

Organisational Development and Change

**MBA Second Year
(Human Resource Management)**

**School of Distance Education
Bharathiar University, Coimbatore - 641 046**

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ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE

SYLLABUS

UNIT I

OD - definition - history of OD - values, assumptions and beliefs in OD. OD - overview - foundations of OD - models and theories - systems theory participation and empowerment - teams and team work - parallel learning structures.

UNIT II

OD - interventions - classifications: teams interventions - inter group and third party peace making interventions - comprehensive OD interventions. Theory and Practice on change and changing; The Nature of Planned Change; The Nature of Client Systems: Group Dynamics, Inter group Dynamics and Organisations as Systems.

UNIT III

Managing the OD process - action research: a process and approach - history and varieties of action research. Operational Components of OD: Diagnostic, Action and Process - Maintenance Components.

UNIT IV

Implementation and Assessment of OD. Implementation conditions for failure and success in OD efforts; Assessment of OD and change in organizational performance; The impact of OD Structure interventions and applicability of OD - training experiences - T-groups - behavioral modeling - life and career planning - coaching and mentoring - instrumental training.

UNIT V

Power, Politics and OD - research on OD - future and OD. Some key considerations and issues in OD: Issues in consultant - client relationship; Mechanistic & Organic systems and contingency approach; The failure of OD.

UNIT I

LESSON

1

ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Aims and Objectives
- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Definitions of Organisation Development
- 1.3 Analysis of the Definitions
- 1.4 Characteristics of OD
- 1.5 History of Organisation Development
 - 1.5.1 Early Development
 - 1.5.2 Modern Development-Second Generation OD
- 1.6 Values, Assumptions and Beliefs in OD
 - 1.6.1 OD Assumptions
 - 1.6.2 Values of OD
- 1.7 Implications of OD Values and Assumptions
 - 1.7.1 Implication for Dealing with Individuals
 - 1.7.2 Implications for Dealing with Groups
 - 1.7.3 Implications for Dealing with Organisations
- 1.8 Let us Sum up
- 1.9 Lesson End Activity
- 1.10 Keywords
- 1.11 Questions for Discussion
- 1.12 Suggested Readings

1.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- The concept of organisational development
- An overview of OD, its history-covering the early and the modern developments of the concept of OD
- The values, assumptions and beliefs in OD

1.1 INTRODUCTION

“Everybody has accepted by now that change is unavoidable. But that still implies that change is like death and taxes—it should be postponed as long as possible and no change would be vastly preferable. But in a period of upheaval, such as the one we are living in, change is the norm.”—Peter Ducker, *Management Challenges for the 21st Century*.

Organisational Development (OD) comprises of a special set of organisational change methods. It is a planned, systematic process of organisational change based on behavioral science research and theory. The goal of OD is to create adaptive organisations capable of transforming and reinvesting themselves so as to remain effective. OD draws from psychology, sociology and anthropology. It is based on many well established principles regarding the behavior of individuals and groups in the organisations.

What was earlier popularly known as Organisation Development (OD) is currently christened as Organisational Change and Development (OCD), though such label is widely used in the academic institutions, primarily to focus on the changes the organisations are expected to embrace and their role as “drivers of change.”

The field of OCD emerged as an independent discipline in the late 1950s. Taking “insights from group dynamics and the theory and practice of planned change,” it has grown as an applied behavioral science used effectively to solve the critical problems confronting the various facets and dynamics which are both internal and external to organisations today.

OD involves organisational reflection, system improvement, planning, and self-analysis. In other words it is the planned change to a company to enable growth (or change) in an effective way Relative to consulting.

At the core of OD is the concept of an organisation, defined as two or more people working together toward one or more shared goals. Development in this context is the notion that an organisation may become more effective over time at achieving its goals.

OD is a long range effort to improve organisation’s problem solving and renewal processes, particularly through more effective and collaborative management of organisational culture, often with the assistance of a change agent or catalyst and the use of the theory and technology of applied behavioral science.

1.2 DEFINITIONS OF ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT

Organisation development is a system-wide application of behavioral science knowledge to the planned development and reinforcement of organisational strategies, structures, and processes for improving an organisation’s effectiveness. (Cummings and Worley, *Organisation Development and Change*, Sixth Edition, South-Western Publishing, 1997, p.2.)

- Organisation development, according to Richard Beckhard, is defined as:
 - a) A planned effort.
 - b) organisation-wide.
 - c) Managed from the top.
 - d) To increase organisation effectiveness and health.
 - e) Through planned interventions in the organisation’s ‘processes’, using behavioral science knowledge.
- According to Warren Bennis, Organisation Development (OD) is a complex strategy intended to change the beliefs, attitudes, values, and structure of organisations so that they can better adapt to new technologies, markets, and challenges.
- Warner Burke emphasizes that OD is not just “anything done to better an organisation”; it is a particular kind of change process designed to bring about a particular kind of end result.

- OD is a systematic application of behavioral science knowledge to the planned development and reinforcement of organisational strategies, structures and processes for improving an organisation's effectiveness. (Cummings and Worley, 1993)

1.3 ANALYSIS OF THE DEFINITIONS

The definitions so analyzed contain the elements which are important for OD. To summarize, here are the primary distinguishing characteristics of organisational developments:

1. OD focuses on culture and processes.
2. OD focuses on the human and social side of the organisation.
3. OD realize on the action research model with extensive participation by client system participation.
4. OD takes a developmental view that aims at the betterment of both individual and the organisation i.e., "win-win" solutions.
5. It encourages the involvement and participation by all the level of organisation in the problem solving and decision-making.

1.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF OD

1. ***OD is a long-term effort:*** which means that organisational change and development take long time in fact it is a never ending journey of continuous change for organisation effectiveness.
2. ***Supported by top management:*** The OD programmers seeks the serious attention and commitment from the top management for achieving it's objectives of improvements.
3. ***OD is a learning process:*** which means the process of interaction, listening and self examining which facilitates individual, team and organisational learning.
4. ***OD is visioning processes:*** which mean the organisation members develop a picture of the desired future that includes the humanistic approach to make that picture a reality.
5. ***OD is an empowerment process:*** which means those leadership behaviors and human resource practices that enable organisation members to develop and use their talents as fully as possible towards organisational growth and success.
6. ***Contractual Relationship:*** Although neither the sponsoring organisation nor the change agent can be sure at the outset of the exact nature of the problem or problems to be dealt with or how long the change agent's help will be needed, it is essential that some tentative agreement on these matters be reached. The sponsoring organisation needs to know generally what the change agent's preliminary plan is, what its own commitments are in relation to personal commitments and responsibility for the program, and what the change agent's fee will be. The change agent must assure himself that the organisation's, and particularly the top executives', commitment to change is strong enough to support the kind of self analysis and personal involvement requisite to success of the program. Recognizing the uncertainties lying ahead on both sides, a termination agreement permitting either side to withdraw at any time is usually included.
7. ***Change Agent:*** A change agent in the sense used here is not a technical expert skilled in such functional areas as accounting, production, or finance. He is a behavioral scientist who knows how to get people in an organisation involved in

solving their own problems. His main strength is a comprehensive knowledge of human behavior, supported by a number of intervention techniques. The change agent can be either external or internal to the organisation. An internal change agent is usually a staff person who has expertise in the behavioral sciences and in the intervention technology of OD. Beckhard reports several cases in which line people have been trained in OD and have returned to their organisations to engage in successful change assignments. In the natural evolution of change mechanisms in organisations, this would seem to approach the ideal arrangement. Qualified change agents can be found on some university faculties, or they may be private consultants associated with such organisations as the National Training Laboratories Institute for Applied Behavioral Science Washington, or University Associates (San Diego, California), and similar organisations.

The change agent may be a staff or line member of the organisation who is schooled in OD theory and technique. In such a case, the “contractual relationship” is an in-house agreement that should probably be explicit with respect to all of the conditions involved except the fee.

8. ***Sponsoring Organisation:*** The initiative for OD programs comes from an organisation that has a problem. This means that top management or someone authorized by top management is aware that a problem exists and has decided to seek help in solving it. There is a direct analogy here to the practice of psychotherapy: The client or patient must actively seek help in finding a solution to his problems. This indicates a willingness on the part of the client organisation to accept help and assures the organisation that management is actively concerned.
9. ***Applied Behavioral Science:*** One of the outstanding characteristics of OD that distinguishes it from most other improvement programs is that it is based on a “helping relationship.” The change agent is not a physician to the organisation’s ills; he does not examine the “patient,” make a diagnosis, and write a prescription. Nor does he try to teach organisational members a new inventory of knowledge which they then transfer to the job situation. Using theory and methods drawn from such behavioral sciences as psychology, sociology, communication, cultural anthropology, organisational behaviour economics, and political science, the change agent’s main function is to help the organisation define and solve its own problems. The basic method used is known as action research. This approach, which is described in detail later, consists of a preliminary diagnosis, collecting data, feedback of the data to the client, data exploration by the client group, action planning based on the data, and taking action.
10. ***System Context:*** OD deals with a total system — the organisation as a whole, including its relevant environment — or with a sub-system or systems — departments or work groups — in the context of the total system. Parts of systems, for example, individuals, cliques, structures, norms, values, and products are not considered in isolation; the principle of interdependency, that is, that change in one part of a system affects the other parts, is fully recognized. Thus, OD interventions focus on the total culture and cultural processes of organisations. The focus is also on groups, since the relevant behavior of individuals in organisations and groups is generally a product of group influences rather than personality.
11. ***Improved Organisational Performance:*** The objective of OD is to improve the organisation’s capacity to handle its internal and external functioning and relationships. This would include such things as improved interpersonal and group processes, more effective communication, enhanced ability to cope with organisational problems of all kinds, more effective decision processes, more appropriate leadership style, improved skill in dealing with destructive conflict,

and higher levels of trust and cooperation among organisational members. These objectives stem from a value system based on an optimistic view of the nature of man — that man in a supportive environment is capable of achieving higher levels of development and accomplishment. Also essential to organisation development and effectiveness is the scientific method — inquiry, a rigorous search for causes, experimental testing of hypotheses, and review of results. Finally, the democratic process is viewed as having a legitimate, and perhaps dominant, role in the highly effective organisation.

12. **Organisational Self Renewal:** The ultimate aim of the outside OD practitioner is to “work himself out of a job” by leaving the client organisation with a set of tools, behaviors, attitudes, and an action plan with which to monitor its own state of health and to take corrective steps toward its own renewal and development. This is consistent with the systems concept of feedback as a regulatory and corrective mechanism.

1.5 HISTORY OF ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT

1.5.1 Early Development

The history of organisation development is rich with the contributions of behavioral scientists and practitioners. Systematic organisation development activities have recent history.

Kurt Lewin played a key role in the evolution of organisation development as it is known today. As early as World War II, Lewin experimented with a collaborative change process (involving himself as consultant and a client group) based on a three-step process of planning, taking action, and measuring results. This was the forerunner of action research, an important element of OD, which will be discussed later. Lewin then participated in the beginnings of laboratory training, or T-Groups, and, after his death in 1947, his close associates helped to develop survey-research methods at the University of Michigan. These procedures became important parts of OD as developments in this field continued at the National Training Laboratories and in growing numbers of universities and private consulting firms across the country.

The failure of off-site laboratory training to live up to its early promise was one of the important forces stimulating the development of OD. Laboratory training is learning from a person’s “here and now” experience as a member of an ongoing training group. Such groups usually meet without a specific agenda. Their purpose is for the members to learn about themselves from their spontaneous “here and now” responses to an ambiguous hypothetical situation. Problems of leadership, structure, status, communication, and self-serving behavior typically arise in such a group. The members have an opportunity to learn something about themselves and to practice such skills as listening, observing others, and functioning as effective group members. As formerly practiced (and occasionally still practiced for special purposes), laboratory training was conducted in “stranger groups,” or groups composed of individuals from different organisations, situations, and backgrounds. A major difficulty developed, however, in transferring knowledge gained from these “stranger labs” to the actual situation “back home”. This required a transfer between two different cultures, the relatively safe and protected environment of the T-Group (or training group) and the give-and-take of the organisational environment with its traditional values. This led the early pioneers in this type of learning to begin to apply it to “family groups” — that is, groups located within an organisation. From this shift in the locale of the training site and the realization that culture was an important factor in influencing group members (along with some other developments in the behavioral sciences) emerged the concept of organisation development.

Systematic organisation development activities have a recent history and, to use the analogy of the mangrove tree, have at least four important trunk stems. They are as follows:

1. **Laboratory training stem:** Laboratory training began to develop about 1946 from various experiments. It is importantly involving unstructured small group situations in which participants learn from their own actions and the group's evolving dynamics. The major contributions to this concept were from behavioural scientists Kurt Lewin followed by experts Robert Tannebaum, Chris Argyris, Douglas Mc Gregor, Herbert Shepard, Robert Blake, Jane Mouton and Richard Beckhard.
2. **Survey research and feedback stem:** It is the second major stem in the history of Organisation development. It involves a specialised form of organisation research. The research was conducted for years by staff members at the Survey Research centre of the University of Michigan.

The effectiveness of these studies were more than the traditional training courses as it involved the system of human relationships as a whole and deals with each manager, supervisor, and employee in the context of his own job, his own problems, and his own work relationships.

The major contributors were Rensis Likert, Floyd Mann and others.

3. **Action research stem:** Action research is the third stem which is a collaborative, client consultant inquiry. The scholars and practitioners who have invented and utilized action research in the evolution of OD were William F. Whyte and Hamilton. Kurt Lewin also conducted several experiments in the mid 1940's and early 1950's. This approach, today is as one of the most important methods for OD interventions in organisations.
4. **Socio technical and socio-clinical stem:** This is the fourth stem in the history of OD to help groups and organisations. The major contributions were made by W.R Bion, John Richman, Eric Trist and others. The socio technical approach focussed on the non executive ranks of organisations and especially the redesign of work.

Check Your Progress 1

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. OD is a systematic application of behavioral science knowledge to the planned development and reinforcement of organisational strategies, structures and processes for improving an organisation's effectiveness.
2. Survey research is the stem of OD which is a collaborative, client consultant inquiry.

1.5.2 Modern Development-Second Generation OD

In recent years, serious questioning has emerged about the relevance of OD to managing change in modern organisations. The need for "reinventing" the field has become a topic that even some of its "founding fathers" are discussing critically. Since the environment is becoming turbulent the context of OD has dramatically changed throughout 1980's and 1990's. The second generation OD has focus on the Organisational Transformation, Organisation culture, Learning organisations, intensified interest in teams, Total Quality Management (TQM), Quality of work life etc.

1.6 VALUES, ASSUMPTIONS AND BELIEFS IN OD

A set of values, assumptions and beliefs constitutes an integral part of organisation development, shaping the goals and methods of the field and distinguishing OD from other improvement strategies. Let us define the terms values, beliefs and assumptions.

1. A belief is a proposition about how the world works that the individual accepts as true; it is a cognitive fact of the person.
2. Values are also beliefs and are defined as “Beliefs about what a desirable is or a good and what an undesirable is or a bad (e.g.; dishonesty).
3. Assumptions are beliefs that are regarded as so valuable and obviously correct that they are taken for granted and rarely examined or questioned.

1.6.1 OD Assumptions

- People react to how they are treated. (Better treatment results in better productivity.)
- Work must meet the individual’s needs and the organisation’s needs.
- Most people are motivated by challenging and meaningful work; not controls threats and punishment.
- Basic building blocks of the organisation are groups—therefore the units of change are groups.
- Organisations suppress feelings, but this also suppresses commitment.
- Groups that learn to work using open and constructive feedback become better able to be productive.
- People work best in supportive and trusting environments.
- Change is best implemented when people are part of the change process.

1.6.2 Values of OD

Values have always been an integral part of OD. The three important early statements regarding OD values that had major impact on the field given are as follows:

1. According to Warren Bennis OD practitioners or change agents share a set of normative goals based on their humanistic/democratic philosophy. He listed the normative goals as follows:
 - ❖ Improvement in interpersonal competence.
 - ❖ A shift in values so that human factors and feelings come to be considered legitimate.
 - ❖ Development of increased understanding between the working groups in organisations to reduce tensions.
 - ❖ Development of better methods of conflict resolution.
 - ❖ Development of organic rather than mechanical system.
2. According to Richard Beckhard emphasize on the values held by OD practitioners as follows:
 - ❖ The basic building blocks of the organisations are teams.
 - ❖ People affected by change should be allowed active participation and sense of ownership of the change.
3. According to Robert Tannebaum the important shifts in values was occurring and he listed these values in transition as follows:
 - ❖ Away from a view of people as essentially bad towards a view from people as basically good.
 - ❖ Away from avoidance of negative evaluation of individuals towards confirming them as human beings.
 - ❖ Away from avoidance of risk taking towards willingness to take risk.

These values and assumptions may not seem profound today, but in 1950's they represented a radical departure from accepted beliefs and assumptions.

1.7 IMPLICATIONS OF OD VALUES AND ASSUMPTIONS

The implications of OD values and assumptions may vary for dealing with individuals, groups and organisations.

1.7.1 Implication for Dealing with Individuals

It is based on the assumptions that most individuals have drives towards personal growth and development if provided a supportive and conducive environment.

1.7.2 Implications for Dealing with Groups

It is based on the assumptions that most people wish to be accepted and to interact with at least one small reference group and are capable of making greater contributions to a group effectiveness and development.

1.7.3 Implications for Dealing with Organisations

A key assumption in organisation development is then needs and aspirations of human beings are the reasons for organized efforts in the society. The belief is that people can grow and develop in terms of personal and organisational competency to produce the desired result.

The basic value of OD theory and practice is that of choice.

Learning is seen as an integral part of choice. Therefore, OD utilizes various strategies to intervene into the ongoing activities of the organisation in order to facilitate learning and to help the organisation (groups within it, as well as individuals who make up the groups) to be able to make better choices about alternative ways to proceed more effectively. Because choice is a fundamental value, OD works with the organisation to find out how the organisation wishes to proceed. OD is not prescriptive in its purest form. (Organisations in crisis often demand a more prescriptive approach and this is always a difficult decision for the OD practitioner to weigh).

Check Your Progress 2

Fill in the blanks:

1. is a planned approach to improve employee and organisational effectiveness by conscious intervention in those processes and structures that have an immediate bearing on the human aspect of the organisation.
2. A change agent is a who knows how to get people in an organisation involved in solving their own problem supported by a number of intervention techniques.

