options and related consequences.
- Giving and receiving feedback about individual styles.

11. Summary and conclusion

- Summarising the key points of the intervention.
- Discussing the transfer of learning.
- Evaluating the workshop.

Diversity awareness training

Key Objectives

- To examine diversity issues as well as opportunities at work to improve the climate for the assimilation, upward mobility and full utilisation of human resources.
- To foster a proactive approach to diversity as a way of life in the organization.

Developmental Focus

- Individual and group awareness of the nature and consequences of diversity issues at work.

- Understanding diversity as it relates to individual effectiveness, team performance and organizational policy.

Participants

- An existing team, including manager.
- HR personnel from outside the team.

Benefits

- A setting is provided for supportive and realistic discussion, self-appraisal and feedback concerning the negative consequences of discrimination in the organization.
- A constructive, controlled environment is needed to raise awareness and facilitate discussion of diversity at work.
- Members of staff who may be exposed to the negative consequences of a poor approach to diversity can best explore issues about career development discrimination, stereotyping and attitudes towards diversity by exchanging perceptions, sharing ideas and exploring solutions with each other.
- The climate for, and ownership of, diversity and full human resource utilisation will eventually be enhanced as people with different experiences develop objectives.

When to Implement

- Either as an initiating or a follow-up event for affirmative action on diversity.

Timescale

- One or two days.

Diversity awareness training - Detail of process

1. Pre-work session

- Meeting with the participants to exchange objectives, clarify the workshop design, and giving a pre-work assignment to collect data via interviews.

2. Introduction

- Welcoming the participants and human resource personnel.
- Reaffirming the support for the workshop.

- Sharing concerns and expectations.

3. Diversity policy affirmation

- Discussing the organization's current policy, application and affirmative action activities.

4. Exchange of interview data

- Forming mixed sub-groups to share the data collected as a pre-work assignment.

5. Consideration of values

- Laying a foundation for the connection between value-system formation and diversity attitudes.

6. Survey of attitudes

- Surveying the participants' attitudes towards incidents in their lives involving members of different groups.
- Forming mixed-group sub-groups to share answers to survey questions.

7. Discussion of career advancement

- Forming homogeneous-group sub-groups to determine opinions regarding the way to get ahead in the organization.
- Sharing opinions in the whole group.

8. Mid-course evaluation

- Evaluating workshop progress so far.

9. Data generation and exchange

- Forming sub-groups to discuss the behaviour of the majorities and minorities at work.
- Developing questions to ask other sub-groups.
- Using a group-on-group configuration to allow minority and majority participants to obtain answers to questions.

10. Joint force-field development

- Identifying key issues, barriers and hindrances in the system.

11. Action planning

- Brainstorming solutions to problems.
- Writing action plans that reflect the specifics of the chosen solutions.
- Examining the organization’s formal affirmative action plan.
- Planning a review session.

12. Final evaluation

Concluding the workshop and evaluating the entire experience

CHAPTER 6

Managing Change

Organizations have to keep pace with current issues related to quality, technology, diversity, globalization, and ethics. This requires managing both change and resistance to change. All organizations experience external and internal forces for change. There are numerous organization development interventions available to managers. Diagnosis and needs analysis are essential first steps in any change management effort.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to do the following:

1. Identify the major external and internal forces for change in organizations.

2. Define the terms *incremental change, strategic change, transformational change,* and *change agent.*

3. Describe the major reasons individuals resist change, and discuss methods organizations can use to manage resistance.

4. Apply force field analysis to a problem.

5. Explain Lewin's organizational change model.

6. Describe the use of organizational diagnosis and needs analysis as a first step in organizational development.

7. Discuss the major organization development interventions.

8. Identify the ethical issues that must be considered in organization development efforts

II. FORCES FOR CHANGE IN ORGANIZATIONS

The forces for change are everywhere in today's highly competitive environment. Adaptiveness, flexibility, and responsiveness are terms used to describe the organizations that will succeed in meeting the competitive challenges faced by businesses. Planned change results from deliberate

decisions to alter an organization. Unplanned change is imposed on the organization and is often unforeseen.

A. External Forces

The four themes of this text (i.e., globalization, workforce diversity, technological change, and managing ethical behavior) are the major external drivers of change in organizations. Two examples of planned change are the European Union (EU) and the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). Regardless of the degree of planning involved in these ventures, numerous unplanned circumstances still arise.

1. Globalization

Multinational and transnational organizations are heavily involved in global changes. Many of these organizations are pursuing joint ventures with firms from other countries.

2. Workforce Diversity

The workforce continues to see increased participation of females, persons with physical challenges, and persons from many different cultures, as well as a rise in the mean age of workers. All of these trends are expected to continue well into the next decade.

3. Technological Change

Technological changes alter the way in which we perform work, structure work and organizations, and interact with each other. Examples include advances in communication technology and information systems that allow for virtual teams, and radio frequency identification tags that are significantly faster, more flexible, reusable, and carry more information than bar codes.

4. Managing Ethical Behavior

Society expects organizations to behave in an ethical manner in all of their activities, both internal and external. Ethical dilemmas are sometimes highly visible, public issues, but more often they are issues that arise in the everyday lives of employees. Success in this area requires that organizations establish a pervasive culture of ethical behavior that all employees embrace.

B. Internal Forces

Internal forces for change include things like declining effectiveness, crises (e.g., strikes, resignations, or major accidents), changes in employee expectations, and changes in the work climate.

III. CHANGE IS INEVITABLE

A. The Scope of Change

Change may take one of three forms. Incremental change is relatively small in scope, and as such, results in small improvements. Strategic change is a larger scale approach that is similar in magnitude to a restructuring effort. Transformational change moves the organization toward a radically different, and sometimes, unknown, future state.

B. The Change Agent's Role

A change agent is an individual or group that undertakes the task of introducing and managing a change in an organization. Change agents can be either internal or external, and both have advantages and disadvantages. Internal change agents know the past history of the organization, its political system, and its culture, but may be too close to be objective or may not have the trust of coworkers. External change agents may have a greater ability to be objective and impartial, but possess limited information about the organization and may be view with suspicion.

IV. THE PROCESS OF CHANGE IN ORGANIZATIONS

A. Resistance to Change

Individuals often resist change because they feel that their freedom is threatened.

1. Fear of the Unknown

All change brings some uncertainty and creates resistance because it introduces ambiguity to what was a comfortable environment. Communication helps reduce fear of the unknown.

2. Fear of Loss

Employees often fear losing their jobs or their status as a result of change.

3. Fear of Failure

Employees may experience anxiety as they anticipate increased workloads or task difficulty, an increase in performance expectations, or they may fear that the change itself will not occur.

4. Disruption of Interpersonal Relationships

Change sometimes limits meaningful interpersonal relationships at work that are important to employees, which can create additional anxiety.

5. Personality Conflicts

Conflict can occur because of the seemingly insensitive personality of the change agent.

6. Politics

Organizational change often involves shifting the balance of power. Threatened loss of power can generate strong resistance to change.

7. Cultural Assumptions and Values

Employees in cultures with high uncertainty avoidance may not be as receptive to change as those in cultures with low uncertainty avoidance. Also, some individuals tolerate ambiguity more readily than do others.

B. Managing Resistance to Change

Communication, participation, and empathy and support are key strategies for effectively managing resistance to change.

C. Behavioral Reactions to Change

Disengagement is psychological withdrawal from change. Disidentification is the feeling that one's identity is being threatened by a change. Disenchantment is a negative feeling or anger toward a change. Disorientation involves feelings of loss and confusion due to a change.

D. Lewin's Change Model

The Lewin change model asserts that behavior is the product of two opposing forces, one force pushing to preserve the status quo, and the other pushing for change. The model includes three steps: unfreezing, moving, and refreezing. Unfreezing involves encouraging individuals to discard old behaviors by shaking up the equilibrium state that maintains the status quo. In the moving step, new attitudes, values, and behaviors are substituted for old ones. Finally, refreezing establishes the new attitudes, values, and behaviors as the new status quo.

V. ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTIONS

Organizational development (OD) is a systematic approach to organizational improvement that applies behavioral science theory and research in order to increase individual and organizational well-being and effectiveness.

A. Diagnosis and Needs Analysis

Organizational development begins with the essential first step of diagnosis. Diagnosis should include examinations of the organization's purpose, structure, reward system, support system, relationships, and leadership. Needs analysis involves careful investigation into the skills and competencies employees must have in order to change successfully.

B. Organization- and Group-Focused Techniques

1. Survey Feedback

Survey feedback is a widely used method of intervention method whereby employee attitudes are solicited using a questionnaire. Individual responses should be confidential and anonymous, feedback should be report on the group level, employees should feel confident that they will suffer no repercussions from their responses, and they should be informed of the purpose of the survey.

2. Management by Objectives

Management by objectives (MBO) is an organization-wide intervention technique that involves joint goal setting between employees and managers. It clarifies what is expected of employees, provides knowledge of results, and provides an opportunity for coaching and counseling by the manager. However, the MBO process can be extremely time-consuming when done correctly.

3. Product and Service Quality Programs

Quality programs embed product and service quality excellence in the organizational culture. Success or failure of an organization is directly linked not only to the quality of its product, but also to the quality of its customer service.

4. Team Building

Team building is an intervention designed to improve the effectiveness of a work group. Although very popular as an intervention, team building is a relatively new OD technique, and the assessment of its effectiveness remains incomplete.

5. Large Group Interventions

Large group interventions bring all of the key members of a group together in one room for an extended period of time as a means of creating a critical mass of people within the organization to support a change.

6. Process Consultation

Process consultation is an OD method that helps managers and employees improve the processes that are used in organizations. In most instances, an external organization consultant is used.

C. Individual-Focused Techniques

1. Skills Training

Skills training increases the job knowledge, skills, and abilities that are necessary to do a job effectively. It can be accomplished in the classroom, on the job, or through computer-based-training (CBT).

2. Sensitivity Training

Sensitivity training is an intervention designed to help individuals understand how their behavior affects others. Also known as T-groups, sensitivity training seeks to change behavior through unstructured group interaction. The focus is on enhancing interpersonal skills.

3. Management Development Training

Management development encompasses many techniques designed to enhance manager's skills in an organization. It focuses on verbal information, intellectual skills, attitudes, and development.

4. Role Negotiation

Role negotiation is a simple technique whereby individuals meet and clarify their psychological contract.

5. Job Redesign

Job redesign is an OD intervention method that alters jobs to improve the fit between individual skills and the demands of the job. Students may enjoy an impromptu job redesign for positions like tollbooth operators, computer input operators, or traffic directors. They quickly discover that the task is not as easy as it appears.

6. Health Promotion Programs

Companies are increasingly recognizing the importance of health promotion programs for reducing their health care costs. The goal is to help employees manage stress before it becomes a problem.

7. Career Planning

Career planning benefits both the organization and the individual. Employees identify skills and skill deficiencies. The organization plans training and development efforts based on that information. Also, the career planning process facilitates the identification and nurturing of talented employees for future promotions.

Vi. Ethical considerations in organization development

OD methods must be chosen in accordance with the problem as diagnosed, the organization's culture, and the employees involved. Individuals should not be forced to participate, and confidentiality for those who do participate is of the utmost concern. Finally, participants should be given complete knowledge of the rationale for change, what to expect from the change process, and the details of the intervention technique and process.

Vii. Are organization development efforts effective?

The success of any OD intervention depends on many factors, and no one OD method will be effective in all cases. Research indicates that OD programs have positive effects on productivity when properly applied and managed.