1.8 LET US SUM UP

Organisation development is a contractual relationship between a change agent and a sponsoring organisation entered into for the purpose of using applied behavioral science in a systems context to improve organisational performance and the capacity of the organisation to improve itself.

Organisation Development (OD) is one of the most significant developments in the field of organisational behavior in recent years. OD began to evolve as a distinct field of study in the 1940s when behavioral scientists in the US and Britain made efforts to resolve problems facing modern organisations. OD has been defined in different ways

by different behavioral scientists and applies the knowledge and practice of behavioral science to improve the effectiveness of organisations. OD has four prominent approaches: laboratory training, survey research and feedback, action research, and sociological and socio technical approaches.

The field of OD rests on foundation of values and assumptions about people and organisations. The beliefs help to define what OD is and guide its implementations. The OD values were considered revolutionary and are widely accepted today.

1.9 LESSON END ACTIVITY

Caselet

The Cambridge clinic found itself having difficulty with its internal working relationships. The medical director, concerned with the effect these problems could have on patient care, contacted an organisational consultant at a local university and asked him for help. A preliminary discussion among the director, the clinic administrator, and the consultant seemed to point to problems in leadership, conflict resolution, and decision processes. The consultant suggested that data be gathered so that a working diagnosis could be made. The clinic officials agreed, and tentative working arrangements were concluded.

The consultant held a series of interviews involving all members of the clinic staff, the medical director, and the administrator. Then the consultant “thematized”, or summarized, the interview data to identify specific problem areas. At the beginning of a workshop about a week later, the consultant fed back to the clinic staff the data he had collected.

The staff arranged the problems in the following priorities:

1. Role conflicts between certain members of the medical staff were creating tensions that interfered with the necessity for cooperation in handling patients.
2. The leadership style of the medical director resulted in his putting off decisions on important operating matters. This led to confusion and sometimes to inaction on the part of the medical and administrative staffs.
3. Communication between the administrative, medical, and outreach (social worker) staffs on mutual problems tended to be avoided. Open conflicts over policies and procedures were thus held in check, but suppressed feelings clearly had a negative influence on interpersonal and inter-group behavior.

Through the use of role analysis and other techniques suggested by the consultant, the clinic staff and the medical director were able to explore the role conflict and leadership problems and to devise effective ways of coping with them. Exercises designed to improve communication skills and a workshop session on dealing with conflict led to progress in developing more openness and trust throughout the clinic. An important result of this first workshop was the creation of an action plan that set forth specific steps to be applied to clinic problems by clinic personnel during the ensuing period. The consultant agreed to monitor these efforts and to assist in any way he could. Additional discussions and team development sessions were held with the director and the medical and administrative staffs.

A second workshop attended by the entire clinic staff took place about two months after the first. At the second workshop, the clinic staff continued to work together on the problems of dealing with conflict and interpersonal communication. During the last half-day of the meeting, the staff developed a revised action plan covering improvement activities to be undertaken in the following weeks and months to improve the working relationships of the clinic.

A notable additional benefit of this OD program was that the clinic staff learned new ways of monitoring the clinic's performance as an organisation and of coping with some of its other problems. Six months later, when the consultant did a follow-up check on the organisation, the staff confirmed that interpersonal problems were now under better control and that some of the techniques learned at the two workshops associated with the OD programs were still being used.

1.10 KEYWORDS

Organisation Development (OD): A planned approach to improve employee and organisational effectiveness.

Change Agent: A behavioral scientist who knows how to get people in an organisation involved in solving their own problems.

1.11 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Describe organisation development in terms of its characteristics as a valid tool for bringing about change within the organization.
2. Discuss briefly the history of OD.
3. Discuss the implications of values, assumptions and beliefs in OD.
4. Describe the role of change agent in the process of OD.

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

CYP 1

1. T, 2. F.

CYP 2

1. Organisational Development
2. Behavioural Scientist

1.12 SUGGESTED READINGS

French, Wendell L., & Cecil H. (1996), *Organisation Development: Behavioral Science Interventions for Organisation Improvement* (5th Edition), New Delhi, India: Prentice Hall of India.

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LESSON

2

FOUNDATIONS OF ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

- 2.0 Aims and Objectives
- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 OD Models of Planned Change
 - 2.2.1 Kurt Lewin Model
 - 2.2.2 Greiner's Model
 - 2.2.3 Burke-Litwin Model of Organisational Change
 - 2.2.4 Porras and Robertson Model of Organisational Change
 - 2.2.5 Leavitt's Model
- 2.3 System Theory of OD
 - 2.3.1 Nature of System
 - 2.3.2 Congruence among System Elements
 - 2.3.3 Socio-technical System Theory and Open System Planning
- 2.4 Open Systems Thinking
- 2.5 Participation and Empowerment
- 2.6 Let us Sum up
- 2.7 Lesson End Activity
- 2.8 Keywords
- 2.9 Questions for Discussion
- 2.10 Suggested Readings

2.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- The foundation of organisation development theory and practice
- Art and science which form the knowledge base upon which the OD is constructed
- The various models and theories
- What OD practitioners think and how they think as they engage in the complicated task of improving the organisational functioning

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Organisation development is planned change in an organisational context. The development of the various models of planned change facilitated the development of OD. The models and theories explain specifies the variables and the relationship among those variables. There are several recent theories which have shown greater

importance for having a better understanding of what and how it happens in the planned change.

2.2 OD MODELS OF PLANNED CHANGE

There are several models of planned change, the popular models are explained below:

1. Kurt Lewin-Unfreezing, changing and refreezing model.
2. Greiner's Equential model.
3. The Burke –Litwin Model of Organisational change.
4. Porras and Robertson Model of Organisational change.
5. Leavitt's System model.

2.2.1 Kurt Lewin Model

Lewin's model is based on the premises that before actually introducing a change, organisation needs to be prepared for change, motivated to change and stabilized and integrated the change into behaviors of organisation. Accordingly, Lewin's change model includes three-steps in its process: unfreezing changing and refreezing. It is a three stage model of the change process. The various stages are:

Stage 1-Unfreezing: Creating motivation and readiness to change through:

- a) Disconfirmation or lack of confirmation.
- b) Creation of anxiety.
- c) Provision of psychological safety.

Stage 2-Changing: Helping the client to see things, judge things, and react to things differently based on a new point of view obtained through:

- a) Identifying with a new role model, mentor etc.
- b) Scanning the environment for the new relevant information.

Stage 3-Refreezing: Helping the client to integrate the new point of view into:

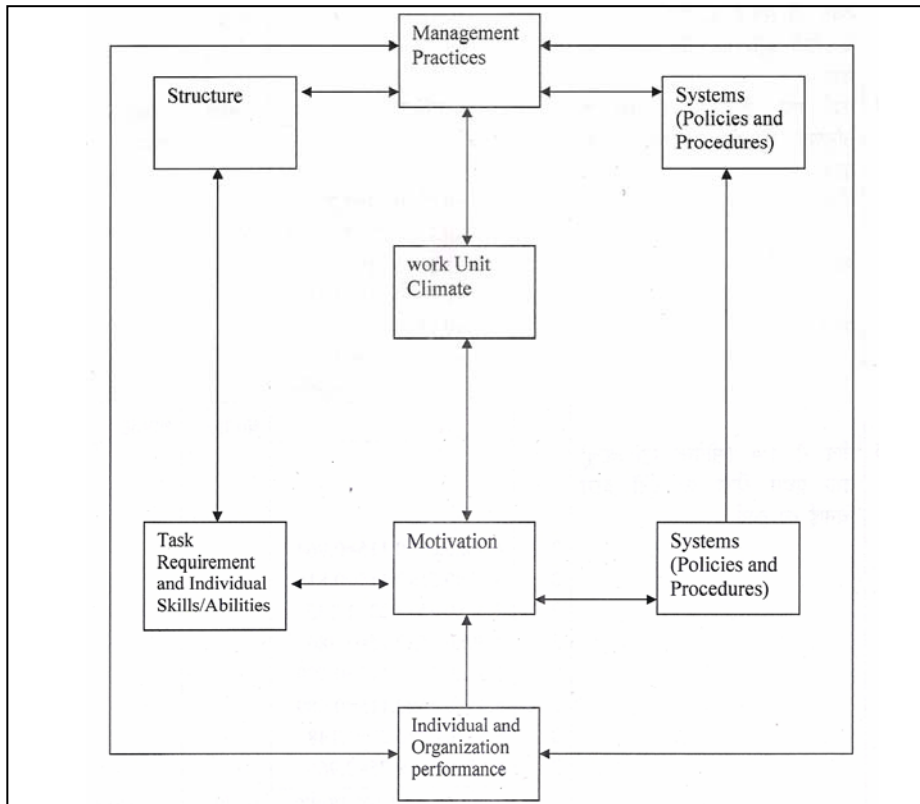
- a) The total personality and self concept.
- b) Significant relationships.

2.2.2 Greiner's Model

According to this model, change occurs in terms, of certain sequential stages. The external stimulus pressurizes the management of organisation to initiate change process. The management in response to stimulus is motivated to take actions to introduce change in organisation. Following the actions, the various change stages occur in a sub sequential manner such as diagnosis of the problem, invention of a new solution. Experimentation with new solution and reinforcement from positive results.

2.2.3 Burke-Litwin Model of Organisational Change

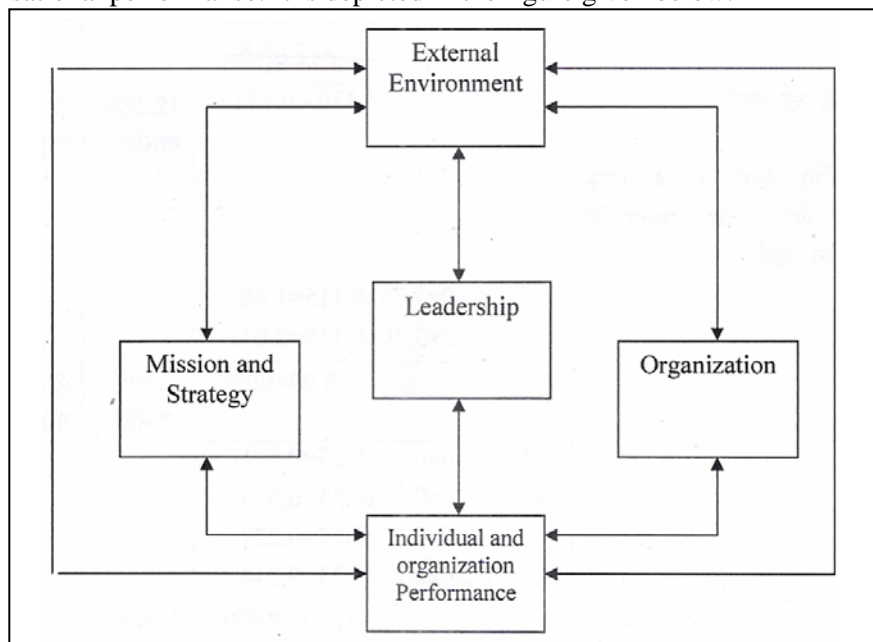
This model was developed by Warner Burke and George Litwin. This model shows how to create first order and second order change. In first order change some features of the organisation change but the fundamental nature of the organisation remains the same. The change could be transactional, adaptive or evolutionary. The Figure 2.1 shows the factors involved in the first order change changing structure, management practices, and system causes change in work unit climate, which changes motivation and in turn, individual and organisational performance. Transactional leadership is required to make this change in organisational climate.



Source: W. Warner Burke, *Organisation Development*, 2nd ed by Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Figure 2.1: The Transactional Factors Involved in First-order Change

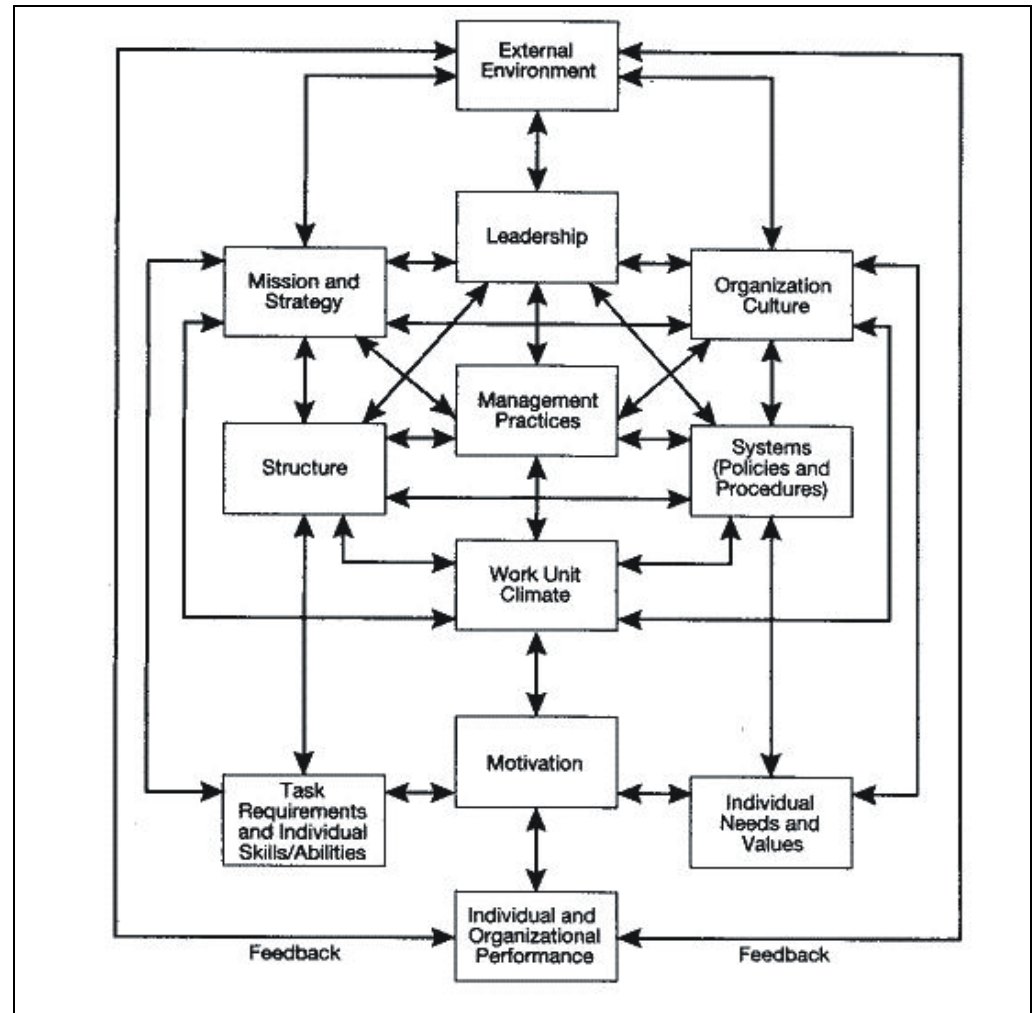
In the second order change the nature of the organisation is fundamentally and substantially altered-the organisation is transformed. OD programs are directed towards both the first and second order change, with the special emphasis on second order transformational change. If we want to cause second order change we must change mission, strategies, leadership styles, and organisational culture. Interventions directed towards these factors transform the organisation and cause a permanent change in the organisational culture, which produces change in individual and organisational performance. It is depicted in the figure given below:



Source: W. Warner Burke, *Organisation Development*, 2d ed. by Addison-Wesley Publishing company.

Figure 2.2: The Transformational Factors Involved in Second-order Change

The premise of the Burke Litwin model is that OD interventions directed towards structure, management practices and system result in the first order change and interventions directed towards mission and strategy, leadership, and organisation culture result in the second order change. Putting the two above mentioned figures of first order and second order changes we get another figure as given below in which the top half of the figure displays the factors involved in the transformational change and the bottom half of the figure displays the factors involved in the transactional change. These factors are able to change the organisation climate. The figure given below explains the premise of the model.

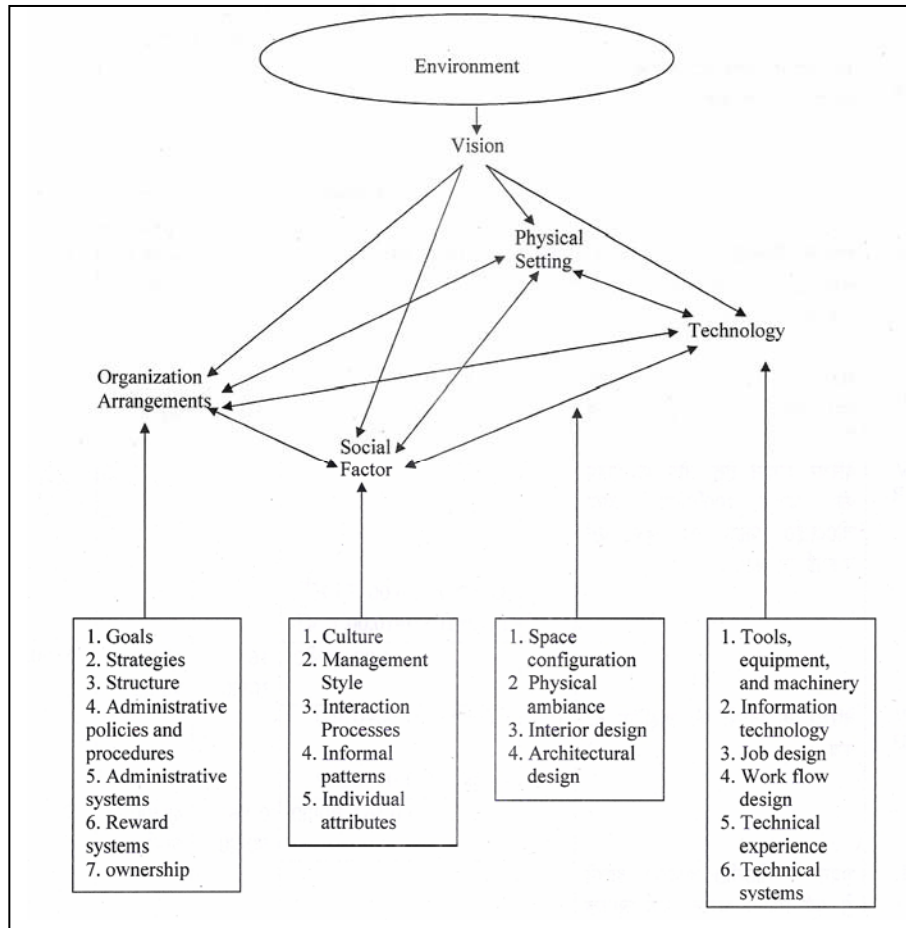


Source: W. Warner Burke, *Organisation Development*, 2d ed., p.128, 1994 by Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

Figure 2.3: The Burke-Litwin Model of Organisation Permission and Chances

2.2.4 Porras and Robertson Model of Organisational Change

The basic premise of this model is that OD interventions alter features of the work setting causing changes in individual's behaviors, which in turn lead to individual and organisational improvements. This model shows how OD interventions can be linked to factors in the work setting as these factors influence organisational members cognitions.