Approach

Organizational change is a structured approach in an organization for ensuring that changes are smoothly and successfully implemented to achieve lasting benefits. In the modern business environment, organizations face rapid change like never before. Globalization and the constant innovation of technology result in a constantly evolving business environment. Phenomena such as social media and mobile adaptability have revolutionized business and the effect of this is an ever increasing need for change, and therefore change management. The growth in technology also has a secondary effect of increasing the availability and therefore accountability of knowledge. Easily accessible information has resulted in unprecedented scrutiny from stockholders and the media. Prying eyes and listening ears raise the stakes for failed business endeavors and increase the pressure on struggling executives. With the business environment experiencing so much change, organizations must then learn to become comfortable with change as well. Therefore, the ability to manage and adapt to organizational change is an essential ability required in the workplace today.

Due to the growth of technology, modern organizational change is largely motivated by exterior innovations rather than internal moves. When these developments occur, the organizations that adapt quickest create a competitive advantage for themselves, while the companies that refuse to change get left behind. This can result in drastic profit and/or market share losses.

Organizational change directly affects all departments from the entry level employee to senior management. The entire company must learn how to handle changes to the organization.

When determining which of the latest techniques or innovations to adopt, there are four major factors to be considered:

Levels, goals, and strategies

Measurement system

Sequence of steps

Implementation and organizational change

Regardless of the many types of organizational change, the critical aspect is a company's ability to win the buy-in of their organization's employees on the change. Effectively managing organizational change is a four-step process:

Recognizing the changes in the broader business environment

Developing the necessary adjustments for their company's needs

Training their employees on the appropriate changes

Winning the support of the employees with the persuasiveness of the appropriate adjustments

As a multi-disciplinary practice that has evolved as a result of scholarly research, organizational change management should begin with a systematic diagnosis of the current situation in order to determine both the need for change and the capability to change. The objectives, content, and process of change should all be specified as part of a Change Management plan.

Change management processes should include creative marketing to enable communication between changing audiences, as well as deep social understanding about leadership's styles and group dynamics. As a visible track on transformation projects, Organizational Change Management aligns groups' expectations, communicates, integrates teams and manages people training. It makes use of performance metrics, such as financial results, operational efficiency, leadership commitment, communication effectiveness, and the perceived need for change to design appropriate strategies, in order to avoid change failures or resolve troubled change projects.

Successful change management is more likely to occur if the following are included:

Benefits management and realization to define measurable stakeholder aims, create a business case for their achievement (which should be continuously updated), and monitor assumptions,

risks, dependencies, costs, return on investment, dis-benefits and cultural issues affecting the progress of the associated work

Effective communication that informs various stakeholders of the reasons for the change (why?), the benefits of successful implementation (what is in it for us, and you) as well as the details of the change (when? where? who is involved? how much will it cost? etc.)

Devise an effective education, training and/or skills upgrading scheme for the organization

Counter resistance from the employees of companies and align them to overall strategic direction of the organization

Provide personal counseling (if required) to alleviate any change-related fears

Monitoring of the implementation and fine-tuning as required

Examples

Mission changes

Strategic changes

Operational changes (including Structural changes)

Technological changes

Changing the attitudes and behaviors of personnel

Personality Wide Changes

CHAPTER 7

Organizational Learning

Organizational learning is an area of knowledge within organizational theory that studies models and theories about the way an organization learns and adapts (Vasenska, 2013:615).
In Organizational development (OD), learning is a characteristic of an adaptive organization, i.e., an organization that is able to sense changes in signals from its environment (both internal and external) and adapt accordingly. OD specialists endeavor to assist their clients to learn from experience and incorporate the learning as feedback into the planning process.

Note a profound ambiguity in how the term adaptive system is used. The earliest system theorists studied self-regulating organic and mechanical systems in which a system "adapts" to environmental changes, acting so as to maintain its organization in a steady (viable) state. System theory was taken up in the humanities by those who use the term "adaptation" to mean how an organization evolves so as to produce desired outcomes (or even different outcomes chosen by the participants). When adaptation is used in the second sense, while the organization may continue under the same name, the nature of the system - its structure and behavior - changes. Successive incremental changes can lead to a radically different system.

Contents

Models

Argyris and Schön were the first to propose models that facilitate organizational learning; others have followed in the tradition of their work:

Argyris & Schön (1978) distinguished between single-loop and double-loop learning, related to Gregory Bateson's concepts of first and second order learning. In single-loop learning, individuals, groups, or organizations modify their actions according to the difference between expected and obtained outcomes. In double-loop learning, the entities (individuals, groups or organization) question the values, assumptions and policies that led to the actions in the first place; if they are able to view and modify those, then second-order or double-loop learning has taken place. Double loop learning is the learning about single-loop learning.

Kim (1993), integrates Argyris, March and Olsen and another model by Kofman into a single comprehensive model; further, he analyzes all the possible breakdowns in the information flows in the model, leading to failures in organizational learning; for instance, what happens if an individual action is rejected by the organization for political or other reasons and therefore no organizational action takes place?

Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995) developed a four stage spiral model of organizational learning. They started by differentiating Polanyi's concept of "tacit knowledge" from "explicit knowledge" and describe a process of alternating between the two. Tacit knowledge is personal, context specific, subjective knowledge, whereas explicit knowledge is codified, systematic, formal, and easy to communicate. The tacit knowledge of key personnel within the organization can be made explicit, codified in manuals, and incorporated into new products and processes. This process they called "externalization". The reverse process (from explicit to tacit) they call "internalization" because it involves employees internalizing an organization's formal rules, procedures, and other forms of explicit knowledge. They also use the term "socialization" to denote the sharing of tacit knowledge, and the term "combination" to denote the dissemination of codified knowledge. According to this model, knowledge creation and organizational learning take a path of socialization, externalization, combination, internalization, socialization, externalization, combination . . . etc. in an infinite spiral. Recently Nonaka returned to this theme in an attempt to move this model of knowledge conversion forwards (Nonaka & von Krogh 2009)

Bontis, Crossan & Hulland (2002) empirically tested a model of organizational learning that encompassed both stocks and flows of knowledge across three levels of analysis: individual,

team and organization. Results showed a negative and statistically significant relationship between the misalignment of stocks and flows and organizational performance.

Flood (1999) discusses the concept of organizational learning from Peter Senge and the origins of the theory from Argyris and Schön. The author aims to "re-think" Senge's The Fifth Discipline (Senge 1990) through systems theory. The author develops the concepts by integrating them with key theorists such as Bertalanffy, Churchman, Beer, Checkland and Ackoff. Conceptualizing organizational learning in terms of structure, process, meaning, ideology and knowledge, the author provides insights into Senge within the context of the philosophy of science and the way in which systems theorists were influenced by twentieth-century advances from the classical assumptions of science.

Watson, Bruce D., 2002 argues that organizational learning has proven to be a somewhat elusive concept to grasp and therefore its practical implementation has also been difficult. There are various positions on what "learning" is understood to be and there is a lack of synthesis of theoretical and empirical investigations. He argues that the conception of "learning" in the organizational learning literature has received insufficient attention and that this has largely contributed to the lack of clarity in the concept of organizational learning. It is proposed that cognitive science, especially connectionism, provides a model of individual learning that is capable of incorporating implicit and explicit elements of learning and knowledge. Connectionist models of learning mimic the physiological neural processes of the brain and connectionism demonstrates the capacity to combine cognitivist and constructivist theories of learning. To accomplish the transition to an explanation of collective cognitive processes as occur in organizations, and while continuing to recognize the individual neural processes that must be involved, it is proposed that the theory of situated action is united with connectionism. On the basis of such, a reconceptualisation of organizational learning and a new framework to guide management practice is proposed.

Imants (2003) provides theory development for organizational learning in schools within the context of teachers' professional communities as learning communities, which is compared and contrasted to teaching communities of practice. Detailed with an analysis of the paradoxes for organizational learning in schools, two mechanisms for professional development and organizational learning, (1) steering information about teaching and learning and (2) encouraging

interaction among teachers and workers, are defined as critical for effective organizational learning.

Common (2004) discusses the concept of organizational learning in a political environment to improve public policy-making. The author details the initial uncontroversial reception of organizational learning in the public sector and the development of the concept with the learning organization. Definitional problems in applying the concept to public policy are addressed, noting research in UK local government that concludes on the obstacles for organizational learning in the public sector: (1) overemphasis of the individual, (2) resistance to change and politics, (3) social learning is self-limiting, i.e. individualism, and (4) political "blame culture." The concepts of policy learning and policy transfer are then defined with detail on the conditions for realizing organizational learning in the public sector.

Bontis & Serenko (2009a), and Bontis & Serenko (2009b) proposed and validated a causal model explicating organizational learning processes to identify antecedents and consequences of effective human capital management practices in both for-profit and non-profit sectors. The results demonstrate that managerial leadership is a key antecedent of organizational learning, highlight the importance of employee sentiment, and emphasize the significance of knowledge management.

Van Niekerk & Von Solms (2004) Compares and discusses organizational learning models for information security learning within organizations. Double-loop learning, as presented by Argyris & Schön (1978) is compared to outcome-based education, and information security specific standards published by the National Institute of Science and Technology (NIST), to determine its suitability for the fostering of an information security culture.

Bushe (2001, 2009a, 2009b) defines organizational learning as an inquiry into the patterns of organizing among two or more people that leads to new knowledge and a change in those patterns of organizing. Arguing that since everyone creates their own experience, in every interaction everyone is having a different experience, and so learning from collective experience is a lot more difficult than simply discussing what happened in the past to decide what people want to do in the future. Bushe argues that many of dysfunctional patterns of organizing are sustained by sense-making processes that lead people to make up stories about each other that

are more negative than the reality. Through an "organizational learning conversation" people come to understand their own experience and the experience of others which often allow them to revise their patterns of organizing in positive ways.

Organizational knowledge

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Some of this knowledge can be termed technical – knowing the meaning of technical words and phrases, being able to read and make sense of data and being able to act on the basis of generalizations. Scientific knowledge is 'propositional'; it takes the form of causal generalizations – whenever A, then B. For example, whenever water reaches the temperature of 100 degrees, it boils; whenever it boils, it turns into steam; steam generates pressure when in an enclosed space; pressure drives engines.

A large part of the knowledge used by managers, however, does not assume this form. The complexities of a manager's task are such that applying A may result in B, C, or Z. A recipe or an idea that solved very well a particular problem, may, in slightly different circumstances backfire and lead to ever more problems. More important than knowing a whole lot of theories, recipes and solutions for a manager is to know which theory, recipe or solution to apply in a specific situation. Sometimes a manager may combine two different recipes or adapt an existing recipe with some important modification to meet a situation at hand.

Managers often use knowledge in the way that a handyman will use his or her skills, the materials and tools that are at hand to meet the demands of a particular situation. Unlike an engineer who will plan carefully and scientifically his or her every action to deliver the desired outcome, such as a steam engine, a handyman is flexible and opportunistic, often using materials in unorthodox or unusual ways, and relies a lot on trial and error. This is what the French call 'bricolage', the resourceful and creative deployment of skills and materials to meet each

challenge in an original way. Rule of thumb, far from being the enemy of management, is what managers throughout the world have relied upon to inform their action.

In contrast to the scientific knowledge that guides the engineer, the physician or the chemist, managers are often informed by a different type of know-how. This is sometimes referred to a ‘narrative knowledge’ or ‘experiential knowledge’, the kind of knowledge that comes from experience and resides in stories and narratives of how real people in the real world dealt with real life problems, successfully or unsuccessfully. Narrative knowledge is what we use in everyday life to deal with awkward situations, as parents, as consumers, as patients and so forth. We seek the stories of people in the same situation as ourselves and try to learn from them. As the Chinese proverb says "A wise man learns from experience; a wiser man learns from the experience of others".

Narrative knowledge usually takes the form of organization stories (see organization story and organizational storytelling). These stories enable participants to make sense of the difficulties and challenges they face; by listening to stories, members of organizations learn from each other's experiences, adapt the recipes used by others to address their own difficulties and problems. Narrative knowledge is not only the preserve of managers. Most professionals (including doctors, accountants, lawyers, business consultants and academics) rely on narrative knowledge, in addition to their specialist technical knowledge, when dealing with concrete situations as part of their work. More generally, narrative knowledge represents an endlessly mutating reservoir of ideas, recipes and stories that are traded mostly by word or mouth on the internet. They are often apocryphal and may be inaccurate or untrue - yet, they have the power to influence people's sense making and actions.

Individual learning

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Learning by individuals in an organizational context is the traditional domain of human resources, including activities such as: training, increasing skills, work experience, and formal education. Given that the success of any organization is founded on the knowledge of the people

who work for it, these activities will and, indeed, must continue. However, individual learning is only a prerequisite to organizational learning.

Others take it farther with continuous learning. The world is orders of magnitude more dynamic than that of our parents, or even when we were young. Waves of change are crashing on us virtually one on top of another. Change has become the norm rather than the exception. Continuous learning throughout one's career has become essential to remain relevant in the workplace. Again, necessary but not sufficient to describe organizational learning.

What does it mean to say that an organization learns? Simply summing individual learning is inadequate to model organizational learning. The following definition outlines the essential difference between the two: A learning organization actively creates, captures, transfers, and mobilizes knowledge to enable it to adapt to a changing environment. Thus, the key aspect of organizational learning is the interaction that takes place among individuals.

A learning organization does not rely on passive or ad hoc process in the hope that organizational learning will take place through serendipity or as a by-product of normal work. A learning organization actively promotes, facilitates, and rewards collective learning.

Creating (or acquiring) knowledge can be an individual or group activity. However, this is normally a small-scale, isolated activity steeped in the jargon and methods of knowledge workers. As first stated by Lucilius in the 1st century BC, "Knowledge is not knowledge until someone else knows that one knows."

Capturing individual learning is the first step to making it useful to an organization. There are many methods for capturing knowledge and experience, such as publications, activity reports, lessons learned, interviews, and presentations. Capturing includes organizing knowledge in ways that people can find it; multiple structures facilitate searches regardless of the user's perspective (e.g., who, what, when, where, why,and how). Capturing also includes storage in repositories, databases, or libraries to ensure that the knowledge will be available when and as needed.

Transferring knowledge requires that it be accessible to as needed. In a digital world, this involves browser-activated search engines to find what one is looking for. A way to retrieve content is also needed, which requires a communication and network infrastructure. Tacit

knowledge may be shared through communities of practice or consulting experts. Knowledge needs to be presented in a way that users can understand it, and it must suit the needs of the user to be accepted and internalized.

Mobilizing knowledge involves integrating and using relevant knowledge from many, often diverse, sources to solve a problem or address an issue. Integration requires interoperability standards among various repositories. Using knowledge may be through simple reuse of existing solutions that have worked previously. It may also come through adapting old solutions to new problems. Conversely, a learning organization learns from mistakes or recognizes when old solutions no longer apply. Use may also be through synthesis; that is creating a broader meaning or a deeper level of understanding. Clearly, the more rapidly knowledge can be mobilized and used, the more competitive an organization.

An organization must learn so that it can adapt to a changing environment. Historically, the life-cycle of organizations typically spanned stable environments between major socioeconomic changes. Blacksmiths who didn't become mechanics simply fell by the wayside. More recently, many Fortune 500 companies of two decades ago no longer exist. Given the ever-accelerating rate of global-scale change, the more critical learning and adaptation become to organization relevance, success, and ultimate survival.

Organizational learning is a social process, involving interactions among many individuals leading to well-informed decision making. Thus, a culture that learns and adapts as part of everyday working practices is essential. Reuse must equal or exceed reinvent as a desirable behavior. Adapting an idea must be rewarded along with its initial creation. Sharing to empower the organization must supersede controlling to empower an individual.

Clearly, shifting from individual to organizational learning involves a non-linear transformation. Once someone learns something, it is available for their immediate use. In contrast, organizations need to create, capture, transfer, and mobilize knowledge before it can be used. Although technology supports the latter, these are primarily social processes within a cultural environment, and cultural change, however necessary, is a particularly challenging undertaking.

Learning organization

The work in Organizational Learning can be distinguished from the work on a related concept, the learning organization. This later body of work, in general, uses the theoretical findings of organizational learning (and other research in organizational development, system theory, and cognitive science) in order to prescribe specific recommendations about how to create organizations that continuously and effectively learn. This practical approach was championed by Peter Senge in his book The Fifth Discipline.

Diffusion of innovations

Diffusion of innovations theory explores how and why people adopt new ideas, practices and products. It may be seen as a subset of the anthropological concept of diffusion and can help to explain how ideas are spread by individuals, social networks and organizations.

Diffusion of innovations is a theory that seeks to explain how, why, and at what rate new ideas and technology spread through cultures. Everett Rogers, a professor of communication studies, popularized the theory in his book Diffusion of Innovations; the book was first published in 1962, and is now in its fifth edition (2003) The book says that diffusion is the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system. The origins of the diffusion of innovations theory are varied and span multiple disciplines. The book espouses the theory that there are four main elements that influence the spread of a new idea: the innovation, communication channels, time, and a social system. This process relies heavily on human capital. The innovation must be widely adopted in order to self-sustain. Within the rate of adoption, there is a point at which an innovation reaches critical mass. The categories of adopters are: innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, and laggards (Rogers 1962, p. 150). Diffusion of Innovations manifests itself in different ways in various cultures and fields and is highly subject to the type of adopters and innovation-decision process.

Process

Diffusion of an innovation occurs through a five–step process. This process is a type of decision-making. It occurs through a series of communication channels over a period of time among the members of a similar social system. Ryan and Gross first indicated the identification of adoption as a process in 1943 (Rogers 1962, p. 79). Rogers five stages (steps): awareness, interest,

evaluation, trial, and adoption are integral to this theory. An individual might reject an innovation at any time during or after the adoption process. Scholars such as Abrahamson (1991) examine this process critically by posing questions such as: How do technically inefficient innovations diffuse and what impedes technically efficient innovations from catching on? Abrahamson makes suggestions for how organizational scientists can more comprehensively evaluate the spread of innovations. In later editions of the Diffusion of Innovations Rogers changes the terminology of the five stages to: knowledge, persuasion, decision, implementation, and confirmation. However the descriptions of the categories have remained similar throughout the editions.

Five stages of the adoption process	
Stage	**Definition**
Knowledge	In this stage the individual is first exposed to an innovation but lacks information about the innovation. During this stage of the process the individual has not been inspired to find more information about the innovation.
Persuasion	In this stage the individual is interested in the innovation and actively seeks information/detail about the innovation.
Decision	In this stage the individual takes the concept of the change and weighs the advantages/disadvantages of using the innovation and decides whether to adopt or reject the innovation. Due to the individualistic nature of this stage Rogers notes that it is the most difficult stage to acquire empirical evidence (Rogers 1964, p. 83).
Implementation	In this stage the individual employs the innovation to a varying degree

	depending on the situation. During this stage the individual determines the usefulness of the innovation and may search for further information about it.
Confirmation	In this stage the individual finalizes his/her decision to continue using the innovation. This stage is both intrapersonal (may cause cognitive dissonance) and interpersonal, confirmation the group has made the right decision.

CHAPTER 8

Group Development

The goal of most research on group development is to learn why and how small groups change over time. To do this, researchers examine patterns of change and continuity in groups over time. Aspects of a group that might be studied include the quality of the output produced by a group, the type and frequency of its activities, its cohesiveness, the existence of group conflict.

A number of theoretical models have been developed to explain how certain groups change over time. Listed below are some of the most common models. In some cases, the type of group being considered influenced the model of group development proposed as in the case of therapy groups. In general, some of these models view group change as regular movement through a series of "stages," while others view them as "phases" that groups may or may not go through and which might occur at different points of a group's history. Attention to group development over time has been one of the differentiating factors between the study of *ad hoc* groups and the study of teams such as those commonly used in the workplace, the military, sports and many other contexts.

In the early seventies, Hill and Grunner (1973) reported that more than 100 theories of group development existed. Since then, other theories have emerged as well as attempts at contrasting and synthesizing them. As a result, a number of typologies of group change theories have been proposed. A typology advanced by George Smith (2001) based on the work of Mennecke and his colleagues (1992) classifies theories based on whether they perceive change to occur in a linear fashion, through cycles of activities, or through processes that combine both paths of change, or which are completely non-phasic. Other typologies are based on whether the primary forces promoting change and stability in a group are internal or external to the group. A third framework advanced by Andrew Van de Ven and Marshall Scott Poole (1995), differentiates theories based on four distinct "motors" for generating change. According to this framework, the following four types of group development models exist:

Life cycle models:	Describe the process of change as the unfolding of a prescribed and linear sequence of stages following a program that is prefigured at the beginning of

	the cycle (decided within the group or imposed on it).
Teleological models:	Describe change as a purposeful movement toward one or more goals, with adjustments based on feedback from the environment.
Dialectical models:	Describe change as emerging from conflict between opposing entities and eventual synthesis leading to the next cycle of conflict
Evolutionary models:	Describe change as emerging from a repeated cycle of variation, selection and retention and generally apply to change in a population rather than change within an entity over time.

Some theories allow for combinations and interactions among these four "motors". For example, Poole (see below) found in his empirical research that seemingly complex patterns of behavior in group decision making result from the interplay of life-cycle and teleological motors.

An important observation made by McGrath and Tschan (2004) regarding the different models of group development found in the literature is that different models might explain different aspects of the history of a group. On the one hand, some models treat the group as an entity and describe its stages of development as a functioning unit or "intact system" (p. 101). In this case, the models should be independent of the specific details of the task that the group is performing. On the other hand, some models might describe phases of the group's task performance and, because of this, tend to be very sensitive to the type of task that the group is engaged in (the "acting system", p. 101).

Below are descriptions of the central elements of some of the most common models of group development (See Smith, 2001 and Van de Ven & Poole, 1996 for a more complete list of theories and models).

Kurt Lewin's Individual Change Process

The first systematic study of group development was carried out by Kurt Lewin, who introduced the term "group dynamics" (Arrow et al., 2005). His ideas about mutual, cross-level influence

and quasi-stationary equilibria, although uncommon in the traditional empirical research on group development, have resurged recently. His early model of individual change, which has served as the basis of many models of group development, described change as a three-stage process: unfreezing, change, and freezing.

Unfreezing:	This phase involves overcoming inertia and dismantling the existing "mind set". Defense mechanisms have to be bypassed.
Change	In the second stage change occurs. This is typically a period of confusion and transition. One is aware that the old ways are being challenged but does not have a clear picture to replace them with yet.
Freezing	In the third stage the new mindset is crystallizing and one's comfort level is returning to previous levels. This is often misquoted as "refreezing" (see Lewin, 1947).