Source: Jerry I. Porras and Peter J. Robertson," Organisational Development: Theory, Practice, and Research."

Figure 2.4: Organisation Work Setting Factors

The work settings play a central role in this model and consist of four factors: organizing arrangements, social factors, physical settings and technology. For example. OD interventions that focus on goals, strategies and rewards will affect organizing arrangements. Interventions that focus on the culture, management styles and interaction process will affect social factors. Interventions that focus on job design and work flow design will affect technology.

This model is extremely useful for OD practitioners and organisational leaders.

2.2.5 Leavitt's Model

Leavitt's OD model is founded on the interactive nature of the various sub-systems in a change process. In an organisational system, there are four interacting subsystems-task, structure, people and technology. Due to their interacting nature, change in anyone of the sub-systems tends to have consequences for the other sub systems also. Change in anyone of the subsystems can be worked out depending upon the situation. How the various sub systems interact with each other in a change process is shown in the Figure 2.5.

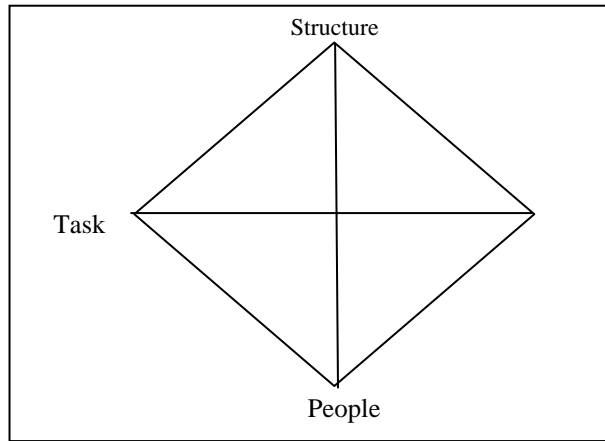


Figure 2.5: Interacting Subsystems

Check Your Progress 1

Fill in the blanks:

1. OD model is founded on the interactive nature of the various sub-systems in a change process.
2. Helps the client to integrate the new point of view into the total personality and self concept and significant relationships.

2.3 SYSTEM THEORY OF OD

A second foundation of organisation development is system theory, which views organisation as open systemic active exchange with their environments. This theory explains how its application enhances the practice of OD.

The system theory is one of the most powerful conceptual tools available for understanding the dynamics of the organisation. Fagen defines system as “a set of objects together with relationship between the objects and between their attributes”.

System denotes interdependency, interconnectedness, and interrelatedness among elements in asset that constitutes an identifiable whole or gestalt.

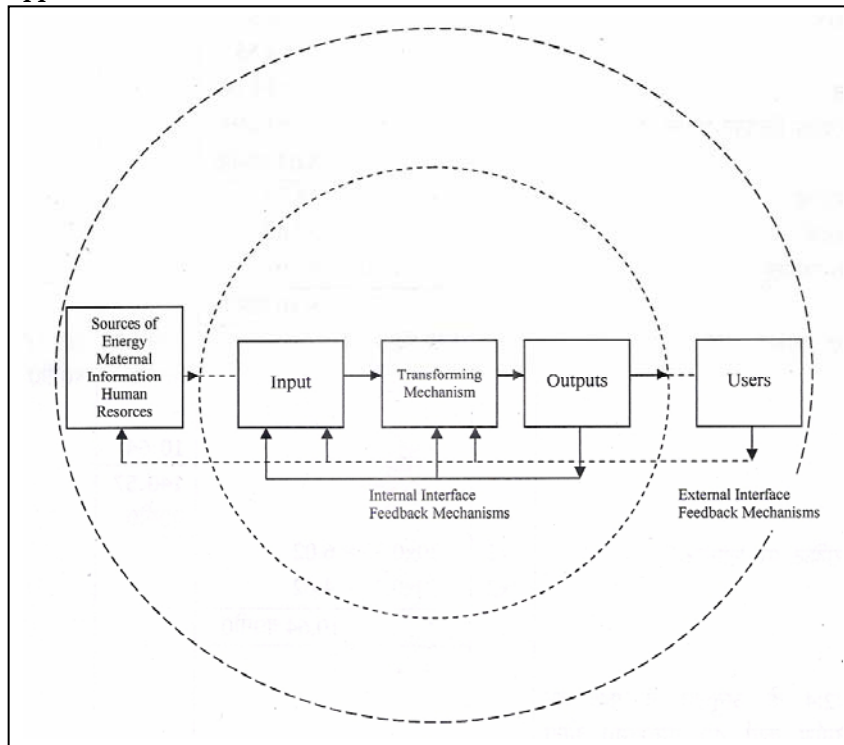
2.3.1 Nature of System

The nature dynamics and characteristics of the open system are well known. Organisations are open system. Katz and Kahn have described the following characteristics of a system:

1. **Input-throughput-output mechanism:** This explains that system takes inputs from the environment in the form of energy information, money, and people and processes the inputs via throughputs, conversion or transformation and exports products to the environment in the form of outputs.
2. **Every system is delineated by a boundary:** This means that each system has boundary to differentiate the inside and outside of the system, however boundaries of an open system are permeable, which permits exchange of information, resources and energy between system and environment.
3. Open system have purposes and goals for their existence.

2.3.2 Congruence among System Elements

David Nadler and Associates at Delta consulting group developed the congruence model for understanding organisational dynamics and change. It is explained with the help of a diagram (Figure 2.6).



Source: Jerry I. Porras and Peter J. Robertson, *Organisational Development: Theory, Practice and Research*, p. 729.

Figure 2.6

This model depicts the organisation as an input-throughput-output system. According to this model the three major input factors are:

- Environment
- Resources
- History which consist of memories of past successes, failures and important events.

Outputs however are performances at the total organisational level, group level and individual level.

The congruence model's value is an analytical tool for:

1. Assessing the characteristics and functioning of each of the elements.
2. Evaluating the goodness of fit or how well the elements go together.

2.3.3 Socio-technical System Theory and Open System Planning

Two major variants of open system theory are –socio-technical system theory (STS) and open system planning.

Socio-technical system theory was developed by Trist and others at the Tavistock institution in 1950's. According to this theory organisations are comprised of two independent systems, a social system and a technical system and changes in one effect the other It is the conceptual foundation for efforts in work redesign and organisation restructuring of OD.

Open system planning explains that:

1. Scanning the environment to determine the expectations of external organisations and stakeholders.

2. Developing scenario of possible futures both realistic and ideal.
3. Developing action plans to achieve the desired result.

Mostly OD practitioners engaged in redesign projects use a combination of socio-technical system theory and open system planning.

The other theories of OD are grouped into the four broad categories:

1. Life cycle
2. Teleology
3. Dialectical
4. Evolutionary theories

Where and when do these theories apply to explain development in organisational entities? To address this question it is useful to emphasize four distinguishing characteristics in the preceding discussion of the four theories. Each theory: (1) views process in terms of a different cycle of change events, (2) which is governed by a different "motor" or generating mechanism that (3) operates on a different unit of analysis and (4) represents a different mode of change.

The four groups are distinguished from each other either on the basis of unit of change or mode of change. The unit of change is either the single individual identity, interactions among people or relationship between organisations. The mode of change is either prescribed or constructive.

- A life cycle model depicts the process of change in an entity as progressing through a necessary sequence of stages. An institutional, natural, or logical program prescribes the specific contents of these stages.
- A teleological model views development as a cycle of goal formulation, implementation, evaluation, and modification of goals based on what was learned by the entity. This sequence emerges through the purposeful social construction among individuals within the entity.
- In dialectical models of development conflicts emerge between entities espousing opposing thesis and antithesis that collide to produce a synthesis, which in time becomes the thesis for the next cycle of a dialectical progression. Confrontation and conflict between opposing entities generate this dialectical cycle.
- An evolutionary model of development consists of a repetitive sequence of variation, selection, and retention events among entities in a designated population. Competition for scarce environmental resources between entities inhabiting a population generates this evolutionary cycle.

Life Cycle Theory

Many management scholars have adopted the metaphor of organic growth as a heuristic device to explain development in an organisational entity from its initiation to its termination. Witness, for example, often-used references to the life cycle of organisations, products, and ventures, as well as stages in the development of individual careers, groups, and organisations: startup births, adolescent growth, maturity, and decline or death. The life cycle theories include developmentalism, biogenesis, ontogenesis and a number of stage theories of child development, human development, moral development, organisational development, group decision making, and new venture development. Next to teleology, life cycle is perhaps the most common explanation of development in the management literature.

Life cycle theory assumes that change is immanent: that is, the developing entity has within it an underlying form, logic, program, or code which regulates the process of change and moves the entity from a given point of departure toward a subsequent end

that is already prefigured in the present state. What lies latent, premature, or homogeneous in the embryo or primitive state becomes progressively more realized, mature, and differentiated. External environmental events and processes can influence how the immanent form expresses itself, but they are always mediated by the imminent logic, rules, or programs that govern.

Life cycle theory parallels the approach of the gross anatomist in biology who observes a sequence of developing fetuses, concluding that each successive stage evolved from the previous one. Hence, it is claimed that development is driven by some genetic code or prefigured program within the developing entity.

Life cycle theories of organisational entities often explain development in terms of institutional rules or programs that require developmental activities to progress in a prescribed sequence. For example, the U.S. Food and Drug Administration regulate a sequence of steps that all firms must follow to develop and commercialize a new drug or biomedical product.

Teleological Theory

Another school of thought explains development by relying on teleology, or the philosophical doctrine that purpose or goal is the final cause for guiding movement of an entity. This approach underlies many organisational theories of change, including: functionalism, decision making, epigenesis, voluntarism, social construction adaptive learning, and most models of strategic planning and goal setting.

Teleology assumes that development proceeds toward a goal or end state. It assumes that the entity is purposeful and adaptive; by itself or in interaction with others, it constructs an envisioned end state, takes action to reach it, and monitors its progress. Thus, this theory views development as a repetitive sequence of goal formulation, implementation, evaluation, and modification of goals based on what was learned or intended by the entity. The theory operates in a single individual or among a group of cooperating individuals or organisations who are sufficiently like-minded to act as a single collective entity. Teleology inherently affords creativity since the entity, consisting of an individual or group, has the freedom to enact whatever goals it likes.

However, it implies a standard for judging change: development is that which moves the entity toward its final state. Some teleological models incorporate the systems theory assumption of equifinality; there are several equally effective ways to achieve a given goal. There is no prefigured rule, logically necessary direction, or set sequence of stages in a teleological process. Instead, these theories focus on the prerequisites for attaining the goal or end state: the functions that must be fulfilled, the accomplishments that must be achieved, or the components that must be built or obtained for the end state to be realized. These prerequisites can be used to assess when an entity is developing: it is growing more complex, or it is growing more integrated, or it is filling out a necessary set of functions. We are able to make this assessment because teleological theories posit an envisioned end state for an entity and we are able to observe movement toward the end state vis-a-vis this standard.

Dialectical Theory

A third school, dialectical theories, begins with the Hegelian assumption that the organisational entity exists in a pluralistic world of colliding events, forces, or contradictory values that compete with each other for domination and control. These oppositions may be internal to an organisational entity because it may have several conflicting goals or interest groups competing for priority. Oppositions may also arise external to the organisational entity as it pursues directions that collide with those of others. In any case, a dialectical theory requires two or more distinct entities that embody these oppositions to confront and engage one another in conflict.

Dialectical process theories explain stability and change by reference to the relative balance of power between opposing entities. Struggles and accommodations that maintain the status quo between oppositions produce stability. Change occurs when these opposing values, forces, or events gain sufficient power to confront and engage the status quo. The relative power of an antithesis may mobilize to a sufficient degree to challenge the current thesis or state of affairs and set the stage for producing a synthesis.

Evolutionary Theory

Although evolution is sometimes equated with change, we use evolution in a more restrictive sense to focus on cumulative changes in structural forms of populations of organisational entities across communities, industries, or society at large. As in biological evolution, change proceeds through a continuous cycle of variation, selection, and retention. Variations, the creations of novel forms are often viewed to emerge by blind or random chance; they just happen. Selection occurs principally through the competition among forms for scarce resources, and the environment selects those forms that best fit the resource base of an environmental niche. Retention involves the forces (including inertia and persistence) that perpetuate and maintain certain organisational forms. Retention serves to counteract the self-reinforcing loop between variations and selection.

Thus, evolution explains change as a recurrent, cumulative, and probabilistic progression of variation, selection, and retention of organisational entities. In organisation and management applications, evolutionary theory is often used to depict global changes in organisational populations.

2.4 OPEN SYSTEMS THINKING

Open system thinking is required for creating learning organisations, according to Peter Senge. System thinking is a discipline that integrates the disciplines, fusing them into a coherent body of theory and practice. Senge believes five disciplines must be mastered to create a learning organisation: personal mastery, mental models, building shared vision, team learning and system thinking. By enhancing each of the other disciplines, it continually reminds us that the whole can exceed the sum of its parts.

In conclusion, system theory pervades the theory and practice of organisation development, from diagnosis to intervention to evaluation. Viewing organisations from this perspective has several consequences.

First, issues, events, forces, and incidents are not viewed as isolated phenomena.

2.5 PARTICIPATION AND EMPOWERMENT

One of the most important of organisation development is a participation empowerment model. Participation in OD is extended broadly throughout the organisation. The increased participation and empowerment have always been central goals and fundamental values of the field.

To empower is to give someone power to make decisions, to contribute their ideas, to exert influence and to be responsible.

Participation is an effective form of empowerment. Participation enhances empowerment, and empowerment in turn enhances performance and individual well being.

Robert Quinn and Gretchen Spreitzer found two vastly different views of empowerment. One view call mechanistic i.e., it is a top down delegation of decision making with clear boundaries and strict accountability that increases the managerial

control. The other view is called organic which is bottom-upon and less controlling it focuses on risk taking, growth and change.

According to James Belasco empowerment is the key to getting people to want to participate in the change. He proposed a four step model to describe the empowerment process:

1. Preparation,
2. Create tomorrow,
3. Vision,
4. Change.

Kouzes and Posner identified five leadership practices and ten behavioral commitments exhibited by successful empowering leaders. Few are mentioned below:

1. challenging the process,
2. Search for opportunities,
3. inspiring a shared vision,
4. foster collaboration,
5. set the examples,
6. celebrate accomplishments.

Tom Peters added a new insight that today's jobs are best accomplished through empowered people working in a highly autonomous project teams.

Check Your Progress 2

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. Unfreezing is creating motivation and readiness to change.
2. According to Burke Litwin Model, OD interventions are directed towards structure, management practices and system in the second order change.

2.6 LET US SUM UP

The most important foundations of OD are building upon its models and system theory .The various models are extremely useful for OD practitioners and organisation leaders. The models are based on the concepts of the planned change and its relationship with factors of the work settings, environment and organisation culture. The system theory pervades the theory and practice of organisation development from diagnosis to intervention to evaluation. It believes that changing one part of a system influences other parts therefore OD expects multiple effects from the system.

2.7 LESSON END ACTIVITY

Read the example of an organisation given below and explain how participation and employee empowerment has contributed to the success of the organisation.

Example

At National Semiconductor, an informal community of engineers who specialize in one critical technology began conducting joint reviews of new chip designs. As word spread within the company, other product groups started bringing designs to this group (on a strictly “off-the-org-chart basis”) to solicit its advice. The more reviews this group has done, the more effective it has become-earning a company-wide reputation for excellence.

What these engineers found is that they cannot simply publish their “rules” and teach the rest of organisation how to do design reviews. The practice and knowledge is embedded in the community that created it. The only way to learn the practice is to become a member. The best way to access the knowledge is to interact with the community. Therefore, National Semiconductor encourages and supports the formation of Communities of Practice (Cops). (Cops are their name for Parallel Learning Structures.)

Cops are a small group of people (in this case, about 20) who have worked together over a period of time. At National Semiconductor, a Cop is not a team, not a task force, not necessarily an authorized or identified group. People in CoPs can perform the same job or collaborate on a shared task or work together on a product. They are peers in the execution of “real work.” What holds them together is a common sense of purpose and a real need to know what each other knows.

2.8 KEYWORDS

Work settings: Organizing arrangements, social factors, physical settings and technology of the work place.

Transformational change: Change in mission and strategy, leadership styles and organisational culture.

Organisation climate: People’s perception and attitudes about the organisation whether it is a good or bad place to work.

Refreezing is to integrate the new behavior into the person’s personality and attitudes.

2.9 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Kurt Lewin’s three stage model is a powerful tool for understanding change.' Comment.
2. Differentiate between the first and second order change with the help of Burke-Litwin Model of organisational change.
3. Discuss how the understanding of system theory helps the OD practitioners for facilitating organisational change?

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

CYP 1

1. Leavitt’s model
2. Refreezing

CYP 2

1. T, 2. F.

2.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

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LESSON

3

TEAMS AND PARALLEL LEARNING STRUCTURES

CONTENTS

- 3.0 Aims and Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Teams
- 3.3 Team Building
 - 3.3.1 Developing Winning Teams
 - 3.3.2 Team Roles
 - 3.3.3 Balanced Teams
- 3.4 Communication in Teams
- 3.5 Characteristics of High Performing Teams Members
- 3.6 Practices to Facilitate Development of Teams in Organizations
- 3.7 Path to Team Building Success
 - 3.7.1 Employee Empowerment
 - 3.7.2 Employee Involvement
 - 3.7.3 Positive Work Relationships
- 3.8 Parallel Learning Structures
 - 3.8.1 When to Use it
 - 3.8.2 How to Use it
 - 3.8.3 Relationship to other Learning Strategies
- 3.9 Let us Sum up
- 3.10 Lesson End Activity
- 3.11 Keywords
- 3.12 Questions for Discussion
- 3.13 Suggested Readings

3.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Characteristics of high performing teams members
- Practices to facilitate development of teams in organizations
- Path to team building success

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Team building activities are now a way of life for many organizations thus team building assists in the development of group goals and norms that support high productivity and quality of work life.

The parallel learning structures are a vehicle for learning how to change the system and then leading the change process.