Tuckman's Stages model

Bruce Tuckman reviewed about fifty studies of group development (including Bales' model) in the mid-sixties and synthesized their commonalities in one of the most frequently cited models of group development (Tuckman, 1965). The model describes four linear stages (forming, storming, norming, and performing) that a group will go through in its unitary sequence of decision making. A fifth stage (adjourning) was added in 1977 when a new set of studies were reviewed (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977).

Forming:	Group members learn about each other and the task at hand. Indicators of this stage might include: Unclear objectives, Uninvolvement, Uncommitted members, Confusion, Low morale, Hidden feelings, Poor listening, etc.
Storming:	As group members continue to work, they will engage each other in arguments

	about the structure of the group which often are significantly emotional and illustrate a struggle for status in the group. These activities mark the storming phase: Lack of cohesion, Subjectivity, Hidden agendas, Conflicts, Confrontation, Volatility, Resentment, anger, Inconsistency, Failure.
Norming:	Group members establish implicit or explicit rules about how they will achieve their goal. They address the types of communication that will or will not help with the task. Indicators include: Questioning performance, Reviewing/clarify objective, Changing/confirming roles, Opening risky issues, Assertiveness, Listening, Testing new ground, Identifying strengths and weaknesses.
Performing:	Groups reach a conclusion and implement the solution to their issue. Indicators include: Creativity, Initiative, Flexibility, Open relationships, Pride, Concern for people, Learning, Confidence, High morale, Success, etc.
Adjourning:	As the group project ends, the group disbands in the adjournment phase. This phase was added when Tuckman and Jensen's updated their original review of the literature in 1977.

Each of the five stages in the Forming-storming-norming-performing-adjourning model proposed by Tuckman involves two aspects: *interpersonal relationships* and *task behaviors*. Such a distinction is similar to Bales' (1950) equilibrium model which states that a group continuously divides its attention between instrumental (task-related) and expressive (socioemotional) needs.

As Gersick (1988) has pointed out, some later models followed similar sequential patterns. Examples include: define the situation, develop new skills, develop appropriate roles, carry out the work (Hare, 1976); orientation, dissatisfaction, resolution, production, termination (LaCoursiere, 1980); and generate plans, ideas, and goals; choose&agree on alternatives, goals,

and policies; resolve conflicts and develop norms; perform action tasks and maintain cohesion (McGrath, 1984).

Tubbs' Systems model

Stewart Tubbs "systems" approach to studying small group interaction led him to the creation of a four-phase model of group development:

Orientation:	In this stage, group members get to know each other, they start to talk about the problem, and they examine the limitations and opportunities of the project.
Conflict:	Conflict is a necessary part of a group's development. Conflict allows the group to evaluate ideas and it helps the group avoid conformity and groupthink
Consensus:	Conflict ends in the consensus stage, when group members compromise, select ideas, and agree on alternatives.
Closure	In this stage, the final result is announced and group members reaffirm their support of the decision.

Fisher's theory of decision emergence in groups

Fisher outlines four phases through which task groups tend to proceed when engaged in decision making. By observing the distribution of act-response pairs (a.k.a. "interacts") across different moments of the group process, Fisher noted how the interaction changed as the group decision was formulated and solidified. His method pays special attention to the "content" dimension of interactions by classifying statements in terms of how they respond to a decision proposal (e.g. agreement, disagreement, etc.).

Orientation:	During the orientation phase, group members get to know each other and they experience a primary tension: the awkward feeling people have before communication rules and expectations are established. Groups should take time

	to learn about each other and feel comfortable communicating around new people.
Conflict:	The conflict phase is marked by secondary tension, or tension surrounding the task at hand. Group members will disagree with each other and debate ideas. Here conflict is viewed as positive, because it helps the group achieve positive results.
Emergence:	In the emergence phase, the outcome of the group's task and its social structure become apparent. Group members soften their positions and undergo an attitudinal change that makes them less tenacious in defending their individual viewpoint.
Reinforcement:	In this stage, group members bolster their final decision by using supportive verbal and nonverbal communication.

Based on this categorization, Fisher created his "Decision Proposal Coding System" that identifies act-response pairs associated with each decision-making phase. Interestingly, Fisher observed that the group decision making process tended to be more cyclical and, in some cases, almost erratic. He hypothesized that the interpersonal demands of discussion require "breaks" from task work. In particular, Fisher observed that there are a number of contingencies that might explain some of the decision paths taken by some groups. For instance, in modifying proposals, groups tend to follow one of two patterns. If conflict is low, the group will reintroduce proposals in less abstract, more specific language. When conflict is higher, the group might not attempt to make a proposal more specific but, instead, because disagreement lies on the basic idea, the group introduces substitute proposals of the same level of abstraction as the original.

Poole's multiple-sequences model

Marshall Scott Poole’s model suggests that different groups employ different sequences in making decisions. In contrast to unitary sequence models, the multiple sequences model

addresses decision making as a function of several contingency variables: task structure, group composition, and conflict management strategies. Poole developed a descriptive system for studying multiple sequences, beyond the abstract action descriptions of previous studies. From Bales' Interaction Process Analysis System and Fisher's Decision Proposal Coding System, Poole proposes 36 clusters of group activities for coding group interactions and 4 cluster-sets: proposal development, socioemotional concerns, conflict, and expressions of ambiguity. However, in his latter work, Poole rejected phasic models of group development and proposed a model of continuously developing threads of activity. In essence, discussions are not characterized by blocks of phases, one after another, but by intertwining tracks of activity and interaction.

Poole suggests three activity tracks: task progress, relational, and topical focus. Interspersed with these are breakpoints, marking changes in the development of strands and links between them. Normal breakpoints pace the discussion with topic shifts and adjournments. Delays, another breakpoint, are holding patterns of recycling through information. Finally, disruptions break the discussion threads with conflict or task failure.

Task track:	The task track concerns the process by which the group accomplishes its goals, such as dealing doing problem analysis, designing solutions, etc.
Relation track:	The relation track deals with the interpersonal relationships between the group members. At times, the group may stop its work on the task and work instead on its relationships, share personal information or engage in joking.
Topic track:	The topic track includes a series of issues or concerns the group have over time
Breakpoints:	Breakpoints occur when a group switches from one track to another. Shifts in the conversation, adjournment, or postponement are examples of breakpoints.

McGrath's Time, Interaction, and Performance (TIP) theory

McGrath's (1991) work emphasized the notion that different teams might follow different developmental paths to reach the same outcome. He also suggested that teams engage in four modes of group activity: *inception, technical problem solving, conflict resolution*, and *execution*. According to this model, modes "are potential, not required, forms of activity" (p. 153) resulting in Modes I and IV (inception and execution) being involved in all group tasks and projects while Modes II (technical problem solving) and III (conflict resolution) may or may not be involved in any given group activity (Hare, 2003 uses the terms *meaning*, *resources*, *integration,* and *goal attainment* for these four modes).

McGrath further suggested that all team projects begin with Mode I (*goal choice*) and end with Mode IV (*goal attainment*) but that Modes II and III may or may not be needed depending on the task and the history of the group's activities. McGrath contended that for each identified function, groups can follow a variety of alternative "time-activity paths" in order to move from the initiation to the completion of a given function. Specifically, TIP theory states that there is a "default path" between two modes of activity which is "satisficing" or "least effort" path, and that such default path will "prevail unless conditions warrant some more complex path" (1991, p. 159).

Mode I: Inception	Inception and acceptance of a project (goal choice)
Mode II: Technical Problem Solving	Solution of technical issues (means choice)
Mode III: Conflict Resolution	Resolution of conflict, that is, of political issues (policy choice)
Mode IV: Execution	Execution of the performance requirements of the project (goal attainment)

This model also states that groups adopt these four modes with respect to each of three team functions: *production, well-being,* and *member support*. In this sense, groups are seen as "always acting in one of the four modes with respect to each of the three functions, but they are not necessarily engaged in the same mode for all functions, nor are they necessarily engaged in the same mode for a given function on different projects that may be concurrent" (McGrath, 1991, p. 153). The following table illustrates the relationship between modes and functions.

Functions			
	Production	**Well-being**	**Member Support**
Mode I: Inception	Production Demand/ Opportunity	Interaction Demand/ Opportunity	Inclusion Demand/ Opportunity
Mode II: Problem Solving	Technical Problem Solving	Role Network Definition	Position/ Status Attainment
Mode III: Conflict Resolution	Policy Conflict Resolution	Power/ Payoff Distribution	Contribution/ Payoff Relationships
Mode IV: Execution	Performance	Interaction	Participation

(Adapted from Figure 1 in McGrath, 1991, p. 154)

Gersick's Punctuated Equilibrium model

Gersick's study of naturally occurring groups departs from the traditionally linear models of group development. Her punctuated equilibrium model (Gersick, 1988, 1989, 1991) suggests that groups develop through the sudden formation, maintenance, and sudden revision of a "framework for performance". This model describes the processes through which such frameworks are formed and revised and predicts both the timing of progress and when and how

in their development groups are likely, or unlikely, to be influenced by their environments. The specific issues and activities that dominate groups' work are left unspecified in the model, since groups' historical paths are expected to vary. Her proposed model works in the following way.

Phase I	According to the model, a framework of behavioral patterns and assumptions through which a group approaches its project emerges in its first meeting, and the group stays with that framework through the first half of its life. Teams may show little visible progress during this time because members may be unable to perceive a use for the information they are generating until they revise the initial framework.
Midpoint	At their calendar midpoints, groups experience transitions-paradigmatic shifts in their approaches to their work-enabling them to capitalize on the gradual learning they have done and make significant advances. The transition is a powerful opportunity for a group to alter the course of its life midstream. But the transition must be used well, for once it is past a team is unlikely to alter its basic plans again.
Phase 2	A second period of inertial movement, takes its direction from plans crystallized during the transition. At completion, when a team makes a final effort to satisfy outside expectations, it experiences the positive and negative consequences of past choices.

Wheelan's Integrated Model of Group Development

Building on Tuckman's model and based on her own empirical research as well as the foundational work of Wilfred Bion, Susan Wheelan proposed a "unified" or "integrated" model of group development (Wheelan, 1990; Wheelan, 1994a). This model, although linear in a sense, takes the perspective that groups achieve maturity as they continue to work together rather than simply go through stages of activity. In this model "early" stages of group development are associated with specific issues and patterns of talk such as those related to dependency, counter-dependency, and trust which precede the actual work conducted during the "more mature" stages of a group's life. The table below describes each one of these phases.

Stage I Dependency and Inclusion	The first stage of group development is characterized by significant member dependency on the designated leader, concerns about safety, and inclusion issues. In this stage, members rely on the leader and powerful group members to provide direction. Team members may engage in what has been called "pseudo-work," such as exchanging stories about outside activities or other topics that are not relevant to group goals.
Stage II Counterdependency and Fight	In the second stage of group development members disagree among themselves about group goals and procedures. Conflict is an inevitable part of this process. The group's task at Stage 2 is to develop a unified set of goals, values, and operational procedures, and this task inevitably generates some conflict. Conflict also is necessary for the establishment of trust and a climate in which members feel free to disagree with each other.
Stage III Trust / Structure	If the group manages to work through the inevitable conflicts of Stage 2, member trust, commitment to the group, and willingness to cooperate increase. Communication becomes more open and task-oriented. This third stage of group development, referred to as the trust and structure stage, is characterized by more mature negotiations about roles, organization, and procedures. It is also a time in which members work to solidify positive working relationships with each other
Stage IV Work / Productivity	As its name implies, the fourth stage of group development is a time of intense team productivity and effectiveness. Having resolved many of the issues of the previous stages, the group can focus most of its energy on goal achievement and task accomplishment

Final	Groups that have a distinct ending point experience a fifth stage. Impending termination may cause disruption and conflict in some groups. In other groups, separation issues are addressed, and members' appreciation of each other and the group experience may be expressed.

Based on this model, Wheelan has created and validated both a *Group Development Observation System* (GDOS) and a *Group Development Questionnaire* (GDQ). The GDOS allows researchers to determine the developmental stage of a group by categorizing and counting each complete thought exhibited during a group session into one of eight categories: *Dependency*statements, *Counterdependency, Fight, Flight, Pairing, Counterpairing, Work,* or *Unscorable* statements (Wheelan, 1994). The GDQ is used to survey group members and assess their individual perception of their group's developmental state (Wheelan, S., & Hochberger, 1996). Her academic work has been transferred into a commercial organization, GDQ Associates, Inc.

In her empirical validation of the model, Wheelan (2003) has analyzed the relationship between the length of time that a group has been meeting and the verbal behavior patterns of its members as well as the member's perceptions of the state of development of the group. Her results seem to indicate that there is a significant relationship between the length of time that a group had been meeting and the verbal behavior patterns of its members. Also, members of older groups tended to perceive their groups to have more of the characteristics of Stage-3 and Stage-4 groups and to be more productive. Based on these results, Wheelan's position supports the traditional linear models of group development and casts doubt on the cyclic models and Gersick's punctuated equilibrium model.

Morgan, Salas & Glickman's TEAM model

Combining multiple theories and the development models of Tuckman and Gersick, Morgan, Salas and Glickman (1994) created the Team Evolution and Maturation (TEAM) model to describe a series of nine developmental stages through which newly formed, task-oriented teams are hypothesized to evolve. The periods of development are labeled "stages" and conceived to be "relatively informal, indistinct, and overlapping", because "sharp demarcations are not often characteristic of the dynamic situations in which operational teams work and develop".

According to this model, teams might begin a given period of development at different stages and spend different amounts of time in the various stages. Teams are not always expected to progress in a linear fashion through all of the stages. A team's beginning point and pattern of progression through the stages depend on factors such as the characteristics of the team and team members, their past histories and experience, the nature of their tasks, and the environmental demands and constraints (cf. McGrath, 1991).

The TEAM model identities a total of *nine stages*, seven central ones supplemented by two additional ones. The seven central stages begin with the formation of the team during its first meeting (forming) and moves through the members' initial, and sometimes unstable, exploration of the situation (storming), initial efforts toward accommodation and the formation and acceptance of roles (norming), performance leading toward occasional inefficient patterns of performance (performing-I), reevaluation and transition (reforming), refocusing of efforts to produce effective performance (performing-11), and completion of team assignments (conforming). The development of a team might be recycled from any of the final stages to an earlier stage if necessitated by a failure to achieve satisfactory performance or if adjustments to environmental demands are required or if problematic team interactions develop.

The core stages of the model are preceded by a pre-forming stage that recognizes the forces from the environment (environmental demands and constraints) that call for, and contribute to, the establishment of the team; that is, forces external to the team (before it comes into existence) that cause the team to be formed. The last stage indicates that after the team has served its purpose, it will eventually be disbanded or de-formed. Here. individuals exit from the group (separately or simultaneously) and the team loses its identity and ceases to exist.

The TEAM model also postulates the existence of *two distinguishable activity tracks* present throughout all the stages. The first of these tracks involves activities that are tied to the specific task(s) being performed. These activities include interactions of the team members with tools and machines, the technical aspects of the job (e.g., procedures, policies, etc.), and other task-related activities. The other track of activities is devoted to enhancing the quality of the interactions, interdependencies, relationships, affects, cooperation, and coordination of teams.

CHAPTER 9

Groupthink

Groupthink is a psychological phenomenon that occurs within a group of people, in which the desire for harmony or conformity in the group results in an incorrect or deviant decision-making outcome. Group members try to minimize conflict and reach a consensus decision without critical evaluation of alternative ideas or viewpoints, and by isolating themselves from outside influences.

Loyalty to the group requires individuals to avoid raising controversial issues or alternative solutions, and there is loss of individual creativity, uniqueness and independent thinking. The dysfunctional group dynamics of the "ingroup" produces an "illusion of invulnerability" (an inflated certainty that the right decision has been made). Thus the "ingroup" significantly overrates their own abilities in decision-making, and significantly underrates the abilities of their opponents (the "outgroup").

Antecedent factors such as group cohesiveness, faulty group structure, and situational context (e.g., community panic) play into the likelihood of whether or not groupthink will impact the decision-making process.

Groupthink is a construct of social psychology, but has an extensive reach and influences literature in the fields of communication studies, political science, management, and organizational theory, as well as important aspects of deviant religious cult behavior.

Most of the initial research on groupthink was conducted by Irving Janis, a research psychologist from Yale University. Janis published an influential book in 1972, which was revised in 1982.Later studies have evaluated and reformulated his groupthink model.

History

From "Groupthink" by William H. Whyte, Jr. in Fortune magazine, March 1952

William H. Whyte, Jr. coined the term in March 1952, in Fortune magazine:

Groupthink being a coinage — and, admittedly, a loaded one — a working definition is in order. We are not talking about mere instinctive conformity — it is, after all, a perennial failing of

mankind. What we are talking about is a rationalized conformity — an open, articulate philosophy which holds that group values are not only expedient but right and good as well.

Irving Janis pioneered the initial research on the groupthink theory. He does not cite Whyte, but coined the term by analogy with "doublethink" and similar terms that were part of the newspeak vocabulary in George Orwell's novel "1984". In his first writing on groupthink in 1971, he defined the term as follows:

I use the term groupthink as a quick and easy way to refer to the mode of thinking that persons engage in when concurrence-seeking becomes so dominant in a cohesive ingroup that it tends to override realistic appraisal of alternative courses of action. Groupthink is a term of the same order as the words in the newspeak vocabulary George Orwell used in his dismaying world of 1984. In that context, groupthink takes on an invidious connotation. Exactly such a connotation is intended, since the term refers to a deterioration in mental efficiency, reality testing and moral judgments as a result of group pressures.

He went on to write:

The main principle of groupthink, which I offer in the spirit of Parkinson's Law, is this: The more amiability and esprit de corps there is among the members of a policy-making ingroup, the greater the danger that independent critical thinking will be replaced by groupthink, which is likely to result in irrational and dehumanizing actions directed against outgroups.

Janis set the foundation for the study of groupthink starting with his research in the American Soldier Project where he studied the effect of extreme stress on group cohesiveness. After this study he remained interested in the ways in which people make decisions under external threats. This interest led Janis to study a number of "disasters" in American foreign policy, such as failure to anticipate the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor (1941); the Bay of Pigs Invasion fiasco (1961); and the prosecution of the Vietnam War (1964–67) by President Lyndon Johnson. He concluded that in each of these cases, the decisions occurred largely because of groupthink, which prevented contradictory views from being expressed and subsequently evaluated.

After the publication of Janis' book Victims of Groupthink in 1972, and a revised edition with the title Groupthink: Psychological Studies of Policy Decisions and Fiascoes in 1982,the concept

of groupthink was used to explain many other faulty decisions in history. These events included Nazi Germany's decision to invade the Soviet Union in 1941, the Watergate Scandal and countless others. Despite the popularity of the concept of groupthink, fewer than two dozen studies addressed the phenomenon itself following the publication of Victims of Groupthink, between the years 1972 and 1998.:107 This is surprising considering how many fields of interests it spans, which include political science, communications, organizational studies, social psychology, management, strategy, counseling, and marketing. One can most likely explain this lack of follow-up in that group research is difficult to conduct, groupthink has many independent and dependent variables, and it is unclear "how to translate [groupthink's] theoretical concepts into observable and measurable constructs.":107–108

Nevertheless, outside research psychology and sociology, wider culture has come to detect groupthink (somewhat fuzzily defined) in observable situations, for example:

" [...] critics of Twitter point to the predominance of the hive mind in such social media, the kind of groupthink that submerges independent thinking in favor of conformity to the group, the collective"

"[...] leaders often have beliefs which are very far from matching reality and which can become more extreme as they are encouraged by their followers. The predilection of many cult leaders for abstract, ambiguous, and therefore unchallengeable ideas can further reduce the likelihood of reality testing, while the intense milieu control exerted by cults over their members means that most of the reality available for testing is supplie by the group environment. This is seen in the phenomenon of 'groupthink', alleged to have occurred, notoriously, during the Bay of Pigs fiasco."

"Groupthink by Compulsion [...] [G]roupthink at least implies voluntarism. When this fails, the organization is not above outright intimidation. [...] In [a nationwide telecommunications company], refusal by the new hires to cheer on command incurred consequences not unlike the indoctrination and brainwashing techniques associated with a Soviet-era gulag."

Symptoms

To make groupthink testable, Irving Janis devised eight symptoms indicative of groupthink.

Type I: Overestimations of the group — its power and morality

Illusions of invulnerability creating excessive optimism and encouraging risk taking.

Unquestioned belief in the morality of the group, causing members to ignore the consequences of their actions.

Type II: Closed-mindedness

Rationalizing warnings that might challenge the group's assumptions.

Stereotyping those who are opposed to the group as weak, evil, biased, spiteful, impotent, or stupid.

Type III: Pressures toward uniformity

Self-censorship of ideas that deviate from the apparent group consensus.

Illusions of unanimity among group members, silence is viewed as agreement.

Direct pressure to conform placed on any member who questions the group, couched in terms of "disloyalty"

Mind guards— self-appointed members who shield the group from dissenting information.

Groupthink, resulting from the symptoms listed above, results in defective decision-making. That is, consensus-driven decisions are the result of the following practices of groupthinking

Incomplete survey of alternatives

Incomplete survey of objectives

Failure to examine risks of preferred choice

Failure to reevaluate previously rejected alternatives

Poor information search

Selection bias in collecting information

Failure to work out contingency plans.

Causes

Janis prescribed three antecedent conditions to groupthink.:9

High group cohesiveness

deindividuation: group cohesiveness becomes more important than individual freedom of expression

Structural faults:

- insulation of the group
- lack of impartial leadership
- lack of norms requiring methodological procedures
- homogeneity of members' social backgrounds and ideology

Situational context:

- highly stressful external threats
- recent failures
- excessive difficulties on the decision-making task
- moral dilemmas

Although it is possible for a situation to contain all three of these factors, all three are not always present even when groupthink is occurring. Janis considered a high degree of cohesiveness to be the most important antecedent to producing groupthink and always present when groupthink was occurring; however, he believed high cohesiveness would not always produce groupthink. A very cohesive group abides to all group norms; whether or not groupthink arises is dependent on what the group norms are. If the group encourages individual dissent and alternative strategies to problem solving, it is likely that groupthink will be avoided even in a highly cohesive group. This means that high cohesion will lead to groupthink only if one or both of the other

antecedents is present, situational context being slightly more likely than structural faults to produce groupthink.

Prevention

As observed by Aldag & Fuller (1993), the groupthink phenomenon seems to consistently uphold the following principles:

The purpose of group problem solving is mainly to improve decision quality

Group problem solving is considered a rational process.

Benefits of group problem solving:

variety of perspectives

more information about possible alternatives

better decision reliability

dampening of biases

social presence effects

Groupthink prevents these benefits due to structural faults and provocative situational context

Groupthink prevention methods will produce better decisions

An illusion of well-being is presumed to be inherently dysfunctional.