These structures are a mechanism to facilitate innovation in large bureaucratic organizations where it acts as a generic label to cover interventions.

3.2 TEAMS

Employee involvement, teams, and employee empowerment enable people to make decisions about their work. This employee involvement, team building approach, and employee empowerment increases loyalty and fosters ownership.

A fundamental belief in organization development is that work teams are building blocks of the organizations. A second fundamental belief is that teams must manage their culture, processes, systems and relationships if they are to be attractive.

The noun team has now become a verb teaming and rightly said self directed teams. Teams are important for a number of reasons. They are:

1. Individual behavior is rooted in the socio cultural norms and values of the work teams.
2. Many tasks are so complex that they cannot be performed by the individuals.
3. Teams create a synergy.
4. Teams satisfy people's need for social interaction, status, recognition, and respect.

3.3 TEAM BUILDING

Richard Beckhard, one of the founders of the discipline referred to as organization development gave a systematic framework for the most effective interventions to achieve positive organization change. Beckhard's team development model serves as a guide for executives and project managers. There are a variety of situations where new teams are formed. The project based, cross-functional work team has become the basis of industry in the 1990's. Virtual team organization is rapidly becoming the model for flexibility and agility in organizing quickly and effectively to get jobs done. New teams usually have a clear task focus in the early going and there is usually a clear understanding of the short term goals. The new team members are also generally technically competent and there usually is a challenge in the project that will draw on their technical capabilities. While the early activities of a team are clearly focused on task and work issues, relationship problems tend to develop as they do in any human system. By the time these interpersonal issues surface the team may be well along in its activities. The issues may become very difficult and very costly to work out later in the game. There is a significant benefit if a new team takes a short time at the beginning of its life to examine collaboratively how it is going to work together. Beckhard provides a tool to set the stage for most effective team-work and high performance. Team Building as an OD intervention can take many forms. The most common pattern is beginning with interviews and other preliminary work, followed by a one-to three-day session. During the meeting the group diagnoses its function as a unit and plans improvements in its operating procedures.

A number of OD interventions are specifically designed to improve team performance. Examples are team building, intercrop teambuilding, process consultation, Quality circles, parallel learning structures, socio-technical system programs. These interventions apply to formal work teams as well startup teams, cross functional teams, temporary teams etc.

Team building activities are now a way of life for many organizations teams periodically hold team building meetings; people are trained in group dynamics.

3.3.1 Developing Winning Teams

Every organization uses some kind of formal teamwork to get projects done. Many of them create teams up by giving them a vague, imperfect plan, sending them on their own way somehow expecting victory. Even if individual players are talented and creative, teams with firm goals and ways to achieve them alone succeed. Winning teams thrive on structure that's created from the bottom up, yet guided by strong, confident leadership from the top of the organization. A good team relationship requires nurturing from a strong leader.

3.3.2 Team Roles

Types or team roles were defined by Dr. R. Meredith Belbin based on his studies at a Management College are as follows:

Overall nature of activities	Berlin roles	Description
Doing/acting	Implementer	Well-organized and predictable. Takes basic ideas and makes them work in practice. Can be slow.
	Shaper	Lots of energy and action, challenging others to move forwards. Can be insensitive.
	Completer/Finisher	Reliably sees things through to the end, ironing out the wrinkles and ensuring everything. Works well. Can worry too. Much and not trust others.
Thinking problem-solving	Plant	Solves difficult problems with original and creative ideas. Can be poor communicator and may ignore details.
	Monitor/Evaluator	Sees the big picture. Thinks carefully and accurately about things. May lack energy or Ability to inspire others.
	Specialist	Has expert knowledge/skills in key areas and will solve many problems here. Can be disinterested in all other areas.
People feelings oriented	Coordinator	Respected leader who helps everyone focus on their task. Can be seen as excessively controlling.
	Team worker	Cares for individuals and the team. Good listener and works to resolve social problems. Can have problems making difficult decisions.
	Resource/investigator	Explores new ideas and possibilities with energy and with others. Good net-worker can be too optimistic and lose energy after the initial flush.

Overall functions	Belbin roles
Leading	Coordinator
	Shaper
Doing	Implementer
	Completer/finisher
Thinking	Monitor/Evaluator
	Plant
	Specialist
Socializing	Resource/investigator
	Team worker

3.3.3 Balanced Teams

Teams work best when there is a balance of primary roles' and when team members know their roles, work to their strengths and actively manage weaknesses. To achieve the best balance, there should be:

- One coordinator or shaper (not both) for leader
- A plant to stimulate ideas
- A Monitor/evaluator to maintain honesty and clarity
- One or more implementer, team worker, resource investigator or completer/finisher to make things happen
- Identify types when starting up teams and ensure have a good balance or handle the imbalances.

3.4 COMMUNICATION IN TEAMS

Communication, the most basic of management essentials, is needed to ensure timely feedback and immediate updates in teams. In teams, clarity, frequency and responsiveness is the keys of communication. Most of the communication is nonverbal and the verbal forms used need to be clear and delivered often. Regular meetings in a place or via conference call or other technology are essential for teams. Team coordinators should keep the agenda.

Posted electronically in an area the whole team can access and encourage them to add to it. They should make answering team members' emails and phone calls a priority. Although team members hardly need to be affectionate to each other to work well together, some level of personal interaction is crucial for team bonding. Supporting tools that can be obtained inexpensively or free like telephone and email, instant messaging systems, collaboration software, group bulletin boards or discussion areas and chat rooms are all useful for working and meeting together. Varying methods of communicating and learning which methods work best for which team members are vital steps. One of the most often neglected pieces to building a team is providing a safe place for interaction and discussion without the manager. Teams need a staff room. Members often develop ideas they might not feel comfortable expressing in public. Teams-need them and if they ignore this need, they eliminate a chance for a more free change of ideas. Accomplishments must be acknowledged and celebrated, as a group when possible and appropriate.

A periodic newsletter and email with a section in it for accolades, institution of a peer-to-peer award system, sending greeting cards or gift certificates from websites dedicated to these purposes. The principles of managing teams well are similar to the principles of managing anybody or anything well.

Check Your Progress 1

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. A number of OD interventions like team building, intercrop teambuilding, process consultation, quality circles, parallel learning structures, socio-technical system program helps to improve the team performance.
2. Richard Beckhard, is one of the founders of the discipline referred to as organization development.

3.5 CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGH PERFORMING TEAMS MEMBERS

- Share a common purpose/goals

- Build relationships for trust and respect
- Balance task and process
- Plan thoroughly before acting
- Involve members in clear problem-solving and decision-making procedures
- Respect and understand each others' "diversity"
- Value synergism and interdependence
- Emphasize and support team goals
- Reward individual performance that supports the team
- Communicate effectively
- Practice effective dialogue instead of debate identify and resolve group conflicts
- Vary levels and intensity of work
- Provide a balance between work and home
- Critique the way they work as a team, regularly and consistently
- Practice continuous improvement
- Creating a team environment

3.6 PRACTICES TO FACILITATE DEVELOPMENT OF TEAMS IN ORGANIZATIONS

Organization Development facilitators should enable firms to hire team players by putting all job candidates through demanding office-wide scrutiny. Performance Incentives should be designed in such a manner that they are group-based and performance- appraisals should include team working as a criterion. Intra-team conflicts should be resolved in the early stages Unresolved conflicts caused due to employees' mutual bickering can kill office morale and productivity. Organizations are deploying paid ombudsmen to help staffers get along and stifle office conflicts as conflicts often arise in work teams, timely interventions to diffuse tensions and strengthen members' interpersonal commitment should be introduced. A good team relationship requires nurturing from a strong leader. Leaders might cling to the idea of success being based on individuals, but the value of a great group must not be ignored by the leader. Effective interpersonal interaction would take place among team players communicate more effectively.

OD process should result' in the development of a comprehensive and sustainable in-house leadership training program that would foster teamwork. The training programs should enable employees to learn how to handle different types of personalities. Towards the completion phase of team building intervention, team members should be capable of avoiding reciprocal rudeness and maintenance of unconditional politeness, escaping the trap of cliques.

Prevention of polarization of members into opposing factions, perpetrating the value of teams, overcoming the phenomenon of group think which occurs out of excessive term and for unanimity and illusion of invulnerability of the group, understanding the power of group synergy and social-facilitation in raising an organization's productivity are quintessential qualities of the members of winning teams.

3.7 PATH TO TEAM BUILDING SUCCESS

How to create effective teams, team work, and team building is a challenge in every organization. Work environments tend to foster rugged individuals working on

personal goals for personal gain. Typically, reward, recognition, and pay systems single out the achievements of individual employees.

Appraisal, performance management, and goal setting systems most frequently focus on individual goals and progress, not on team building. Promotions and additional authority are also bestowed on individuals. Here is the information you need to develop team work and effective work teams in your organization which includes:

3.7.1 Employee Empowerment

Employee empowerment is a strategy and philosophy that enables employees to make decisions about their jobs. Employee empowerment helps employees own their work and take responsibility for their results. Employee empowerment helps employees serve customers at the level of the organization where the customer interface exists.

3.7.2 Employee Involvement

Employee involvement is creating an environment in which people have an impact on decisions and actions that affect their jobs. Employee involvement is not the goal nor is it a tool, as practiced in many organizations. Employee involvement is a management and leadership philosophy about how people are enabled to contribute to continuous improvement and the ongoing success of their organization.

3.7.3 Positive Work Relationships

The positive relationship is with the team, supervisor, manager, customer or co-worker, at the work place helps in building effective teams.

3.8 PARALLEL LEARNING STRUCTURES

Parallel learning structures coexist with formal bureaucratic structures. They show great promise as a techno-structural intervention to compensate for bureaucratic organisation's inability to learn and adapt. A number of their applications are briefly reviewed. System transforming innovations create the need for change in the very nature of the organisations in which they are implemented.

Parallel structures help people break free of the normal constraints imposed by the organization, engage in genuine inquiry and experimentation, and initiate needed changes.

We believe parallel learning structures are a foundation of OD because they are prevalent in many OD programs. Parallel learning structures are often the best way to initiate change in large bureaucratic organization's method of work culture.

3.8.1 When to Use it

- To develop and implement organization-wide innovations.
- To foster innovation and creativity within a bureaucratic system.
- To support the exchange of knowledge and expertise among performers.
- To capture the organization's collective expertise.

3.8.2 How to Use it

- Look for existing, informal exchanges that naturally occur among staff members.
- Have interested parties convene and develop a mission statement or list the outcomes.
- Determine what support (e.g., time, facilities, and technology) would facilitate the information exchange and learning.

- Publicize when and where the exchanges take place.
- Establish a process for organizing and recording the corporate knowledge.

3.8.3 Relationship to other Learning Strategies

As described below, learning strategies are often used in combination with one another or may be closely linked to one another.

Learning Groups (Teams): Learning Groups are formed for the specific purpose of gaining individual knowledge and expertise in a particular area. In contrast, Parallel Learning Structures focus on organizational learning rather than individual learning.

Example

Xerox Corporation

Xerox found that its technical representatives (tech reps) often made it a point to spend time not with customers but with each other. The tech reps would gather in common areas (the local parts warehouse or coffee pot) and swap stories from the field. Rather than trying to discourage this practice to improve productivity, Xerox decided to formalize the knowledge exchange.

These technicians were knowledge workers in the truest sense. The tech reps were not just repairing machines; they were also co producing insights about how to repair machines better. Rich knowledge transfer took place through these conversations that were not a step in any formal “business process” or a box in any official “org chart.”

So Xerox turned conventional wisdom on its head. Rather than eliminate the informal conversations in pursuit of corporate efficiency, the corporation decided to expand them in the name of learning and innovation.

Xerox uses a system called Eureka. Eureka is an electronic “knowledge refinery” that organizes and categorizes a database of tips generated by the field staff. Technically, Eureka is a relational database of hypertext documents. In practice, it’s an electronic version of war stories told around the coffee pot. Eureka has the added benefits of an institutional memory, expert validation, and a search engine.

Eureka operates as a free-flowing knowledge democracy; much like the natural, informal collaborations among tech reps. the system relies on voluntary information exchanges. All tech reps, regardless of rank, can submit a tip, but they are neither required to nor are they explicitly rewarded. In Eureka, the incentive is to be a good colleague, to contribute and receive knowledge as a member of the community.

Check Your Progress 2

Fill in the blanks:

1. A is a group of interdependent people who share a common purpose, have common work methods, and hold each other accountable.
2. The refers to the structural interventions foster innovation and creativity within a bureaucratic system.

3.9 LET US SUM UP

In this lesson we have discussed about teams, team work, communication among the team members, and concept of balanced teams and roles of the team leader.

Team building is directed towards improving group effectiveness and the ways in which members of teams work together. The teams may be permanent or temporary,

but their members have either common organizational aims or work activities. The general process of team building, like process consultation, tries to equip a group to handle its own ongoing problem solving.

We have also discussed about the concept of parallel learning structures which are specially created organizational structures for planning and guiding change programs. Parallel learning structures are a mechanism to facilitate innovation in large bureaucratic organizations where the focus of inertia, hierarchical communication patterns, and standard ways of addressing problems inhibit learning, innovation and change. In essence, parallel structures are a vehicle for learning how to change the systems, and then leading the change process.

The key thing about parallel structures is that they create a bounded space and time for thinking, talking, deciding and acting differently than normally takes place at work. The most important and difficult task for the people creating the parallel learning structure is to create a different culture within it.

3.10 LESSON END ACTIVITY

Anderson Consulting Education

Anderson Consulting managers believe that groups of people can collectively address issues of importance to the organization as a whole. By doing so, they could learn something new and valuable that would contribute directly to their own professional development and indirectly to the success of the organization. Anderson Consulting supported the formation of Communities of Practice (Parallel Learning Structures). The organization set aside resources to allow each employee to spend about 2 hours per week in Community of Practice activities. Participation is purely voluntary. Leadership does not pressure employees to join particular groups because they want the community's culture to develop and mature on its own. The Community of Practice charter calls the program a "professional self-development association" and features a statement of mission and goals: "The community's success depends primarily on participants working together effectively for a common purpose-learning."

Question: Discuss how the parallel learning structures in Anderson consulting fostering the organizational effectiveness?

3.11 KEYWORDS

Parallel Learning Structures: A mechanism to facilitate innovation in large bureaucratic organizations.

Performance Management: A constellation of processes involving goal setting, performance appraisal and goal setting, performance appraisal and reward systems.

Dyad: Two people and their dynamic interrelations.

Coaching: A new paradigm for management.

Employee empowerment: A strategy and philosophy that enables employees to make decisions about their jobs.

3.12 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Discuss the roles of the team leader as described by BELBIN.
2. Team Building is directed towards improving group effectiveness and the ways in which members of team work together. Comment.
3. Describe briefly the impact of team building on group performance.
4. Parallel learning structures are a foundation of OD. Explain.

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

CYP 1

1. T, 2. T

CYP 2

1. Team
2. Parallel learning structures

3.13 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT II

LESSON

4

OD INTERVENTIONS

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- 4.0 Aims and Objectives
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- 4.2 Organisation Development Interventions
- 4.3 Characteristics of OD Interventions
- 4.4 Classification of OD Interventions
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- 4.12 Let us Sum up
- 4.13 Lesson End Activity
- 4.14 Keywords
- 4.15 Questions for Discussion
- 4.16 Suggested Readings

4.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Nature and classification of the OD interventions
- The team, intergroup and the third party peace making interventions
- The range of OD interventions to solve the problems related to the human side of organisation

4.1 INTRODUCTION

An intervention is a deliberate process by which change is introduced into peoples' thoughts, feelings and behaviors. The overall objective of any intervention is to confront individuals, teams or units of people in a non-threatening way and allow them to see their self-destructive behavior and how it affects themselves and colleagues. It might involve several people who have prepared themselves to talk to the target group that has been engaging in some sort of self-destructive behavior. In a clear and respectful way they inform the persons of factual information regarding their behavior and how it may have affected them. The immediate objective of an intervention is for the target to listen and to accept help. Organisation Development (OD) intervention would be a combination of the ways a manager can influence the productivity of his/her team by understanding how managerial style impacts organisational climate and more importantly how to create an environment of high performance.

Most OD interventions are plans or programs comprised of specific activities designed to effect change in some facet of an organisation. Numerous interventions have been developed over the years to address different problems or create various results. However, they all are geared toward the goal of improving the entire organisation through change in general, organisations that wish to achieve a high degree of organisational change will employ a full range of interventions, including those designed to transfer individual and group behavior and attitudes. Entities attempting smaller changes will stop short of those goals, applying interventions targeted primarily toward operating policies, management structures, worker skills, and personnel policies. OD interventions can be categorized in a number of ways, including action, the type of group for which they are intended, or the industry to which they apply. W.L. French identified major families of interventions based on the type of activities that they included, such as activity groups include teambuilding, survey feedback, structural change, and career-planning.

4.2 ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTIONS

OD interventions refer to various activities which a consultant and client organisation perform for improving organisational performance through enabling organisational members better manage their behavior, their work group, and organisational culture. OD interventions are also referred as OD techniques or OD strategies as they are designed to accomplish specific objectives. French and Bell have defined OD interventions as:

"Sets of structured activities in which selected organisational units (target groups or individuals) engage with a task or a sequence of tasks where the task goals are related directly or indirectly to organisational improvement. Interventions constitute the action thrust of organisation development: they make things happen."

An intervention is a deliberate process by which change is introduced into peoples' thoughts, feelings and behaviors. The overall objective of any intervention is to

confront individuals, teams or units of people in a non threatening way and allow them to see their self-destructive behavior and how it affects themselves and colleagues. It might involve several people who have prepared themselves to talk to the target group that has been engaging in some sort of self-destructive behavior. In a clear and respectful Way they inform the persons of factual information regarding their behavior and how it may have affected them. The immediate objective of an intervention is for the target to listen and to accept help. Organisation Development (OD) intervention would be a combination of the ways a manager can influence the productivity of his/her team by understanding how managerial style impacts organisational climate and more importantly how to-create an environment of high performance.

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4.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF OD INTERVENTIONS

There are eight characteristics of organisation development interventions from more traditional interventions:

1. An emphasis, although not exclusively so, on group and organisational processes in contrast to substantive content.
2. An emphasis on the work team as the key unit for learning more effective modes of organisational behavior.
3. An emphasis on the work team management of work-team culture.
4. An emphasis on the management of the culture of the total system.
5. Attention to the management of system ramifications.
6. The use of the action research model.
7. The use of a behavioral scientist-change sometimes referred to as a "catalyst" or "facilitator."
8. A view of the change effort as an ongoing process.