Group pressures towards consensus lead to concurrence-seeking tendencies.

It has been thought that groups with the strong ability to work together will be able to solve dilemmas in a quicker and more efficient fashion than an individual. Groups have a greater amount of resources which lead them to be able to store and retrieve information more readily and come up with more alternatives solutions to a problem. There was a recognized downside to group problem solving in that it takes groups more time to come to a decision and requires that people make compromises with each other. However, it was not until the research of Janis appeared that anyone really considered that a highly cohesive group could impair the group's

ability to generate quality decisions. Tightly-knit groups may appear to make decisions better because they can come to a consensus quickly and at a low energy cost; however, over time this process of decision making may decrease the members' ability to think critically. It is, therefore, considered by many to be important to combat the effects of groupthink.

According to Janis, decision making groups are not necessarily destined to groupthink. He devised ways of preventing groupthink::209–215

Leaders should assign each member the role of "critical evaluator". This allows each member to freely air objections and doubts.

Leaders should not express an opinion when assigning a task to a group.

Leaders should absent themselves from many of the group meetings to avoid excessively influencing the outcome.

The organization should set up several independent groups, working on the same problem.

All effective alternatives should be examined.

Each member should discuss the group's ideas with trusted people outside of the group.

The group should invite outside experts into meetings. Group members should be allowed to discuss with and question the outside experts.

At least one group member should be assigned the role of Devil's advocate. This should be a different person for each meeting.

By following these guidelines, groupthink can be avoided. After the Bay of Pigs invasion fiasco, President John F. Kennedy sought to avoid groupthink during the Cuban Missile Crisis using "vigilant appraisal.":148–153 During meetings, he invited outside experts to share their viewpoints, and allowed group members to question them carefully. He also encouraged group members to discuss possible solutions with trusted members within their separate departments, and he even divided the group up into various sub-groups, to partially break the group cohesion. Kennedy was deliberately absent from the meetings, so as to avoid pressing his own opinion.

Empirical findings and meta-analysis

It has been incredibly difficult to test groupthink in the laboratory because it removes groups from real social situations, which changes the variables conducive or inhibitive to groupthink. Because of its subjectivity, researchers have struggled to measure groupthink as a complete phenomenon. Instead, they often opt to measure particular factors of the groupthink phenomenon. These factors range from causal to effectual and focus on group and situational aspects

Park (1990) found that "only 16 empirical studies have been published on groupthink," and concluded that they "resulted in only partial support of his [Janis's] hypotheses"Park concludes, "despite Janis' claim that group cohesiveness is the major necessary antecedent factor, no research has showed a significant main effect of cohesiveness on groupthink." Park also concludes that research on the interaction between group cohesiveness and leadership style does not support Janis' claim that cohesion and leadership style interact to produce groupthink symptoms. Park presents a summary of the results of the studies analyzed. According to Park, a study by Huseman and Drive (1979) indicates groupthink occurs in both small and large decision making groups within businesses.This results partly from group isolation within the business. Manz and Sims (1982) conducted a study showing that autonomous work groups are susceptible to groupthink symptoms in the same manner as decisions making groups within businesses Fodor and Smith (1982) produced a study revealing that group leaders with high power motivation create atmospheres more susceptible to groupthink.Leaders with high power motivation possess characteristics similar to leaders with a "closed" leadership style—an unwillingness to respect dissenting opinion. The same study indicates that level of group cohesiveness is insignificant in predicting groupthink occurrence. Park summarizes a study performed by Callaway, Marriot, and Esser (1985) in which groups with highly dominant members "made higher quality decisions, exhibited lowered state of anxiety, took more time to reach a decision, and made more statements of disagreement/agreement." Overall, groups with highly dominant members expressed characteristics inhibitory to groupthink. If highly dominant members are considered equivalent to leaders with high power motivation, the results of Callaway, Marriot, and Esser contradict the results of Fodor and Smith. A study by Leana (1985) indicates the interaction between level of group cohesion and leadership style is completely insignificant in predicting groupthink. This finding refutes Janis' claim that the factors of cohesion and leadership style interact to produce groupthink. Park summarizes a study by

McCauley (1989) in which structural conditions of the group were found to predict groupthink while situational conditions did not The structural conditions included group insulation, group homogeneity, and promotional leadership. The situational conditions included group cohesion. These findings refute Janis' claim about group cohesiveness predicting groupthink.

Overall, studies on groupthink have largely focused on the factors (antecedents) that predict groupthink. Groupthink occurrence is often measured by number of ideas/solutions generated within a group, but there is no uniform, concrete standard by which researchers can objectively conclude groupthink occurs. The studies of groupthink and groupthink antecedents reveal a mixed body of results. Some studies indicate group cohesion and leadership style to be powerfully predictive of groupthink, while other studies indicate the insignificance of these factors. Group homogeneity and group insulation are generally supported as factors predictive of groupthink.

Politics and military

Groupthink can have a strong hold on political decisions and military operations, which may result in enormous wastage of human and material resources. Highly qualified and experienced politicians and military commanders sometimes make very poor decisions when in a suboptimal group setting. Scholars such as Janis and Raven attribute political and military fiascoes, such as the Bay of Pigs Invasion, Vietnam War, and the Watergate scandal, to the effect of groupthink. More recently, Dina Badie argued that groupthink was largely responsible for the shift in the U.S. administration's view on Saddam Hussein that eventually led to the 2003 invasion of Iraq by the United States. After 9/11, "stress, promotional leadership, and intergroup conflict" were all factors that gave rise to the occurrence of groupthink.:283 Political case studies of groupthink serve to illustrate the impact that the occurrence of groupthink can have in today's political scene.

Bay of Pigs invasion and the Cuban Missile Crisis

The United States Bay of Pigs Invasion of April 1961 was the primary case study that Janis used to formulate his theory of groupthink. The invasion plan was initiated by the Eisenhower administration, but when the Kennedy White House took over, it "uncritically accepted" the CIA's plan.:44 When some people, such as Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr. and Senator J. William Fulbright, attempted to present their objections to the plan, the Kennedy team as a whole ignored

these objections and kept believing in the morality of their plan.:46 Eventually Schlesinger minimized his own doubts, performing self-censorship.:74 The Kennedy team stereotyped Castro and the Cubans by failing to question the CIA about its many false assumptions, including the ineffectiveness of Castro's air force, the weakness of Castro's army, and the inability of Castro to quell internal uprisings.:46

Janis claimed the fiasco that ensued could have been prevented if the Kennedy administration had followed the methods to preventing groupthink adopted during the Cuban Missile Crisis of October 1962. In the latter crisis, essentially the same political leaders were involved in decision-making, but this time they learned from their previous mistake of seriously under-rating their opponents.:76

Pearl Harbor

The attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941 is a prime example of groupthink. A number of factors such as shared illusions and rationalizations contributed to the lack of precaution taken by Naval officers based in Hawaii. The United States had intercepted Japanese messages and they discovered that Japan was arming itself for an offensive attack somewhere in the Pacific. Washington took action by warning officers stationed at Pearl Harbor, but their warning was not taken seriously. They assumed that Japan was taking measures in the event that their embassies and consulates in enemy territories were usurped.

The Navy and Army in Pearl Harbor also shared rationalizations about why an attack was unlikely. Some of them included::83,85

"The Japanese would never dare attempt a full-scale surprise assault against Hawaii because they would realize that it would precipitate an all-out war, which the United States would surely win."

"The Pacific Fleet concentrated at Pearl Harbor was a major deterrent against air or naval attack."

"Even if the Japanese were foolhardy to send their carriers to attack us [the United States], we could certainly detect and destroy them in plenty of time."

"No warships anchored in the shallow water of Pearl Harbor could ever be sunk by torpedo bombs launched from enemy aircraft."

Corporate world

Swissair's collapse

In the corporate world, ineffective and suboptimal group decision-making can negatively affect the health of a company and cause a considerable amount of monetary loss. Aaron Hermann and Hussain Rammal illustrate the detrimental role of groupthink in the collapse of Swissair, a Swiss airline company that was thought to be so financially stable that it earned the title the "Flying Bank" The authors argue that, among other factors, Swissair carried two symptoms of groupthink: the belief that the group is invulnerable and the belief in the morality of the group. In addition, before the fiasco, the size of the company board was reduced, subsequently eliminating industrial expertise. This may have further increased the likelihood of groupthink. With the board members lacking expertise in the field and having somewhat similar background, norms, and values, the pressure to conform may have become more prominent. This phenomenon is called group homogeneity, which is an antecedent to groupthink. Together, these conditions may have contributed to the poor decision-making process that eventually led to Swissair's collapse.

Marks & Spencer and British Airways

Another example of groupthink from the corporate world is illustrated in the UK based companies, Marks & Spencer and British Airways. The negative impact of groupthink took place during the 1990s as both companies released globalization expansion strategies. Researcher Jack Eaton's content analysis of media press releases revealed that all eight symptoms of groupthink were present during this period. The most predominent symptom of groupthink was the illusion of invulnerability as both companies underestimated potential failure due to years of profitability and success during challenging markets. Up until the consequence of groupthink erupted they were considered blue chips and darlings of the British Stock Exchange. During 1998 - 1999 the price of Marks & Spencer shares fell from 590 to less than 300 and that of British Airways from 740 to 300. Both companies had already featured prominently in the UK press and media for more positive reasons, to do with national pride in their undoubted sectoral performance."

Sports

Recent literature of groupthink attempts to study the application of this concept beyond the framework of business and politics. One particularly relevant and popular arena in which groupthink is rarely studied is sports. The lack of literature in this area prompted Charles Koerber and Christopher Neck to begin a case-study investigation that examined the effect of groupthink on the decision of the Major League Umpires Association (MLUA) to stage a mass resignation in 1999. The decision was a failed attempt to gain a stronger negotiating stance against Major League Baseball.:21 Koerber and Neck suggest that three groupthink symptoms can be found in the decision-making process of the MLUA. First, the umpires overestimated the power that they had over the baseball league and the strength of their group's resolve. The union also exhibited some degree of closed-mindedness with the notion that MLB is the enemy. Lastly, there was the presence of self-censorship; some umpires who disagreed with the decision to resign failed to voice their dissent.:25 These factors, along with other decision-making defects, led to a decision that was suboptimal and ineffective.

Recent developments

Ubiquity model

Researcher Robert Baron (2005) contends that the connection between certain antecedents Janis believed necessary have not been demonstrated by the current collective body of research on groupthink. He believes that Janis' antecedents for groupthink is incorrect and argues that not only are they "not necessary to provoke the symptoms of groupthink, but that they often will not even amplify such symptoms." As an alternative to Janis' model, Baron proposes a ubiquity model of groupthink. This model provides a revised set of antecedents for groupthink, including social identification, salient norms, and low self-efficacy.

General group problem-solving (GGPS) model

Aldag and Fuller (1993) argue that the groupthink concept was based on a "small and relatively restricted sample" that became too broadly generalized. Furthermore, the concept is too rigidly staged and deterministic. Empirical support for it has also not been consistent. The authors compare groupthink model to findings presented by Maslow and Piaget; they argue that, in each

case, the model incites great interest and further research that, subsequently, invalidate the original concept. Aldag and Fuller thus suggest a new model called the general group problem-solving (GGPS) model, which integrates new findings from groupthink literature and alters aspects of groupthink itself. The primary difference between the GGPS model and groupthink is that the former is more value neutral and political oriented.