Another characteristic, number, a primary emphasis on human and social relationships, does not necessarily differentiate OD from other change efforts, but it is nevertheless an important feature.

4.4 CLASSIFICATION OF OD INTERVENTIONS

There are various OD interventions and they are classified in different ways. Further, various consultants and practitioners have different opinions about the activities which can be included in interventions. For example many of them visualize data gathering as an intervention whereas it is treated as only preparatory work for OD by others.

Therefore the classification of OD interventions shows variation. Nevertheless, OD interventions can be classified on two bases: approach adopted in using OD interventions and target of OD interventions.

On the basis of approach adopted in using OD interventions, these are classified into two categories: process interventions and structural interventions. Process interventions are those which emphasize process to accomplish a change. Structural interventions involve an adjustment or change in the organisation's structure to accomplish changed goals. Some Interventions may focus on changes in the task. Whereas others focus on setting objectives. Table presents some common process and structural OD interventions.

On the basis of target of OD interventions, these can be designed to improve the effectiveness or individuals. Dyads, teams and groups, intergroup relations, and total organisation. The table given below presents some of these interventions.

1. Process and structural OD interventions

Process OD Interventions	Structural OD interventions
Sensitivity training	Job redesign
Team building	Work schedule option
Survey feedback	Process consultation
Behavior modification	Management by objectives
Grid organisation development	Collateral organisation
Career planning	Decision centers
Job expectation technique	
Organisational renewal process	

2. OD interventions for Specific Targets

Target	Interventions
Individuals	Life and career planning
	Role analysis technique
	Coaching and counseling
	Sensitivity training
	Skill development for technical task relationships. Decision Making
	Problem solving planning and goal setting
	Grid OD Phase I
Dyads	Process consultation
	Third Party peace making
	Grid OD phase I and II
Team and groups	Team building
	Family T-group
	Survey feedback
	Process consultation
	Role analysis technique
	Skill development for decision making problem solving planning and goal setting in group activities

Contd....

Inter group relations	Inter group activities
	Organisational mirroring
	Techno structural interventions
	Process consultation
	Third party peace making at group level
	Survey feedback
	Grid OD phase III
Total organisation	Techno structural interventions
	Confrontation meetings
	Strategic planning activities
	Survey feedback
	Grid OD phases IV, V, and VI

It may be seen in the table given above that there is considerable overlapping interventions because a particular intervention may be used for more than one target. Though there are many OD interventions, our further discussion will focus on only; more commonly used OD interventions. These are sensitivity training, grid OD, survey feedback, process consultation, team building and Management by Objectives (MBO).

OD interventions could be carried out at individual, interpersonal, group, inter-group and organisational levels. Examples of interventions on the individual are coaching and counseling; management consultation, training and development, role playing, transactional analysis, life and career activities. On the person-to-person, dyad/triad level the interventions include shuttle diplomacy, mediation and process consultation. At the group level OD interventions involve team-building, leadership training, communication training and other educative efforts, survey feedback, problem solving consultation. At the inter-group level, organisations use interventions such as shuttle diplomacy and mediation and team-building. At the organisational level the interventions might include combinations-of the above, as well as strategic planning, problem analysis, interviews and questionnaires, confrontation meetings and making recommendations for structural or procedural changes (French & Bell, 1984).

4.4.1 Structural Intervention

Structural interventions are those that are aimed at changes in task, structural and technological subsystems of organisations. Job designs, quality circles, Management by objectives bolstered by knowledge of OD experiments are included under the category of structural interventions. Elements of OD may include finding ways to adapt to the changing context while maintaining and enhancing the organisation's integrity and internal integration. OD involves establishing structures, processes and a climate that allow it to effectively manage its important and pressing business (e.g. projects, problems, crises, etc.) while giving adequate attention to strategic issues (e.g., long term development and renewal, planning and envisioning, engaging new opportunities, crisis prevention, etc.)

Structure, is an integral component of the organisation. Nostrum and Starbuck (1981) have defined structure as the arrangement and interrelationship of component parts and positions in an organisation. Structural OD intervention provides guidelines on:

- division of work into activities;
- linkage between different functions;
- hierarchy;
- authority structure;

- authority relationships; and
- coordination with the environment.

Organisational structure may differ within the same organisation according to the particular requirements structure in an organisation has three components (Robbins, 1989):

- **Complexity**, referring to the degree to which activities within the organisation are differentiated. This differentiation has three dimensions:
 - ❖ *Horizontal* differentiation refers to the degree of differentiation between units based on the orientation of members, the nature of tasks they performed their education and training,
 - ❖ *Vertical* differentiation is characterized by the number of hierarchical levels in the organisation, and
 - ❖ *Spatial* differentiation is the degree to which the location of the organisation's offices, facilities and personnel are geographically distributed.
- **Formalization** refers to the extent to which jobs within the organisation are specialized. The degree of formalization can vary widely between and within organizations.
- **Centralisation** refers to the degree to which decision making is concentrated at one point in the organisation.

4.4.2 Designing Organisational Structures

Some important considerations in designing an effective organisational structure are:

- **Clarity:** The structure of the organisation should be such that there is no confusion about people's goals, tasks, style of functioning, reporting relationship and sources information.
- **Understanding:** The structure of an organisation should provide people with a clear picture of how their work fits into the organization.
- **De-centralisation:** The design of an organisation should compel discussions, and decisions at the lowest possible level.
- **Stability and adaptability:** While the organisational structure should be adaptable to environmental changes, it should remain steady during unfavorable 'conditions.

Check Your Progress 1

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. OD interventions refer to various activities which a consultant and client organisation perform for improving organisational performance through enabling organisational members better manage their behavior, their work group, and organisational culture.
2. Formalization refers to the extent to which jobs within the organisation are specialized.

4.5 PRINCIPLES OF ORGANISATION STRUCTURE

Modern organisational structures have evolved from several organisational theories, which have identified certain principles as basic to any organisation.

4.5.1 Specialisation

Specialisation facilitates division of work into units for efficient performance. According to the classical approach, work can be performed much better if it is

divided into components and people are encouraged to specialize by components. Work can be specialized both horizontally and vertically (Anderson, 1988). Vertical Specialisation in a research organisation refers to different kinds of work at different levels, such as project leader, scientist, researcher, field staff, etc. Horizontally, work is divided into departments like genetics, plant pathology, administration, accounts, etc.

Specialisation enables application of specialized knowledge which betters quality of work and improves organisational efficiency. At the same time, it can also influence fundamental work attitudes, relationships and communication. This may make coordination difficult and obstruct the functioning of the organisation. There are four main causal factors which could unfavorably affect attitudes and work styles. These are differences in:

- goal orientation;
- time orientation;
- inter-personal orientation; and
- the formality of structure (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967).

4.5.2 Coordination

Coordination refers to integrating the objectives and activities of specialized departments to realize broad strategic objectives of the organisation. It includes two basic decisions pertaining to:

1. which units or groups should be placed together; and
2. the patterns of relationships, information networks and communication (Anderson, 1988).

In agricultural research institutions, where most of the research is multi disciplinary but involves Specialisation, coordination. Of different activities important to achieve strategic objectives. Efficient coordination can also help in resolving conflict and disputes between scientists in a research organisation.

Hierarchy facilitates vertical coordination of various departments and their activities. Organisational theorists have over the years developed several principles relating to the hierarchy of authority for coordinating various activities. Some of the important principles are discussed below.

4.5.3 Unity of Command

Every person in an organisation should be responsible to one superior and receive orders from that person only. Fayol (1949) considered this to be the most important principle for efficient working and increased productivity in an organisation.

4.5.4 Scalar

Decision making authority and the chain of command in an organisation should flow in a straight line from the highest level to the lowest. The principle evolves from the principle of unit of command. However this may not always be possible, particularly in large organisations or in research institutions. Therefore Fayol (1949) felt that members; in such organisations could also communicate directly at the same level of hierarchy, with prior intimation to their superiors.

4.5.5 Responsibility and Authority

For successfully performing certain tasks, responsibility must be accompanied by proper authority. Those responsible for performance of tasks should also have the appropriate level of influence on decision making.

4.5.6 Span of Control

This refers to the number of specialized activities or individuals supervised by one person. Deciding the span of control is important for coordinating different types of activities effectively. According to Barkdull Organisational Development and Change (1963), some of the important situational factors which affect the span of control of a manager are:

- similarity of functions;
- proximity of the functions to each other and to the supervisor;
- complexity of functions;
- direction and control needed by subordinates;
- coordination required within a unit and between units;
- extent of planning required; and
- organisational help available for making decisions.

Check Your Progress 2

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. Span of Control refers to the number of specialized activities or individuals supervised by one person.
2. Coordination enables application of specialized knowledge which betters quality of work and improves organisational efficiency.

4.6 DEPARTMENTALISATION

Departmentalisation is a process of horizontal cleaning of different types of functions and activities on anyone level of the hierarchy. It is closely related to the classical bureaucratic principle of Specialisation (Luthans, 1986). Departmentalisation is conventionally based on purpose, product, process, function, personal things and place (Gullick and Urwick, 1937).

4.6.1 Functional Departmentalisation

This is the basic form of Departmentalisation. It refers to the grouping of activities or jobs involving common functions. In a research organisation the groupings could be research, production, agricultural engineering extension, rural marketing and administration.

4.6.2 Product Departmentalisation

It refers to the grouping of jobs and activities that are associated with a specific product. As organisations increase in size and diversify, functional departmentalisation may not be very effective. The organisational as to be further divided into separate units to limit the span of control of a manager to a manageable level (Luthans, 1986). In an agricultural research institution" functional departments can be further differentiated by products and purpose or type of research.

In contrast, to functional Departmentalisation, product-based Departmentalisation has the advantage of:

- less conflict between major sub-units;
- easier communication between sub-units;
- less complex coordination mechanisms;
- providing a training ground for top management;

- more customer orientation; and
- greater concern for long-term issues.

In contrast, functional Departmentalisation has the strength of:

- easier communication with sub-units;
- application of higher technical knowledge for solving problems;
- greater group and professional identification;
- less duplication of staff activities;
- higher product quality; and
- increased organisational efficiency (Filley, 1978).

4.6.3 Departmentalisation by Users

It is grouping of both activities and positions to make them compatible with the special needs of some specific groups of users.

4.6.4 Departmentalisation by Territory or Geography

It involves grouping of activities and positions at a given location to take advantage of local participation in decision making. The territorial units are under the control of a manager who is responsible for operations of the organisation at that location. In agricultural research institutions, regional research stations are set up to take advantage of specific agro-ecological environments. Such Departmentalisation usually offers economic advantage.

4.6.5 Departmentalisation by Process or Equipment

It refers to jobs and activities' which require a specific type of technology, machine or production process. Other common bases for Departmentalisation can be time of duty, number of employees market, distribution channel or services.

4.7 DE-CENTRALISATION AND CENTRALISATION

De-centralisation refers to decision making at lower levels in the hierarchy of authority. In contrast, decision making in a centralised of organisational structure at higher levels. The degree of centralisation and de-centralisation depend on the number of levels of hierarchy, degree of coordination, Specialisation and span of control. According to Luthans (1986), centralisation and de-centralisation could be according to:

- geographical or territorial concentration or dispersion of operations;
- functions; or
- extent of concentration or delegation of decision making powers.

4.8 STRATEGIC OD INTERVENTIONS

4.8.1 Strategic Planning

A dynamic process which defines the organisation's mission and vision sets goals and develops action steps to help an organisation focus its present and future resources toward fulfilling its vision. Many organisations today were facing external threats to their survival, whether it be from takeovers "technological obsolescence or global competition. In its infancy, OD would have responded to such challenges by preaching participative management, a not so subtle way of challenging top management to redistribute power to lower levels. During the later years, OD reversed

fields to serve the power structure through confining its techniques to lower levels and the bottom line, such as Quality of Work Life (QWL) programs. This subservient role for OD had continued up to recent times where the power structure tolerates and even encourages OD so long as it fine-tunes the existing situation without threatening the essence of the power system. Now, however, that essence is threatened by outside forces. A "new" OD is emerging to deal more directly with helping the power structure to change not only itself but also the strategic alignment of the firm with its environment. OD can, if properly devised, provide a more effective process than political bargaining for assisting the dominant coalition to address pressing strategic issues that have so far eluded formal approaches to strategic planning. OD must engage the most cherished agenda of the power elite- the strategy of the company, its top management structure for delivering on strategy and the manner in which they will lead.

4.8.2 Technology and OD Solutions

Element of OD may include finding ways to adapt to the changing context while maintaining and enhancing the organisation's integrity and internal integration. OD involves establishing structures, processes and a climate that allow it to effectively manage its important and pressing business (e.g. projects, problems, crises, etc.) while giving adequate attention to strategic issues (e.g., long term development and renewal, planning and envisioning, engaging new opportunities, crisis prevention, etc.). Technologies are also used to enable OD intervention and improve human connectivity better team work.

Check Your Progress 3

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. Strategic planning is a dynamic process which defines the organisation's mission and vision sets goals and develops action steps to help an organisation focus its present and future resources toward fulfilling its vision.
2. Centralisation refers to decision making at lower levels in the hierarchy of authority.

4.9 SENSITIVITY TRAINING

Sensitivity training is a method of laboratory training where an unstructured group of individuals exchange thoughts and feelings on a face-to-face basis. Sensitivity training helps give insight into how and why others feel the way they do on issues of mutual concern. Training in small groups in which people develop a sensitive awareness and understanding of themselves and of their relationships with others. Sensitivity training is based on research on human behavior that came out of efforts during World War II to ascertain whether or not an enemy's core beliefs and behavior could be modified by the application of certain psychological techniques. These techniques have been gradually perfected over the years by efforts of business and industry leaders to persuade people to buy products, including the radio and television industry to ascertain how an audience might be habituated to certain types of programming.

Kurt Lewin is credited with being the 'father' of sensitivity training in the United States. Laboratory Training began in 1946 when Kurt Lewin and his staff at the Research Center for Group Dynamics at Massachusetts Institute of Technology were training community leaders. A workshop was developed for the leaders to learn about leadership and to discuss problems. At the end of each date the researchers discussed privately what behaviors and group dynamics they had observed. The leaders asked permission to sit in on these feedback sessions. Reluctant at first, the researchers' family agreed. Thus the first T-group was formed in which people reacted to information about their own behavior.

Tavistock Clinic, an outgrowth of the Tavistock Institute of Medical Psychology, founded in 1920 in London, initiated sensitivity training in the United Kingdom in 1932, under the headship of a psychiatrist John Rawlings Rees. Dr. Rees conducted tests on American and British soldiers to ascertain whether, under conditions of induced and controlled stress, groups could be made to behave erratically. In particular they wanted to know whether people would let go even firmly held beliefs under 'peer pressure' to conform to a predetermined set of 'popular' beliefs. This Tavistock method was similar to those procedures, used in the mental hospitals' to correct the attitudes of prisoners; where, it was called re-education. Sensitivity training evolved in the United States of America; at Stanford's Research Institute's Center for the Behavioral Sciences, at the Sloan School at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, mid at the various National Training Laboratories (NTLs), where concepts popularly known as 'T-Groups' (therapy/ groups) and 'sensitivity training' were developed.

A controlled stress situation is created by a group leader ('facilitator') with the ostensible goal of achieving a consensus or agreement which has, in reality, been predetermined. By using peer pressure in gradually increasing increments, up to and including yelling at, cursing at, and isolating the holdouts, weaker individuals were intimidated into caving in, they emerge with a new value structure in place, and the goal is achieved. The method was refined and later popularized by other schools of behavioral science, such as Ensalen Institute, the NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Sciences, and the Western Training Laboratories in Group Development.

Sensitivity training is a type of experience-based learning in which participants work together in a small group over an extended period of time learning through analysis of their own experiences. The primary setting is the T Group (T for training) in which a staff member sets up an ambiguous situation which allows participants to choose the roles they will play while observing and reacting to the behavior of other members and in turn having an impact on them. The perceptions and reactions are the data for learning. T-Group theory emphasizes each participant's responsibility for his own learning, the staff person's role of facilitating examination and understanding, provision for detailed examination required to draw valid generalizations, creation of authentic interpersonal relationships which facilitate honest and direct communication, and the development of new skills in working with people. Goals of sensitivity training are to allow participants to gain a picture of the impact that they make on others and to facilitate -the study of group dynamics and of larger organisational concepts such as status, influence, division of labor, and styles of managing conflict. Some believe that sensitivity is talent, while others believed that sensitivity is something which is not so much developed, as allowed to exist. It is a trait called "empathy". Sensitivity is found wanting in people as they are often preoccupied with their own problems that they don't "have time" for others. Their tension disallows them to pay attention to someone or to relate what the person is saying. Most believe that sensitivity to others could be developed. Some people have this ability, but most just fake it. Sensitivity training involves small group of individuals focusing on the here and now behavior and attitudes in the group. In short, the individuals discuss whatever comes naturally in the group. For example, one participant might criticize an opinion expressed by another, and both the opinion and the criticism could become the focus of the entire group. The intent of this process, which might take several days at 12 hours or more per day, is for participants to learn how they affect others and how others affect them. In turn, "sensitivity" learning can help participants become more skilled in diagnosing interpersonal behavior and attitudes on the job.

Sensitivity could be enhanced by adopting the following view points:

1. Everybody is entitled to their feelings no matter how illogical they are;
2. There is no such thing as 'blame'... Everybody involved is equally at fault;

3. A person should not attack, but express their feelings about others' actions;
4. Leaving a problem unresolved will make it worse with time;
5. Nobody is perfect which includes one self.

Encounter Groups were nontraditional attempts at psychotherapy that offered short-term treatment for members without serious psychiatric problems. These groups were also known as sensitivity (or sensory) awareness groups and training groups (or T-groups). Encounter groups were an outgrowth of studies conducted at the National Training Laboratories in by Kurt Lewin. The use of continual feedback, participation, and observation by the group encouraged the analysis and interpretation of their problems. Other methods for the group dynamics included Gestalt therapy (working with one person at a time with a primary goal of increasing awareness of oneself in the moment, also known as holistic therapy) and meditation. Encounter groups were popularized by people such as Dr. Fritz Perls and Dr. Will Schutz (of the Esalen institute) and, had their greatest impact on the general population in the 1960s and 1970s. These groups fell out of favor with the psychiatric community because of criticism that many of the group leaders at the time Were not trained in traditional group therapy and that the groups could sometimes cause great harm to people with serious emotional problems.

4.9.1 Survey Feedback

Survey feedback technology is probably the most powerful way that OD professionals involve very large numbers of people in diagnosing situations that need attention within the organisation and to plan and implement improvements. The general method requires developing reliable, valid questionnaires, collecting data from all personnel, analyzing it for trends and feeding the results back to everyone for action planning. "Walk-the-talk" assessment: Most organisations have at least some leaders who say one thing and, do another. This intervention, which can be highly threatening, concentrates on measuring the extent to which the people within the organisation are behaving with integrity.

Survey Feedback is OD

The most important step in the diagnostic process is feeding back diagnostic information to the client organisation. Although the data may have been collected with the client's help, the OD practitioner usually is responsible for organizing and presenting them to the client. A flexible and potentially, powerful technique for data feedback that has arisen out of the wide use of questionnaires in OD work is known as survey feedback. Survey feedback is a process of collecting feeding back data from an organisation or department through the use of a questionnaire or survey. The data are analyzed, feedback to organisation members, and used by them to diagnose the organisation and to develop intervention to improve it.

Survey feedback is a major technique in the history and development of OD. It is a powerful intervention tool and it can reach large numbers of participants. There are five general steps included in a normal survey feedback. The first involves gathering members of the firm in order to plan the survey. This is when the objectives of the survey is determined. The second step involves a survey to all of the organisation's members, rather than restricting it to managers and coordinators. Next step would be to analyze the data reported through the surveys. In the fourth step the data is feedback to the organisation. Finally, the rums should hold meetings to discuss the feedback and try to determine what, if any, action is needed and how to implement it. OD practitioners could be more involved in some of these steps by training to go to the firm and help them interpret the feedback and devise intervention plans.

4.9.2 Limitations

There are limitations to survey feedback that OD practitioners should be aware of. These include:

1. **Ambiguity of purpose:** There can be disagreement over how the data should be analyzed and returned.
2. **Distrust:** OD practitioners need to ensure participants that their contributions are confidential.
3. **Unacceptable topics:** Some firms have topics they do not want to explore, which constricts the scope of the survey.
4. **Organisational disturbance:** This process may disturb the employees, and possibly the whole firm.

4.10 PROCESS CONSULTATION

The concept of process consultation as a mode of inquiry grew out of insight that to be helpful one had to learn enough about the system to understand where it needed help and that this required a period of very low key inquiry oriented diagnostic interventions designed to have a minimal impact on the processes being inquired about (Schein, 1988). Process consultation as a philosophy acknowledges that the consultant is not an expert on anything but how to be helpful and starts with total ignorance of what is actually going on in the client system. One of the skills, then, of process consulting is to "access one's ignorance," to let go of the expert or doctor role and get attuned to the client system as much as possible. Only when one has genuinely understood the problem and what kind of help is needed, can one begin to recommend and prescribe. Even then it is likely that they will not fit the client system's culture and will therefore, not be refrozen even if initially adopted. Instead a better model of help is start out with the intention of creating in insider/outsider team that is responsible for diagnostic interventions and all subsequent interventions. When the consultant and the client have joint ownership of the change process, both the validity of the diagnostic interventions and the subsequent change interventions will be greatly enhanced. The flow of a change or managed learning process then is one of continuous diagnosis as one continuously intervening. The consultants must be highly attuned to their own insights into what is going on and his or her own impact on the client system. Stage models which emphasize up front contracting do not deal adequately with the reality that the psychological contract is a constantly evolving one and that the degree to which it needs to be formalized depends very much on the culture of the organisation.

Lewin's concept of action research is absolutely fundamental to any model of working with human systems and such action research must be viewed from a clinical perspective as a set of interventions that must be guided primarily by their presumed impact on the client system. The immediate implication of this is that in training consultants and change agents one should put much more emphasis on the clinical criteria of how different interventions will affect client systems than on the canons of how to gather scientifically valid information, calculate members should be sent into field internships as participant observers and helpers before they are taught all the canons of how to gather and analyze data. Both are necessary, but the order of priority is backward in most training programs.

4.10.1 Edgar Schein's Process Consultation

One cannot understand a System until one tries to change it. Literature is filled with the notion that one first diagnoses a system and then intervenes to change it. This basic model perpetuates a fundamental error in thinking, an error that Lewin learned to avoid in his own change project and that led him to the seminal concept of "action research." The conceptual error is to separate the notion of diagnosis from the notion

of intervention. That distinction comes from scientific endeavors where a greater separation exists between the researcher and the researched, particularly where the physical processes are assumed to be somewhat independent of the psychological processes. The consulting industry has perpetuated this model by proposing as a major part of most projects a diagnostic, phase in which large numbers of interviews, questionnaires and observations are made the basis of a set of recommendations given to the client. Consultants differ on whether they feel they should also be accountable for the implementation of the recommendations, but they tend to agree that the consultant's basic job is done with a set of recommendations "for future intervention." If interviews or surveys are done, the attempt is made to be as scientifically objective as possible in gathering the data and to interfere minimally during this phase with the operation of the organisation. If one cannot understand an organisation without trying to change it, it would not be possible to make an adequate diagnosis without intervening. Either consultants using the classical model are getting an incorrect picture of the organisation, or they are intervening but are denying it by labeling it "Just Diagnosis". This risk forces the diagnostician to think about the nature of the "diagnostic intervention" and to apply clinical criteria what is safe, rather than purely scientific criteria of what would seemingly give the most definitive answer.

OD specialist must approach consulting work from a clinical perspective that starts with the assumption that everything to do with a client system is an intervention and that, unless intervened, will not learn what some of the essential dynamics of the system really are starting from that assumption, there is a need to develop criteria that balance the amount of information gained from an intervention with the amount of risk to the client from making that intervention. If the consultant is going to interview all the members of top management, he must ask whether the amount of information gained will be worth the risk of perturbing the system by interviewing everybody and if the answer is "yes," must make a further determination of what is to be learned from the reactions of the management to being interviewed. That is, the interview process itself will change the system and the nature of that change will provide some of the most important data about how the system works. The best information about the dynamics of the organisation will be how the organisation deals with the consultant, because his or her very presence is *de facto* an intervention. Yet the focus in many traditional consultation models is on the "objective data obtained in the interview" with nary a reference to how the interviewer about the process and what could be inferred from the way he or she was received.

'Human systems cannot be treated with high level of objectivity' is, therefore, an important insight that is all too often ignored in our change and consultation literature. In practice change agents have learned from their own experience that "diagnostic" activities such as observations, interviews and questionnaires are powerful interventions and that the process of learning about a system and changing that system are, in fact, one and the same. This insight has many ramifications, particularly for the ethics of research and consulting.

Many researchers and consultants assume that they can "objectively" gather data and arrive at a diagnosis without having already changed the system. In fact the method of gathering data influences the system and therefore, must be considered carefully. For example, asking someone in a questionnaire how they feel about their boss gets the respondent thinking about an issue that he or she might not have focused on previously and it might get them talking to others about the question in a way that would create a common attitude that was not there before.

4.11 TEAM BUILDING

Richard Beckhard, one of the founders of the discipline referred to as organisation development gave a systematic framework for the most effective interventions to

achieve positive organisation change. Beckhard's team development model serves as a guide for executives and project managers. There are a variety of situations where new teams are formed. The project based, cross-functional work team has become the basis of industry in the 1990's. Virtual team organisation is rapidly becoming the model for flexibility and agility in organizing quickly and effectively to get jobs done. new teams usually have a clear task focus in the early going and there is usually a clear understanding of the short term goals. The new team members are also generally technically competent and there usually is a challenge in the project that will draw on their technical capabilities. While the early activities of a team are clearly focused on task and work issues, relationship problems tend to develop as they do in any human system. By the time these interpersonal issues surface the team may be well along in its activities. The issues may become very difficult and very costly to work out later in the game. There is a significant benefit if a new team takes short time at the beginning of its life to examine collaboratively how it is going to work together. Beckhard provides a tool to set the stage for most effective team-work and high performance. Team Buildings an OD intervention cab take many forms. The most common pattern is beginning with interviews and other preliminary work, followed by a one-to three-day session. During the meeting the group diagnoses its function as a unit and plans improvements in its operating procedures.

Check Your Progress 4

Fill in the blanks:

1. is probably the most powerful way that OD professionals involve very large numbers of people in diagnosing situations that need attention within the organisation and to plan and implement improvements.
2. T-Group session composition is

4.12 LET US SUM UP

This lesson examines the various components of an OD process i.e., the diagnostic component, action or intervention component and the process-maintenance component. The diagnostic component tries to find out about the original state of the system and how the remedial action plans could affect them. The action or intervention component refers to the various OD interventions which try to improve the effectiveness of the organisational functioning. The various OD interventions are discussed .The different classifications of the OD interventions are also discussed in details and how these interventions are targeted towards individuals, groups and organisation itself with an objective to improve organisational effectiveness.

4.13 LESSON END ACTIVITY

Do organisation development consultants really matter in designing and implementing organisation development intervention in an organisational context? Discuss.

4.14 KEYWORDS

Process consultation: A set of activities on the part of the consultant.

Structure: Arrangement of a system's parts.

Team Building: The process of helping a workgroup become more effective in accomplishing its tasks.

Survey Feedback: A type of data based intervention that flows from surveys of the members of a system on some subject.

4.15 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What do you mean by OD interventions? How can they be classified?
2. “Sensitivity training is the most controversial technique for behavioral change. On the one hand, it helps in improving psychological make-up. On the other hand, it ‘creates psychological problems.’” Discuss this statement in the light of contributions of sensitivity training.
3. What are the objectives of sensitivity training? Discuss the process involved in sensitivity training.

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

CYP 1

1. T, 2. T.

CYP 2

1. T, 2. F

CYP 3

1. T, 2. F.

CYP 4

1. Survey feedback
2. 10-15

4.16 SUGGESTED READINGS

French, Wendell L., & Cecil H. (1996), *Organisation Development: Behavioral Science Interventions for Organisation Improvement* (5th Edition), New Delhi, India: Prentice Hall of India.

Cummings, Thomas G., & Worley, Christopher G. (2000), *Organisation Development and Change* (7th Edition), South-Western Educational Publishing.

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LESSON

5

TEAM AND THIRD PARTY PEACE MAKING INTERVENTIONS

CONTENTS

- 5.0 Aims and Objectives
- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Team Interventions
 - 5.2.1 Cross-Functional Teams
 - 5.2.2 High Performance Teams
- 5.3 Broad Team Building Interventions
 - 5.3.1 Varieties of Team Building Interventions in a Formal Group
- 5.4 A Gestalt Approach to Team Building
 - 5.4.1 Techniques and Exercises used in Team Building
- 5.5 Inter Group Interventions
- 5.6 Third Party Peace Making Interventions
 - 5.6.1 Walton's Approach to Third Party Peace Making
- 5.7 Let us Sum up
- 5.8 Lesson End Activity
- 5.9 Keywords
- 5.10 Questions for Discussion
- 5.11 Suggested Readings

5.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- The broad teams, intergroup and third party peace making interventions
- The major approaches to team building
- Strategies of reducing intergroup conflicts are also briefly covered

5.1 INTRODUCTION

A team as we all know can be defined as “grouped persons with complementary skills and who are committed to common goals and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable”.

Collaborative management of work team culture is a fundamental emphasis of organizational development programs. Generally the techniques and the theory of understanding and improving performance comes from the laboratory training movement coupled with research in the area of group dynamics.

5.2 TEAM INTERVENTIONS

The OD team interventions involve working with the cross-functional self managed and high performance team. We will briefly define them as follows:

5.2.1 Cross-Functional Teams

Cross-functional teams are typically comprised of individuals who have a functional home base-e.g. manufacturing, designing, marketing. HR and who meet regularly to solve ongoing challenges requiring input from a number of functional areas such teams might be temporary or permanent. Cross-functional teams are widely used in the organizations, and OD approaches have great utility in the formation and functioning of these teams.

Large companies such as Motorola, Ford, 3M, and General Electric as well as many small and medium organizations have them.

5.2.2 High Performance Teams

High performance teams reflects strong extension of the basic characteristics of the teams: with deeper sense of purpose, more ambitious performance goals, more complete approaches and interchangeable as well as complementary skills.

Team interventions in OD tend to be in congruence with the characteristics of the high performance teams.

5.3 BROAD TEAM BUILDING INTERVENTIONS

The most important single group of interventions in OD are teambuilding activities, the goals of which are the improvement and increased effectiveness of various teams within the organizations.

Team interventions are typically directed towards four main areas:

1. Diagnosis
2. Task accomplishments
3. Team relationship
4. Team and organization processes

5.3.1 Varieties of Team Building Interventions in a Formal Group

- a) **Formal Group Diagnostic Meeting:** The purpose of the formal group diagnostic meetings is to conduct a general critique of the performance of the group, that is to take stock of “where we are going” and how we are doing, its strengths and the problems to be identified and then planning for a future course of action the secret of its success lies on the fact that the meetings are for the purpose of identifying problems and not solving the problem.
- b) **Formal Group Team Building:** The group thus works on agenda items and the items that emerge from the interaction of the participants.

The formal group teambuilding meetings have the goal of improving the team’s effectiveness through the better management of task demands, relationship demands and group processes. These meetings are usually initiated by the managers in consultation with the third party. The idea is then tested for reactions within the group, time taken may range from one to three days and the session should be held away from the work place.

- c) **Process Consultation Interventions:** The process consultation model is similar to the team building interventions except that the process consultation places greater

emphasis on diagnosing and understanding process events. The consultant's role is non-directive and questioning as he or she gets the groups to solve their problems.

Schien describes the kinds of interventions taken by the process consultant as:

- a) Agenda setting
- b) Feedback of observations or other data
- c) Coaching or counseling of individuals
- d) Structural suggestions pertaining to group membership, communication or interaction patterns, allocation of responsibility.

Check Your Progress 1

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. The formal group teambuilding meetings have the goal of improving the team's effectiveness through the better management of task demands, relationship demands and group processes.
2. The team building interventions except that the process consultation places no emphasis on diagnosing and understanding process events.

5.4 A GESTALT APPROACH TO TEAM BUILDING

A team building that focuses more on the individuals than the groups is the gestalt approach to OD. The major advocate of this orientation is Stanley M. Herman, a management and OD Consultant. He applies a Gestalt orientation to organization development, especially in working with leader subordinate relations and team building to make the individual stronger, more authentic and more in touch with the individual's own feelings.

5.4.1 Techniques and Exercises used in Team Building

1. **Role Analysis Technique (RAT):** It is designed to clarify role expectation and obligations of team members to improve team effectiveness.
2. **Interdependency Exercise:** It is a useful intervention if the team members have a desire to improve cooperation among themselves and among their units.
3. **A Role Negotiation Technique:** Role negotiation intervenes directly in the relationship of power, authority and influence within the group. The change effort is directed at the work relationships among members for one another and their personal feelings about one another.
4. **Responsibility Charting:** This technique called responsibility charting helps to clarify who is responsible for what on various decisions and action.
5. **Visioning:** It the term used for an intervention in which group members in one or more organizational groups develop and describe their vision of what they want they want the organization to be like in the future. This concept was given by Ronald Lippit.
6. **Force Field Analysis:** This is probably the oldest interventions in the OD practitioner's kit bag. It is a device for understanding a problematic situation and planning corrective actions. This technique is excellent for diagnosing change situations. It is a team intervention because it can be very exciting when used by the groups.

5.5 INTER GROUP INTERVENTIONS

The focus of this teambuilding group of OD interventions is on improving intergroup relations. the goals of these activities are to increase communications and interactions between work related groups to reduce the amount of dysfunctional competition. organization development methods provide ways of increasing intergroup cooperation and communication.

The interventions are to deal with the verities of groups:

1. Groups where relations between groups are strained or overtly hostile.
2. Groups that have decided to work on improving their intergroup relations come together, time and again these kinds of structured intergroup activities have been found empirically to bring about better intergroup relations in the diverse situations.

5.6 THIRD PARTY PEACE MAKING INTERVENTIONS

Conflict management can be a major component in the professional life of the OD practitioner. OD interventions can be used when two persons are in conflicts. The major theory underlying this concept is given below:

5.6.1 Walton's Approach to Third Party Peace Making

R.E Walton has presented a statement of theory and practice for third party peacemaking interventions. This intervention technique is related to inter group relations described as possessing the basic feature i.e, confrontation where the two principals must be willing to confront the fact that conflict exists and that it has consequences for the effectiveness of the two parties involved.

He proposed a diagnostic model of interpersonal conflict based on four basic elements:

1. The conflict issue.
2. The precipitating circumstances.
3. The conflict relevant acts of the principals.
4. The consequences of the conflicts.

Intervention tactics of the third party consist of structuring confrontation and dialogue between the principals. The third party will intervene directly and indirectly in facilitating dialogue between the principals. He would be setting time boundaries on the interaction and meet on the neutral turf.

Check Your Progress 2

Fill in the blanks:

1. have strong personal commitment to each other and are committed to others growth and success.
2. can be a major component in the professional life of the OD practitioner.
3. is designed to clarify role expectation obligation of team's members to improve team effectiveness.

5.7 LET US SUM UP

The lesson contains the description of the OD interventions, its classification .In addition to this light has been thrown on the understanding of teams, team building interventions because team building produces powerful positive results and it is an

intervention in harmony with the nature of organization as a social system. In teams members are interrelated to each other and must coordinate and integrate individual efforts in order to achieve successful task accomplishments. It is discussed and analysed that team building interventions are at the centre of OD activities some emphasis has been laid on the intergroup and third party peace making interventions and to learn how these interventions actually reduce intergroup and interpersonal conflict and improve relationships.

5.8 LESSON END ACTIVITY

Write down the characteristics you would like to see in ABC Ltd, Co. in two years from now. Use the following categories which might include products, customers and supplier relationships, human resource practices, leadership styles and so on.

Time for the activity is 90 minutes.

5.9 KEYWORDS

High performance teams: Strong extension of the basic characteristics of the teams.

Team interventions: Working with the cross-functional, self-managed and high performance teams.

5.10 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Discuss briefly the techniques used in team building interventions.
2. Write short notes on:
 - a) Cross-functional teams.
 - b) Third party peace making interventions.
 - c) Process consultations interventions.

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

CYP 1

1. T, 2. F.

CYP 2

1. High performance teams
2. Conflict management
3. Role Analysis Technique

5.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

French, Wendell L., & Cecil H. (1996), *Organization Development: Behavioral Science Interventions for Organization Improvement* (5th Edition), New Delhi, India: Prentice Hall of India.