Reexamination

Other scholars attempt to assess the merit of groupthink by reexamining case studies that Janis had originally used to buttress his model. Roderick Kramer (1998) believed that, because scholars today have a more sophisticated set of ideas about the general decision-making process and because new and relevant information about the fiascos have surfaced over the years, a reexamination of the case studies is appropriate and necessary. He argues that new evidence does not support Janis' view that groupthink was largely responsible for President Kennedy's and President Johnson's decisions in the Bay of Pigs Invasion and U.S. escalated military involvement in the Vietnam War, respectively. Both presidents sought the advice of experts outside of their political groups more than Janis suggested. Kramer also argues that the presidents were the final decision-makers of the fiascos; while determining which course of action to take, they relied more heavily on their own construals of the situations than on any group-consenting decision presented to them.:241 Kramer concludes that Janis' explanation of the two military issues is flawed and that groupthink has much less influence on group decision-making than is popularly believed to be.

Reformulation

Whyte (1998) suggests that collective efficacy plays a large role in groupthink because it causes groups to become less vigilant and to favor risks, two particular factors that characterize groups affected by groupthink. McCauley recasts aspects of groupthink's preconditions by arguing that the level of attractiveness of group members is the most prominent factor in causing poor decision-making. The results of Turner's and Pratkanis' (1991) study on social identity maintenance perspective and groupthink conclude that groupthink can be viewed as a "collective effort directed at warding off potentially negative views of the group." Together, the

contributions of these scholars have brought about new understandings of groupthink that help reformulate Janis' original model.

Sociocognitive theory

According to a new theory many of the basic characteristics of groupthink - e.g., strong cohesion, indulgent atmosphere, and exclusive ethos - are the result of a special kind of mnemonic encoding (Tsoukalas, 2007). Members of tightly knit groups have a tendency to represent significant aspects of their community as episodic memories and this has a predictable influence on their group behavior and collective ideology.

CHAPTER 10

ORGANIZATION EFFECTIVENESS

Concept

Some time ago, a colleague of mine was comparing information about "Which institution would you say is more effective, Oxford or IIM?".When viewed objectively it is clear this question can't be answered in a meaningful way as the answer depends much on the criteria the evaluator has selected. Where the choice of criteria places boundaries around the concept of effectiveness and gives a specific relevant a more symbolic representation that it should carry (relevant here means a value, rational judgment, relationship).

This same question "Which is more effective, organization A or organization B?", lies in the centre of research on organization because here we are talking in terms of organizations not institutions as in the previous case as such, but it's a state of dilemma again as it is a choice of criteria that places boundaries around the concept of effectiveness and gives a specific relevant a more symbolic representation that it should carry along with it.

Such sort of questions causes a lot of problems for researchers than for practitioners. As practitioners have construed a different meaning to the best when talked in "effectiveness" while researchers are busy in discovering the more pronounced cause for such difficulty in addressing the term "effectiveness" universally for all domains irrespective of expertise.

As practitioners have construed a different meaning to the best when talked in "effectiveness" because practitioners belong from various domains say finance, HR, marketing , R&D as so on ,where their observation on such issue of the best in context varies from their expertise , experiences and general observation that they had learnt by now.

When asked by a finance practitioner to address so called effectiveness, the best called element in organization, they may value it on their general observation based on "the return of investment" that they have leant from their expertise , experiences and general observation by now.

When asked by an HR practitioner to address so called effectiveness, the best called element in organization, they may value it on their general observation based on "employee satisfaction ,low absenteeism, minimum disputes ,organizational harmony employees

commitment ” that they have leant from their expertise , experiences and general observation by now.

When asked by a marketing practitioner to address so called effectiveness, the best called element in organization, they may value it on their general observation based on “responsiveness of product in product line ,customer satisfaction ,market demand , organizational price competitiveness ,marketing strategy of penetration ” that they have leant from their expertise , experiences and general observation by now.

When asked by an R & D practitioner to address so called effectiveness, the best called element in organization, they may value it on their general observation based on “introductions and developments of products ,specific innovations ,aligning innovations to customize products for consumers and adaptability of technology for supporting research and development of products and developing products prototypes ” that they have leant from their expertise , experiences and general observation by now.

By studying such examples it becomes tough to actually address such component of good that determines the effectiveness of organization .At this point it becomes important how much effectiveness is important to address organization in its true form of performance(here performance means either good or bad).

A major challenge for organizational evaluation, therefore Is to discover the most useful lines for distinguishing between effective and ineffective organizations.

Many people, however, define effectiveness in terms of single evaluation criteria for instance-

1. Effectiveness could be defined as the degree to which organization realizes its goals.
2. Effectiveness of an organization can be seen in terms of survival of the organization.

3. Organizational effectiveness is the extent to which an organization, given certain resources and means, achieves its objectives without placing undue strain on its members.
4. Effectiveness is the ability of an organization to mobilize its centres of power for action production and adaptation.

Similarly some researchers like John. P. Campbell has reviewed as many as 30 different criteria for measuring effectiveness. It is true that al 30 cannot be relevant to every organization but certainly some must be more important than others.

So as R .M.Steers has reviewed 17 different approaches of assessing OE and found a general absence of agreement among them. There were four top ranking criteria in his study are adaptability –flexibility, productivity, job satisfaction and profitability. Most surprisingly,"survival" and growth are least important factors in his study.

Steers reached the conclusion that there is a little agreement among analysts concerning what criteria should be used to assess the current levels of effectiveness.

And finally it was concluded with the studies that-

1. Effectiveness is not one –dimensional concept that can be precisely measured by single, clear –cut criteria.
2. Effectiveness is a matte of degree. Effectiveness is a label to which an organization has performed according to its capacities, potentials, and general goals.

Introduction

Organizational effectiveness, also called as organizational success or growth, is defined and conceptualized in different ways, and no unanimity is found in different approaches. Though a large volume of literature is available on the concept and working of organizational effectiveness, there is often contradiction in various approaches. The various approaches are judgmental and open to question. Thus, various terms such as efficiency, productivity, profitability, organizational growth, are often used interchangeably, to denote organizational effectiveness.

Definitions (derived from the concept head of this article)

"Effectiveness may be defined as the degree to which an organization realizes its goals."

"Effectiveness of an organization can be seen in terms of the survival of the organization."

"An organizational remains effective as long as it uses its resources in an efficient manner and continues to contribute to the large system."

Compbell, who has done considerable research or organizational effectiveness (abbreviated as OE), has reviewed various studies and conceptual framework on OE and found that thirty criteria have been used to measure OE. Based on these reviews, he arrived at the conclusion that:

"Since an organization can be effective or ineffective on a number of different facets that may be relatively independent of one another, OE has no operational definitions."

In spite of these problems in defining OE and identifying criterion against which the degree of OE may be measured, organizations are classified as effective or ineffective on the basis of some criteria under references.

In organizational effectiveness research, there is little consensus emerged, either theoretically or empirically, as to what constitutes organizational effectiveness and how best to measure it. **Robbins** asserts that effectiveness, like beauty, is in the eye of the beholder. Different groups (Stakeholders) judge organizations by different criteria.

According to **Etzioni** organizational effectiveness is the degree to which an organization realizes its goals. Etzioni considers "organizational effectivess" another name for "goal achivement".

Daft defines three contingency approaches to the measurement of organizational effectiveness:

1- Resource based approach assesses effectiveness by observing the beginning of the process and evaluating whether the organization effectively obtains resources necessary for high performance. Organizational effectiveness is defined as the ability of the organization to obtain scarce and valued resources. Ex: Low cost inputs, high quality raw materials. (In many not-for-profit organizations it is hard to measure output goals or internal efficiency.)

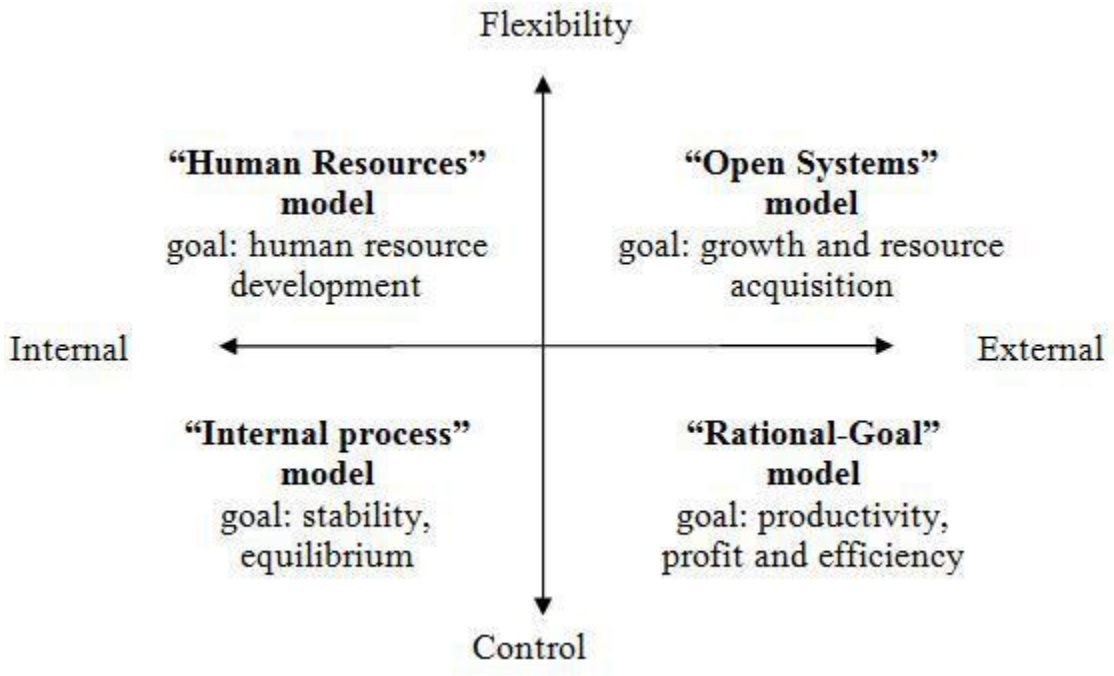
2- Internal process approach looks at the internal activities. Organizational effectiveness is measured as internal organizational health and efficiency. Ex: strong corporate culture.

3- Goal approach is concerned with the output side and whether the organization achieves its goals in terms of desired levels of output. Since organizations have multiple and conflicting goals, effectiveness cannot be assessed by a single indicator. Ex: operative goals.

The "**Competing Values Framework**" of **Quinn and Rohrbaugh** (1983) is a theory derived from research conducted on major indicators of effective organizations. Based on statistical analyses of a comprehensive list of effectiveness indicators, they discovered two major dimensions underlying the conceptions of effectiveness.

First dimension is related to organizational focus. Internal emphasis is on the well being and development of the people in the organization. External emphasis is on the well being and development of the organization itself with respect to its environment.

Second dimension is related to preference for structure and represents the contrast between "stability and control" and "change and flexibility".