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LESSON

6

COMPREHENSIVE OD INTERVENTIONS

CONTENTS

- 6.0 Aims and Objectives
- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Comprehensive OD Interventions
- 6.3 Beckhard's Confrontation Meetings
- 6.4 Strategic Management Activities
 - 6.4.1 Stream Analysis
 - 6.4.2 Appreciative Inquiry
- 6.5 Grid Organisation Development
 - 6.5.1 Process of Grid Organisation Development
 - 6.5.2 Evaluation of Grid Organisation Development
- 6.6 Transorganisational Development
- 6.7 Let us Sum up
- 6.8 Lesson End Activity
- 6.9 Keywords
- 6.10 Questions for Discussion
- 6.11 Suggested Readings

6.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- The extent of OD interventions to which the total organisation is involved
- Strategic management activities, real time strategic change, stream analysis appreciative inquiry
- Grid OD, trans-organisational development

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Comprehensive OD interventions are very much alive and visible in contemporary OD practice. Some comprehensive interventions involve the whole system. These comprehensive interventions involve a collaborative effort between the client organisation(s) and the consultants(s) in both diagnosis and interventions. However it must fit the realities being experienced by the client system and must engage the cooperation and goodwill of client system members.

6.2 COMPREHENSIVE OD INTERVENTIONS

The comprehensive OD interventions is in terms of the extent to which the total organisation is involved. They are as follows:

“Getting the whole system in the room”

This concept has a long venerable history, including the art and science of conference planning and running large meetings.

The whole system refers to:

- a) Managers of all of the functional areas in a business.
- b) Representatives of top management, a cross section of employees from all levels and suppliers and customer representatives.
- c) Directors of all the social service agencies in a community.

Search Conferences and Future Search Conferences

Search conferences largely emerged with consulting practices in Great Britain, Europe and Australia while future search conferencing have been largely an American phenomenon. The basic design of the search conference has three following phases:

Phase 1. Environment Appreciation.

Phase 2. System analysis.

Phase 3. Integration of system and environment.

The search conference is normally a two and a half day event ,twenty to thirty people are selected to participate based on such criteria as their knowledge of the system and their potential for taking responsibility for implementation.

Future search conferences are the one that integrates ideas from Ronald Lippit. Lippit and Lindman finding says that when people plan presents action by working backwards from what is really desired, they develop energy, enthusiasm, optimism and high commitment.

According to the Weisboard’s future search conference model consists of following steps:

1. The consultants.
2. 50-60 people are invited.
3. The conference has four or five segments each lasting up to half a day.
4. The first major activity focuses on the past.
5. The second major activity focus on the present factors.
6. The third major activity focuses on the future.

6.3 BECKHARD’S CONFRONTATION MEETINGS

The confrontation meeting developed by Richard Beckhard, is one day meeting of the entire management of an organisation in which they make reading of their own organisational health.

This intervention is an important one in organisation development; it is a quick, simple and reliable way in which to generate data about an organisation and to set action plan for organisational improvement.

The steps involved in the confrontation meetings are:

1. Climate setting (duration is 45 to 60 min).

2. Information collecting (duration is 1 hr)-Small group of 7-8 members are formed on the basis of heterogeneity of composition.
3. Information sharing (duration is 1 hr)
4. Priority setting and group action planning (duration is 1 hr and 15 minutes)
5. Immediate follow-up by Top Team. (1 to 3 hrs)
6. Progress Review. (2hours)
7. The fourth major activity focuses on next generation step.

Before the conference ends, volunteers agree to document the meeting, communicate with others, and to carry forward the next action step.

These above mentioned steps represent the flow of the activities for the confrontation meeting and it is believed to be the excellent way to get fast results leading towards organisation improvement.

Check Your Progress 1

Fill in the blanks:

1. The confrontation meeting developed by, is one day meeting of the entire management of an organisation in which they make reading of their own organisational health.
2. According to the Weisboard's future search conference model consists of

6.4 STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

Many OD programs and interventions are directed towards the internal workings of the organisation. OD thus also need to develop outward looking interventions directed towards environmental analysis and strategic planning to ensure that the organisation is in synchrony with its environment.

A strategic planning technique developed by Thomas uses a series of two day meeting with the top policy maker.

Open system policy is another technique developed by Charles Krone where the top team develops a description of the expectations and environmental demands of environmental domains and internal groups.

6.4.1 Stream Analysis

As developed by Jerry Porras, stream analysis, although complicated and somewhat difficult to use is a valuable intervention.

Model for thinking about change and for managing change. Stream analysis is a system for graphically displaying the problem of the organisation, examining the interconnections between the problems, identifying the core problems and graphically tracking the corrective actions taken to solve the problem.

As the problems are categorized, they are placed on the stream charts in their appropriate columns. An analysis of the entire set usually reveals much overlap among the problems and then helps to segregate the unique issues for the considerations.

6.4.2 Appreciative Inquiry

An intervention broader than the appreciation and concerns exercise is Appreciative Inquiry (AI) developed by Frank Barret and David Cooperrider. This major

intervention is based on the assertion that the organisation is a miracle to be embraced rather than a problem to be solved.

6.5 GRID ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT

Grid organisation development was developed by Blake and Mouton. It is a comprehensive and systematic OD programme which aims at individuals, groups and the organisation as a whole. It utilizes a considerable number of instruments enabling individuals and groups to assess their own strengths and weaknesses; focuses on skills. Knowledge and processes necessary for effectiveness at the individual group Inter-group and total organisation levels. Its specific objectives are as follows:

1. To study the organisation as an interactive system and apply techniques of analysis in diagnosing its problems.
2. To understand the importance and rationale of systematic change.
3. To evaluate the styles of leadership and techniques of participation to produce desirable results.

6.5.1 Process of Grid Organisation Development

The basic content of grid organisation development is managerial grid as discussed earlier. The whole orientation is to develop managerial style through the application of behavioral science knowledge. The grid organisation development consists of six phases:

1. **Managerial Grid:** It covers various aspects of assessing managerial styles, problem solving communication skills and teamwork. The individuals try to learn to become 9.9 managers by practice.
2. **Teamwork Development:** The focus in this stage is to develop teamwork by analyzing team culture, traditions and the alike. The skills relating to planning, objective setting and problem solving are also developed.
3. **Inter-group Development:** At this phase the focus is on inter group behavior and relations. The thrust is on moving groups from conflict to co-operation. Each group separately analyses the ideal inter group relationship. Action steps to move towards the ideal are developed and assigned to individuals who may be engaged in building cooperative inter group relationships.
4. **Developing Ideal Strategic Corporate Model:** At this stage the focus shifts to the total organisation and to develop skills necessary for organisational excellence. The action is designed to identify the characteristics of the ideal organisation. The members of the organisation are trained for achieving this excellence.
5. **Implementing the Ideal Strategic Model:** The implementation stage includes the building of the organisation on the model of ideal organisation on the basis of concepts developed under stage 4. Each group may be given assignment to evolve strategy for making ideal organisation with the help of the consultant. The strategy is then implemented.
6. **Systematic Critique:** In this stage the various efforts from phase 1 to phase 5 are evaluated and critical analysis is made. The analysis will bring out the shortcomings that may be there. In this light the various programmes may be redesigned.

6.5.2 Evaluation of Grid Organisation Development

Most of the support to grid OD has come from its originators-Blake and Mouton. They have maintained that "managerial and team effectiveness can be taught to managers with outside assistance. Furthermore, it appears that this type of educational

strategy can help to make significant contributions to organisational effectiveness. In a later work they maintained the same stand.

Though research studies on the application of grid OD are not many some of them have not supported the claims made by Blake and Mouton. Grid OD programme is criticized on the basis that it lacks contingency approach and, therefore, it discounts reality. Further, grid OD is a non-rigorous method. In spite of these criticisms, grid OD has some positive contributions for organisational effectiveness.

6.6 TRANSORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

This concept is an extension of OD, which constitutes a distinct level of practice commensurate with the dynamics emerging at this higher level of social system. It is an important form of organisational change process for transorganisational systems. It includes three phases:

Phase 1. Potential member organisations are identified.

Phase 2. Member organisations are convened.

Phase 3. The TS is organized.

However it requires an active role from the practitioner as they actually do with OD.

Check Your Progress 2

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. In stream analysis technique, the focus is directed towards solving the core problem.
2. Grid Organisation Development was developed by Blake and Mouton.

6.7 LET US SUM UP

Comprehensive OD interventions are very much visible in the contemporary OD practice. Some like Beckhard's confrontation meeting and strategic management activities involve all of top management or in case of smaller organisations, the entire management group.

Future search conferences tend to involve a wide spectrum of organisational members. Appreciative inquiry focuses on the strengths of the organisation and what is most valued by its members.

Transorganisational development is aimed at assisting organisations in forming and developing alliances.

Like all OD interventions these comprehensive interventions must involve a collaborative effort between client organisations and the consultants in both diagnosis and interventions.

6.8 LESSON END ACTIVITY

"The single most significant premise on which Grid Organisation Development rests is that the 9,9 way of doing business is acknowledged universally by managers as the soundest way to manage to achieve excellence." Comment.

6.9 KEYWORDS

Confrontation meeting: A structured intervention that help two groups resolve interdepartmental misunderstandings or conflict.

Transorganisational developmental: An intervention concerned with helping organisations join into partnership with other organisations to perform tasks or solve complex problems.

6.10 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is grid organisation development? What are the processes involved in grid organisation development? How does it help in improving individual performance in an organisation?
2. Discuss briefly the concept of comprehensive OD interventions?

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

CYP 1

1. Richard Beckhard
2. 50-60 people

CYP 2

1. T, 2. T

6.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

Richard Beckhard, *The Confrontation Meeting*, Harvard Business Review, 45, pp 149-155.

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LESSON

7

PLANNED CHANGE

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7.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Meaning of change, various forces of change
- Process of change, theories and practices at the various level
- Nature and process of planned change

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Change is inevitable in the life of an individual or organization. In today's business world, most of the organizations are facing a dynamic and changing business environment. They should either change or die, there is no third alternative. Organizations that learn and cope with change will thrive and flourish and others who fail to do so will be wiped out. The major forces which make the changes not only desirable but inevitable are technological, economic, political, social, legal, international and labour market environments. Recent surveys of some major

organizations around the world have shown that all successful organizations are continuously interacting with the environment and making changes in their structural design or philosophy or policies or strategies as the need be.

According to BARNEY AND GRIFFIN, "The primary reason cited for organizational problems is the failure by managers to properly anticipate or respond to forces for change."

Thus, in a dynamic society surrounding today's organizations, the question whether change will occur is no longer relevant. Instead, the issue is how managers cope with the inevitable barrage of changes that confront them daily in attempting to keep their organizations viable and current. Otherwise the organizations will find it difficult or impossible to survive.

7.2 MEANING OF CHANGE

Unlike other concepts in organizational behavior, not many definitions are available to define the term "change". In very simple words we can say that change means the alternation of status quo or making things different.

"The term change refers to any alternation which occurs in the overall work environment of an organization."

To quote another definition "when an organizational system is disturbed by some internal or external force, change occurs frequently. Change, as a process, is simply modification of the structure or process of a system. It may be good or bad, the concept is descriptive only."

From the above definitions we can conclude that change has the following characteristics:

- Change results from the pressure of both internal and external forces in the organization. It disturbs the existing equilibrium or status quo in the organization.
- The change in any part of the organization affects the whole of the organization.
- Change will affect the various parts of the organization in varying rates of speed and degrees of significance. Changes may affect people, structure, technology and other elements of the organization.
- Change may be reactive or proactive. When change is brought about due to the pressure of external forces, it is called reactive change. Proactive change is initiated by the management on its own to increase organizational effectiveness.

7.3 FORCES FOR CHANGE

There are a number of factors both internal and external which affect organizational functioning. Any change in these factors necessitates changes in an organization. The more important factors are as follows:

7.3.1 External Forces

External environment affects the organizations both directly and indirectly. The organizations do not have any control over the variables in such an environment. Accordingly, the organization cannot change the environment but must change themselves to align with the environment. A few of these factors are:

1. **Technology:** Technology is the major external force which calls for change. The adoption of new technology such as computers, telecommunication systems and flexible manufacturing operations has profound impact on the organizations that adopt them.

The substitution of computer control for direct supervision is resulting in wider spans of control for managers and flatter organizations. Sophisticated information technology is also making organizations more responsive: Both the organizations and their employees will have to become more adaptable. Many jobs will be reshaped. Individuals, who do routine, specialized and narrow jobs will be replaced by workers who can perform multiple in decision making. Managements will have to increase their investment in training and education of the employees because employees skills are becoming obsolete more quickly Japanese firms have progressed rapidly because they are very fast in adopting new technological innovations.

2. **Marketing Conditions:** Marketing conditions are no more static. They are in the process of rapid change as the needs, desires and expectations of the customers change rapidly and frequently. Moreover, there is tough competition in the market as the market is flooded with new products and innovations everyday new methods of advertising are used to influence the customers. Today the concept of consumerism has gained considerable importance and thus, the consumers be treated as the kings.

Moreover, the competition today has some significant new twists; most markets will soon be international because of decreasing transportation and communication costs and the increasing export orientation of business. The global economy will make sure that competitors are likely to come across the ocean as well as from across town. Successful organizations will be those who can change in response to the competition. Organizations that are not ready for these new sources of competition in the next decade may not exist for long.

3. **Social Changes:** Social and cultural environment also suggest some changes that the organizations have to adjust for. There are a lot of social changes due to spread of education, knowledge and a lot of government efforts. Social quality e.g. equal opportunities to women, equal pay for equal work, has posed new challenges for the management. The management has to follow certain social norms in shaping its employment, marketing and other policies.
4. **Political Forces:** Political environment within and outside the country have an important impact on business especially the transnational corporations. The interference of the government in business has increased tremendously in most of the countries. The corporate sector is regulated by a lot of laws and regulations. The organizations do not have any control over the political and legal forces, but they have to adapt to meet the pressure of these forces.

In our country, the new economic policy has liberalized the economy to a large extent. Many of the regulatory laws have been amended to reduce the interference of the Government in business. An organization is also affected by the world politics. Some of the changes in the world politics which have affected business all over the world are e.g. the reunification of Germany, Iraq's invasion of Kuwait and the break of Soviet Union.

7.3.2 Internal Forces

Internal forces are too many and it is very difficult to list them comprehensively. However, major internal causes are explained as follows:

1. **Nature of the Work Force:** The nature of work force has changed over a passage of time. Different work values have been expressed by different generations. Workers who are in the age group of 50 plus value loyalty to their employers. Workers in their mid thirties to mid forties are loyal to themselves only. The youngest generation of workers is loyal to their careers.

The profile of the work force is also changing fast. The new generation of workers has better educational qualifications; they place greater emphasis on human values and question authority of managers. Then behavior has also become very complex and leading them towards organizational goals is a challenge for the managers. The employee turnover is also very high which again puts strain on the management. The work force is changing, with a rapid increase, in the percentage of women employees, which in turn means, more dual career couples. Organizations have to modify transfer and promotion policies as well as make child care and elder care available, in order to respond to the needs of two career couple.

2. ***Change in Managerial Personnel:*** Change in managerial personnel is another force which brings about change in organization. Old managers are replaced by new managers which are necessitated because of promotion, retirement, transfer or dismissal. Each manager brings his own ideas and way of working in the organization. The informal relationships change because of changes in managerial personnel. Sometimes, even though there is no change in personnel, but their attitudes change. As a result, the organization has to change in accordingly.

Changes in the organization are more fast when top executives change. Change in top executives will lead to important changes in the organization in terms of organization design, allocation of work to individuals, delegation of authority, installation of controls etc. All these changes will be necessitated because every top executive will have his own style and he will like to use his own ideas and philosophies.

3. ***Deficiencies in Existing Management Structure:*** Sometimes changes are necessary because of some deficiencies in the existing organizational structure, arrangement and processes. These deficiencies may be in the form of unmanageable span of management, larger number of managerial levels, lack of coordination among various departments, obstacles in communication, multiplicity of committees, lack of uniformity in policy decisions, lack of cooperation between line and staff and so on. However, the need for change in cases goes unrecognized until some major crisis occurs.
4. ***To Avoid Developing Inertia:*** In many cases, organizational changes take place just to avoid developing inertia or inflexibility. Conscious managers take into account this view that organization should be dynamic because any single method is not the best tool of management every time. Thus, changes are incorporated so that the personnel develop liking for change and there is no necessary resistance when major changes in the organization are brought about.

Check Your Progress 1

Fill in the blanks:

1. Technology is the major force which calls for change.
2. of work force has changed over a passage of time.
3. Change in managerial personnel is another force which brings about change in

7.4 LEVEL OF CHANGE PROGRAMMES

The various types of change programmes may be classified into individual level change, group level change and organizational level change.

7.4.1 Individual Level Change

Individual level changes may take place due to changes in job-assignment, transfer of an employee to a different location or the changes in the maturity level of a person

which occurs over a passage of time. The general opinion is that change at the individual level will not have significant implications for the organization. But this is not correct because individual level changes will have impact on the group which in turn will influence the whole organization. Therefore, a manager should -never treat the employees in isolation but he must understand that the individual level change will have repercussions the individual.

7.4.2 Group Level Change

Management must consider group factors while implementing, any change, because most of the organizational changes have their major effects at the group level. The groups in the organization can be formal groups or informal groups. Formal groups can always resist change for example; the trade unions can very strongly resist the changes proposed by the management. Informal groups can pose a major barrier to change because of the inherent strength they contain. Changes at the group level can affect the work flows, job design, social organization, influence and status systems and communication patterns.

The groups, particularly the informal groups have a lot of influence on the individual members on the group. As such by effectively implementing change at the group level, resistance at the individual level can be frequently overcome.

7.4.3 Organisational Level Change

The organizational level change involves major programmes which affect both the individuals and the groups. Decisions regarding such changes are made by the senior management. These changes occur over long periods of time and require considerable planning for implementation. A few different types or organization level changes are:

1. **Strategic Change:** Strategic change is the change in the very basic objectives or missions of the organization. A single objective may have to be changed to multiple objectives. For example, a lot of Indian companies are being modified to accommodate various aspect of global culture brought in by the multinational or transnational corporations.
2. **Structural Change:** Organizational structure is the pattern of relationships among various positions and among various position holders. Structural change involves changing the internal structure of the organization. This change may be in the whole set of relationships, work assignment and authority structure. Change in organization structure is required because old relationships and interactions no longer remain valid and useful in the changed circumstances.
3. **Process Oriented Change:** These changes relate to the recent technological developments, information processing and automation. This will involve replacing or retraining personnel, heavy capital equipment investment and operational changes. All this will affect the organizational culture and as a result the behavior pattern of the individuals.
4. **People Oriented Change:** People oriented changes are directed towards performance improvement, group cohesion, dedication and loyalty to the organization as well as developing a sense of self-actualization among members. This can be made possible by closer interaction with employees and by special behavioral training and modification sessions. To conclude, we can say that changes at any level affect the other levels. The strength of the effect will depend on the level or source of change.