1. Human Resources model emphasizes flexibility and internal focus and stresses cohesion, morale, and human resources development as criteria for effectiveness

2. Open Systems model emphasizes flexibility and external focus and stresses readiness, growth, resource acquisition and external support
3. Rational goal model emphasizes control and external focus and stresses planning, goal setting, productivity, efficiency as the criteria for effectiveness
4. Internal process model emphasizes control and internal focus and stresses role of information management, communication, stability and control

EFFECTIVENESS	**EFICIENCY**
Effectiveness on the other hand, is producing the desired results in a particular thing.	Efficiency and effectiveness are inter-related; however, efficiency is doing something well at a very minimal time without that is being capable of doing something very skillfully without mistakes.
Effectiveness- Focus areas that brought about the end result. Good Quality process ensures effectiveness.	Efficiency- Input / Output on a time window. (No of test cases executed versus no of test cases planned to be executed). Right skills is one of the factors for efficiency.
Effectiveness -concerned about the ends	Efficiency-concerned about the means
Effectiveness = outcome (customers who are satisfied with the answers received)	Efficiency = output (number of customer service calls taken per hour)
Effectiveness is a quality metrics meaning how good a person is at testing. Hence Testing effectiveness metrics can be "No. of bugs identified by a tester in a	Efficiency is a productivity metrics meaning how fast one can do something. Hence Testing efficiency metric can be "No. of test cases executed per hour or per person day". This explains how efficient (i.e. fast)

given feature / Total no. of bugs identified in that feature". Here the difference between total bugs and bugs identified by the tester could be that some bugs must have been uncovered by the customer since the tester was not able to detect them during testing.	the person is at testing.
Effectiveness; is to do something well	Efficiency is to do something with a least possible means
Effectiveness means to accomplish a task according to its requirements with successful expected results.	Efficiency is to accomplish this task in best possible way.
Effectiveness means. To get the best quality product	Efficiency means save time , money and effort
Effectiveness : Input /Output * Time	Efficiency means Input /Output
Effectiveness is concerned with the relationship between planned outputs and actual outputs.	Efficiency is concerned with the relationship between planned processes and actual processes; and
Effectiveness is a measure of completeness of a product / service	Efficiency is a measure of correctness of a product / service..
Effectiveness is how well the job gets done , focus on quality	Efficiency is to save money, time & efforts regardless quality
Effectiveness on Output	Efficiency is focused on Process
Effectiveness to people. Effectiveness seems to be related to achieving results	Efficiency to systems and processes and. However, efficiency as the output/input ratio.

(desired effects) regardless of how efficient or inefficient the involved system(s)/process(es) is or are	
Effectiveness concerns about the 'ends'	Efficiency concerns about the 'means'
Effectiveness= System Size/No of defects found by testing	Efficiency= No of test cases executed/Total number test cases
Effectiveness means being able to achieve a set goal	Efficiency is achieving the goals with minimum resources
Effectiveness.....Do the right things	Efficiency.....Do the things right
effectiveness means that the more attention is on output quality, to satisfy the consumers need .	efficiency means the more attention is on output quantity, to be produced in less resources
Effectiveness refers to the quality.	Efficiency quantity or speed.

Efficiency and Effectiveness

Another aspect which creates problem in defining OE precisely is the use of two terms – efficiency and effectiveness. Both these terms are used quite closely and sometimes even interchangeably, though both these terms denote different state of affairs. For example, Barnard has viewed that:

"Organizational effectiveness is the degree to which operative goals have been attained while the concept of efficiency represents the cost/benefit rate incurred in the pursuit of these goals."

Thus, effectiveness is related to goals which are externally focused. Efficiency is used in engineering way and it refers to the relationship between input and output. This denotes how much inputs have been used to produce certain amount of outputs. It is not necessary that both go together always. For example, Barnard says, "When unsought consequences are trivial, or insignificant, effective action is efficient when unsought consequences are not trivial, effective action may be inefficient". There may be three types of situations:

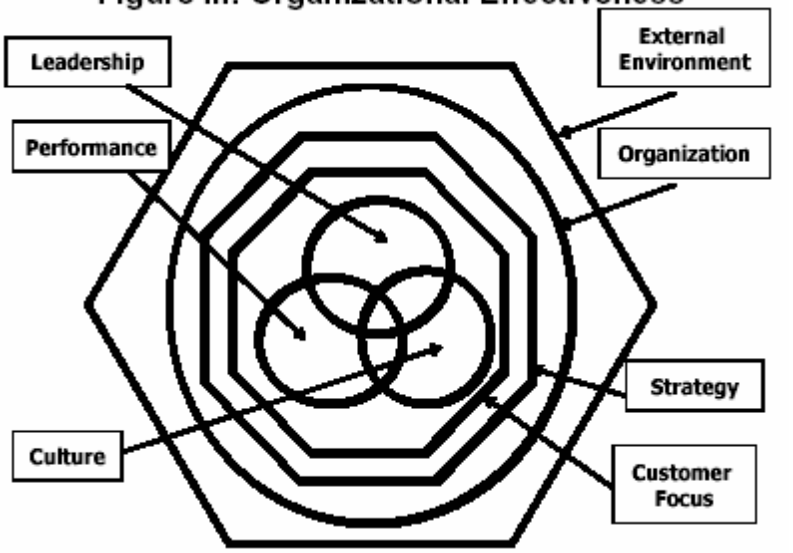
1. An organization may be efficient but may not be effective.
2. An organization may be effective but may not be efficient.
3. An organization may be both efficient and effective.

In the first situation, the organization may be efficient but it may not be effective because efficiency refers to internal conversion processes whereas effectiveness reflects external phenomenon. For example, the organization may be low-cost producing (efficient) but it may fail to realize matching price for its products. The result is that the organization is incurring loss (ineffective) in spite of it being efficient. This happens when the product is in declining state of its life cycle.

In the second situation, an organization may be effective at a point of time without being efficient. It may not be efficient but because of the external environment, it may earn profit and show effectiveness. For example, in Indian business scenario, many inefficient organizations in some industries like mini steel, mini cement, soya extraction industries made huge profit but later on, when the situation changed, these organizations became extinct.

In the third situation, organizations may be efficient and effective both at the same time. Many types of organizations may fall under this category, and this is the situation which is required for the long-term survival of organizations. It is in this situation that people tend to use efficiency and effectiveness interchangeably.

Figure III: Organizational Effectiveness



APPROACHES TO ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Approaches to Measure Effectiveness

We have seen that organizational effectiveness is defined in different ways and that each way provides a particular criterion or a set of criteria which may be even contradictory. However, it does not mean that organizational effectiveness should not be measured. It has to be measured. It must be measured because of two reasons. First, those who are responsible for the management of organizations should know whether their organization is doing thing rightly. If not what additional efforts are required, second, an organization is a means for satisfying the needs of people in the society and the satisfaction of such needs is directly linked to organizational effectiveness, as we have seen earlier. Because of these reasons, certain approaches have been developed for measuring effectiveness. A particular approach measures effectiveness in some context and therefore, it lacks universality. This phenomenon is true for any principle of management. Therefore, while adopting a particular approach in measuring effectiveness, its inherent limitations should be taken into account. There are four types of approaches which are commonly used for effectiveness measurement:

1. Goal approach

2. Behavioural approach
3. System-resource approach
4. Strategic constituencies approach

Goal Approach

The goal approach, which itself has taken many forms, is most widely used by organization theorists. Some have adopted it only as a part of a broader perspective of organizations; others have employed it as a major tool in their study of organizations. In studying effectiveness in terms of goal-achievement, theorists tend, implicitly or explicitly, to make two assumptions:

1. That complex organizations have an ultimate goal toward which they are striving, and
2. That the ultimate goal can be identified empirically and progress toward it can be measured.

In fact, the orientation to a specific goal is taken by many as the defining characteristic of organizations. Goal approach defines effectiveness as "profit maximization", providing an efficient service, high productivity, good employee morale etc., Campbell has suggested several variables which can be used in measuring organizational effectiveness. He includes in his list such items as quality, productivity, readiness, efficiency, profit or return, utilization of environment stability, turnover or retention, accidents, morale, motivation, satisfaction internalization of organizational goals, conflict cohesion, flexibility adaptation and evaluation by external entities. Thus, many criteria for organizational effectiveness based on goals have been proposed. However, none of the single criteria has proved to be entirely satisfactory as the sole or universal measurement of effectiveness.

Another approach in goal method is to measure organizational effectiveness on the basis of multiple criteria. The idea is that managers in the organization follow many goals simultaneously and the fulfillment of these goals may be taken as the basis for organizational effectiveness. When goal approach is taken as the basis of measuring effectiveness, the degree of goal achievement may be compared for the same organization over a period of time, say ten years or so, or it may be compared with other organization at a particular point of time.

1. GOAL MODEL/ THE GOAL ATTAINMENT APPROACH

Context.

This is the first and most widely used approach that defines effectiveness in terms of how well an organization accomplishes its goals.

It focuses on output of an organization –that is the closer the organization output comes to meeting its goals, the more effective it is.

Usefulness

When organizational goals are clear, consensual and measurable, as with a professional athletic team whose goal is to win games.

Assumptions

a) Organizations have ultimate goals.

b) The goals of the organization are well defined and properly understood by all the members of organization.

c) There must be general consensus on these goals.

d) The goals must be few enough to be manageable.

e) Progress toward these goals must be measurable.

Exceptions / Limitations

However none of these models is appropriate in all circumstances and with all types of organizations. One problem with the goal approach, for example, is that some organizations may be effective in areas that don't coincide with their goals

For example: The National Aeronautics and space administration (NASA) was very effective in the 1960s in producing useful consumer goods (an area in which no goals existed) as well as its mandated goal to reach the moon. It was only after that men landed on the moon and public criticism of the NASA program began to intensify that NASA used its previous contributions to consumer products as a criterion of success.

For example: The Nestle company ,whose explicit goal was to provide nutritional aid to infants in Third World nations ,became so effective at replacing mothers milk with baby formula that the company is being boycotted because it is viewed as being a perpetrator of widespread malnutrition and starvation in underdeveloped countries.

Another problem with the goal approach is that if the goals are too low, misplaced, or harmful, an organization can be ineffective even though it reaches those goals.

For example: Boise Cascade-one of the largest, fastest growing corporations in America in the late 1960s –set a 20 percent growth in earnings per share per year as its major goal. the firm reached and even surpassed that goal for 12 consecutive years until 1971.In order to reach the goal however ,the firm had developed a form of operation that involved taking on risky projects that ignored certain environmental groups—a policy that brought bankruptcy and forced financial reorganization in 1972.

SYSTEMS APPROACH TO ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Context

Second approach of effectiveness is the system resource approach.under this approach an organizations effectiveness is judged on the extent to which it acquires needed resources- that is ,the more of the needed resources an organization can obtain from its environment the more will be its effectiveness.

Here organizational inputs designed to achieve a competitive advantage in the market place replaces the emphasis on output in the goal model.

Usefulness

When there is a clear connection between resources received by the organization and what it produces (an organization that simply gathers resources and stores them is not effective)

Example: The more savings account customers and borrows a saving bang bank can obtain more profitable it can be.

Limitations

1. Flexibility of response to environment and such qualitative variables defy appropriate measurement.

2. A second negative point of systems approach is that the focus of systems approach is on means rather than ends.

3. Similarly the systems resource approach is not universally applicable in evaluating effectiveness.

For example an organization is effective even when it does not posses a competitive advantage in the marker place or when the most desirable resources are not attained .The “no name” Seattle Supersonics did not succeed in attracting superstars to their basket ball team in 1977 and 1978, yet even with a rookie coach and no standout stars the team reached the National Basketball Association finals in 1978 and 1979.

4. An organization may also be effective if it has acquired optimal resources and is highly competitive in marketplace.

These are those firms that have become so successful in a particular market or domain for example, that they have lost their ability to change. Several Swiss watch making firms provides a case in this point. They become the most highly effective firms in their industry in their world because of their fine jeweled, hand crafted watches. Then the micro circuit and digital revolution caught them so resource rich in this one market that they found it almost impossible to switch domains. Their effectiveness in the new, lower priced, digital watch industry is consequently very low.

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