7.5 MANAGING PLANNED CHANGE

A planned change is a change planned by the organization; it does not happen by itself. It is affected by the organization with the purpose of achieving something that

might difficulty. Through planned change, an organization can achieve its goals rapidly. The basic reasons for planned change are:

- To improve the means for satisfying economic needs of members
- To increase profitability
- To promote human work for human beings
- To contribute to individual satisfaction and social well being.

In introducing planned change, the basic problem before management is to handle in such a way that there would be necessary adjustment in various forces. For this purpose, the manager who has to act as the change agent has to go through a particular process. The planned change process may comprise basically the following three steps:

- Planning for change
- Assessing change forces
- Implementing the change

7.5.1 Planning for Change

The first step in the process of change is to identify the need for change and the area of changes as to whether it is a strategic change, process oriented change or employee oriented change. This need for change can be identified either through internal factors or through external factors. Once this need is identified, the following general steps can be taken:

1. **Develop New Goals and Objectives:** The manager must identify as to what new outcomes they wish to achieve. This may be a modification of previous goals due to changed internal and external environment or it may be a new set of goals and objectives.
2. **Select an Agent of Change:** The next step is that the management must decide as to who will initiate and oversee this change. One of the existing managers may be assigned this duty or even sometimes specialists and consultants can be brought in from outside to suggest the various methods to bring in the change and monitor the change process.
3. **Diagnose the Problem:** The person who is appointed as the agent of change will then gather all relevant data regarding the area or the problem where the change is needed. This data should be critically analyzed to pinpoint the key issues. Then the solutions can be focused on those key issues.
4. **Select Methodology:** The next important step is selecting a methodology for change which would be commonly acceptable and correct. As the human tendency is to resist the change, employee's emotions must be taken into consideration when devising such methodology.
5. **Develop a Plan:** After devising the methodology, the next step will be to put together a plan as to what is to be done. For example, if the management wants to change the promotion policy, it must decide as to what type of employees will be affected by it, whether to change the policy for all the departments at once or to try it on a few selected departments first.
6. **Strategy for Implementation of the Plan:** In this stage, the management must decide on the 'when', 'where' and 'how' of the plan. This includes the right time of putting the plan to work, how the plan will be communicated to the employees in order to have the least resistance and how the implementation will be monitored.

7.5.2 Assessing Change Forces

The planned change does not come automatically; rather there are many forces in individuals, groups and organization which resist such change. The change process will never be successful unless the cooperation of employees is ensured. Therefore the management will have to create an environment in which change will be amicably accepted by people. If the management can overcome the resistance the change process will succeed.

In a group process, there are always some forces who favor the change and some forces that are against the change. Thus, equilibrium is maintained. Kurt Lewin calls in the "field of forces". Lewin assumes that in every situation there are both driving and restraining forces which influence any change that may occur.

Driving Forces are those, forces, which affect a situation by pushing in a particular direction. These forces tend to initiate the change and keep it going. Restraining Forces act to restrain or decrease - the driving forces. Equilibrium is reached when the sum of the driving forces equals the 'sum of the restraining forces.

There may be three types of situations, as both driving and restraining forces are operating:

1. If the driving forces far out weight the restraining forces, management can push, driving forces and overpower restraining forces.
2. If restraining forces are stronger than driving forces, management either gives up the change programme or it can pursue it by concentrating on driving forces and changing restraining forces into driving ones or immobilizing them.
3. If driving and restraining forces are fairly equal, management can push up driving forces and at the same time can convert or immobilize restraining forces.

Thus, to make the people accept the changes, the management must push driving forces and convert or immobilize the restraining forces.

7.5.3 Implementing Change

Once the management is able to establish favorable conditions, the right timing and right channels of communication have been established the plan will be put into action. It may be in the form of simple announcement or it may require briefing sessions in house seminars so as to gain acceptance of all the members and specially those who are going to be directly affected by the change. After the plan has been implemented there should be evaluation of the plan which comprises of comparing actual results to the standards.

Check Your Progress 2

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. The term change refers to any alternation which occurs in the overall work environment of an organization.
2. Change in middle level executives will lead to important changes in the organization in terms of organization design, allocation of work to individuals, delegation of authority, installation of controls etc.

7.6 LET US SUM UP

The OD literature has directed considerable attention to leading and managing change. The lesson has covered almost every aspect related to the management of the planned change as change can vary in complexity from the introduction of relatively simple processes into a small work group to transforming the strategies and design features of the whole organization.

7.7 LESSON END ACTIVITY

Taking an example of any Indian organization which has undergone a merger, discuss the changes initiated and critically evaluate the change process management in the terms of:

- Types of changes
- Strategies adopted
- Results achieved.

7.8 KEYWORDS

Change Agent: Person who attempts to alter some aspects of an organization or an environment.

Magnitude of Change: Minute alterations in the operation, to quantum change

Unfreezing: The forces, used for maintaining the status quo in the organizational behavior, are reduced by refuting the present attitude

7.9 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Kurt Lewin suggests that planned change is a three stage process. Describe these stages.
2. Describe the various sources in the business environment from which impetus for planned change has come in the recent years.

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

CYP 1

1. External
2. Nature
3. Organisation

CYP 2

1. T, 2. F

7.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

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LESSON

8

NATURE OF THE CLIENT SYSTEMS

CONTENTS

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 - 8.2 Understanding Group and Intergroup Dynamics
 - 8.3 Types of Groups
 - 8.4 Stages of Group Development
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 - 8.6.1 Conformity to Group Norms
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 - 8.7 Organisations as Systems
 - 8.8 Let us Sum up
 - 8.9 Lesson End Activity
 - 8.10 Keywords
 - 8.11 Questions for Discussion
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8.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- The group and intergroup dynamics
 - Study of groups
 - Organisation as system and its norms, roles, relations etc.
-

8.1 INTRODUCTION

It is quite difficult to define a group independent of some specific purpose or reference. Understanding of the group dynamic is essential for introducing changes and managing the organisations effectively. The understanding of the organisation as a system focus on improving the total organisation as a system. Because the target of the change is the organisation as a system and not its individual members.

8.2 UNDERSTANDING GROUP AND INTERGROUP DYNAMICS

People define groups differently. Shaw has summarized various definitions of groups into four categories. First, the group is defined as consisting of individuals who perceive the existence of the group and their membership in it. Second, group is defined on the basis of common motivation and goal. Third, it is a class of relationships and ties, which bind the members into the group. Fourth, the central element of the group interacts among its members. This approach, Shaw finds it most acceptable and defines group as:

Two or more persons who are interacting with one another in a manner that each person influences and is influenced by the other.

Shepherd expanded it as: The group is a social phenomenon which is more enduring and tighter than social relationship but it is looser and less organized than a formal organisation. It should be large enough so that the members feel a sense of common identity and mutual awareness. The size of the group cannot be prescribed in terms of exact number of persons. However, as small group increases in size, it reaches an upper limit where the group gets altered so that the members establish some common rules and regulations and group becomes like a formal organisation. The group apart the size, possess other characteristics.

A group may be defined as the aggregation of a small number of persons who work for a common goal, develop a shared attitude, and are aware that they are a part of a group and perceive themselves as such.

The following features of a group can be identified:

1. **Two or more persons:** To form a group, there should be at least two persons. There cannot be a limit on the maximum number of persons but the size of the group will be determined by the rule and regulations of the organisation.
2. **Collective Identity:** Members of the group must be aware of their membership in the group. Each member must believe that he is a member, and this differentiates him from rest of the members.
3. **Interaction:** Members interact among themselves. Each member shares his ideas with the others. Through communication, members interact.
4. **Shared Goal Interest:** Members of the group should work for the attainment of goals; at least one of the objectives should coincide.

8.3 TYPES OF GROUPS

Groups can be formal or informal, formal are designed by the organisation structure, with designated work assignments, establishing tasks. The behaviors are directed by organisational goals. The informal groups are natural foundations in the work environment, that appear in response to the need for social contact.

Groups are also classified as command, task, interest, or friendship groups. The organisation chart determines a command group. It is composed of subordinates who report directly to the manager, e.g. school principal and teachers.

Task groups represent those working together to complete a job task. All command groups are also task groups, but task groups can cut boundaries i.e. the organisation.

People who may or may not be aligned into common command or task group may affiliate to attain a specific objective with which each is concerned. This is the interest group. Employees who get together for a vacation or to support a peer who has been fired, etc.

Groups also develop because the members have new or more common characteristics. These are the friendship groups. Social alliances extend outside the work situation; can be based on similar age or ethnic heritage.

Informal groups bear a very important service by satisfying their members social needs. Because of these interactions, we find workers having lunch together, playing golf, etc.

Why do people join groups? There are various reasons:

1. **Security:** Individuals can reduce the feeling of being alone. Are more resistant to threats when they are a party of the group.
2. **Status:** Inclusion in a group is important as it provides recognition and status to its members.
3. **Self-Esteem:** Groups provide feeling of self worth.
4. **Affiliation:** Groups fulfill social needs. These on the job interactions help the members in fulfilling the need of belongingness.
5. **Power:** What cannot be achieved individually can be done with the help of group.
6. **Goal Achievement:** Sometimes, it takes more than one person to accomplish a particular task- there is a need to pool talents, knowledge, or power to complete a job. Management uses the formal group.

8.4 STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

There are five stages in group development- forming, storming, norming, performing, adjourning:

- The first stage forming is characterized by a great deal of uncertainty about the group's purpose, structure, and leadership. Members are testing the waters to determine what type of behaviors is acceptable. This stage is complete when the members think themselves as part of the group.
- The storming stage is the intra-group conflict. Members accept the existence of the group, but there is resistance to the constraints that the group imposes on individuality. There is a conflict over who will control the group. When this stage is complete, there will be a relatively clear hierarchy of leadership within the group.
- The third stage is the one in which close relationships develop and the group demonstrates cohesiveness. There is a strong sense of group identity. This norming stage is complete when the group structure solidifies and the group assimilated a common set of expectations of what defines the correct member behavior.
- The fourth stage is performing. The structure at this point is fully functional and accepted. Group energy has moved from getting to know and understand each other to performing the task at hand.
- For permanent work groups, performing is the last stage in their development. For temporary committees, task forces, etc there is adjourning stage. Attention is directed towards wrapping up activities. Some members are upbeat, others are basking in the glory of achievements, yet others may be depressed.

Many interpreters of the five-stage model have assumed that a group becomes more effective as it progresses through the first four stages. However, the group effectiveness is more complex than what the model acknowledges. Sometimes the stages go together as the storming and norming. In terms of work related behavior, it ignores the organisational context i.e., the cockpit crew of the airliner

has to fly together within minutes. The speedy group development occurs due to organisational context surrounding the task of cockpit crew.

We can describe this model some of the experiences with students. The model characterizes groups as exhibiting long periods of inertia with brief spells of revolutionary changes triggered primarily by the member's awareness of time and deadlines. To use the terminology of the five stage group development model, the group begins by combining the forming and norming stages, and then goes throughout the period of low performing, followed by storming, then a period of high performing and adjourning.

8.5 GROUP STRUCTURE

Work groups are not unorganized mobs. They have a structure that shapes the behavior of members and makes it possible to explain and predict a large portion of individual behavior within the group as well as the performance of the group itself. These structural variables are – formal leadership, roles, norms, group status, group size, composition of the group, and the degree of group cohesiveness.

8.5.1 Formal Leadership

Almost every work group has a formal leader. He is typically identified by titles such as unit or department manager, supervisor, foreman, project leader, etc. The leader plays an important part in the groups success. The role of the leader has already been discussed.

8.5.2 Roles

All the group members are actors, each playing a role, which is the set of behaviors attributed to a person occupying a given position in a social unit. A person has a number of roles to play, e.g. he is the production manager, a subordinate to the middle manager, a peer, the engineer and outside the office environment he is the consultant and a religious leader. His behavior varies with each role he plays.

Role Identity: There are certain attitudes and actual behaviors consistent with the role, and they create the role identity. People have the ability to shift roles rapidly when they recognize that the situation and its demands clearly require major changes, e.g. when individuals are promoted, they adopt different behaviors.

Role Perception: Ones view of how one is supposed to act in a particular situation is the role perception. These perceptions are obtained from stimuli all around. Most of the time employees perceive roles watching their seniors.

Role Expectation: is defined as how others believe they should act in a given situation. The role of a football coach is seen as aggressive, dynamic and inspiring to his players. In the work place, role expectation is understood from the point of view of psychological contract. There is an unwritten agreement that exists between the employer and the employee. This sets out mutual expectation. What management expects from the worker, and vice versa. The contract determines behavior expectations that go with every role. Management is expected to treat employees justly, provide acceptable working conditions, clearly communicate what a days work is, and how well the employee is performing. Employees are expected to respond by demonstrating a good attitude, following directions, and showing loyalty to the organisation. The psychological contract therefore, largely determines role expectations.

Role Conflict: When an individual is confronted by divergent role expectations, the result is role conflict. It results when an individual finds compliance with one role requirement may make more difficult compliance with the other. At the extreme, it would include situations in which two or more roles expectations are mutually contradictory.

Check Your Progress 1

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. Role Expectation is defined as how others believe they should act in a given situation.
2. The storming stage is characterized by a great deal of uncertainty about the group's purpose, structure, and leadership.

8.5.3 Norms

All groups have established norms, which are the acceptable standards of behavior that are shared by the group members. Norms tell the members what they ought to and ought not to do under certain circumstances. From an individual standpoint, they tell what is expected of you under certain situations. When agreed to and accepted by the group, norms act as a means of influencing behavior of group members with a minimum of external controls. Norms differ among groups, communities and societies, but all have them.

Formalized norms are written up in the organisation manuals, setting out rules, and procedures for employees to follow. Majority of the norms is informal. We know that in an interview what to talk and what not to. A work groups norms are like fingerprints, each is unique. Yet, common classes of norms appear in most work groups.

The most common norm is performance norms. Work members provide the members with clues on how hard they should work, how to get the job done, their level of output, etc. These norms are extremely powerful in effecting an individuals performance. They are capable of significantly modifying a performance prediction that was based solely on employees ability and motivation.

The second category is the Appearance norms. This includes the things like appropriate dress, loyalty to the work group, when to look busy, etc. Even in their absence, norms develop clothing to be worn, especially with the professional employees.

Another category is the social arrangement norms. These norms come from informal work groups and regulate social interactions within the group, with whom members eat lunch, friendships on and off the job, social games, etc.

A final category relates to allocation of resources norms. These norms can originate in the group or in the organisation and cover things like pay, assignment of difficult jobs, and allocation of new tools and equipment.

Norms develop as group members learn what behavior is necessary for a group to function effectively. Most of the norms develop in the following way: (1) Explicit statements made by the group member- the supervisor may say no to the phone calls (personal) during working hours. (2) Critical events in the group history- These set important precedents If a machine operator is injured by standing close to the machine, other members are cautioned to stand at least 5 feet away. (3) Primacy- The first behavior pattern that emerges in a group frequently sets group expectations. Friendship group of students sit near to each other. (4) Carry over behavior from past situations- Group members bring expectations from other groups of which they have been members. This is likely to increase the probability that the expectations they bring are consistent with those already held by the group.

The groups establish norms which: (1) facilitates group survival (2) increases predictability of the members behavior (3) reduces interpersonal problems (4) allows members to express the central values of the group and clarify what is distinctive about the groups identity.

Conformity: As a member, there is acceptance by the group. Because of the desire for acceptance, they confirm to the group norms. People do not conform to all the norms but to a few important ones. The important groups are called reference groups, the person defines himself as the member, or would like to be the member.

8.5.4 Status

It is the socially defined position or rank given to the group or group members by others. We live in a class-structured society. We develop roles, rights and rituals to differentiate its members, status is an important factor in understanding human behavior because people see a disparity between their status to be and what others perceive it to be. It is important for the group members to believe that status hierarchy is equitable. When inequity is perceived, it creates disequilibrium and results in various types of corrective behavior, e.g., country club membership provided to the division manager and not to the vice president. Groups generally agree with themselves on status criteria and hence, there is usually a high congruence in-group ranking of individuals. However, individuals can be in a conflict when they move between groups whose status is different, e.g., business executives use personal income as a symbol of status.

8.5.5 Size

Smaller groups are faster at completing tasks than the larger ones. If a group is engaged in problem solving, large groups get better marks than the smaller ones. Similarly, larger groups are more effective with fact finding. Smaller ones are better for taking action. Social loafing is the tendency of the individual to expend less effort when working collectively than when working individually. It may happen due to the belief that the others in the group are not carrying their fair share or due to dispersion of responsibility. Because the results cannot be attributed to the single person, responsibility is divided.

8.5.6 Composition

Most group activities require a variety of skills and knowledge. The heterogeneous groups, those composed of dissimilar individuals, would be more likely to have diverse abilities and information should be more effective. When the group is heterogeneous in terms of gender, personalities, opinions, abilities, skills and perspectives, there is increased possibility that the group will have needed characteristics to carry out the task effectively. When the groups are culturally diverse, the differences disappear in three to four months. Studies show that people who enter the organisation at the same time, are more likely to associate with one another and have similar perspectives.

8.5.7 Cohesiveness

It means the degree of attachment of the members to their group. If the group cohesiveness is high, the interaction between the members of the group is high and the degree of agreement in a group is high. A cohesive group has the following features:

1. The members share the group goals and norms and have common interests and background.
2. The number of members is small.
3. The members interact among themselves quite frequently and interpersonal communication is very effective.
4. Group loyalty among the members is high because the group enjoys high status.
5. The members stand united against any personal external threats to the group.
6. The members keep themselves glued to the group as they feel that the group would satisfy their needs.
7. The group has a history of past success.

Factors Affecting Group Cohesiveness

1. ***Degree of dependency on the group:*** The more highly dependent a person is on the group, the greater will be the groups attractiveness. And therefore greater the cohesiveness.
2. ***Size:*** Greater is the size, lesser is the interaction of the group. And lesser the cohesiveness.
3. ***Homogeneity and stable membership:*** Groups whose members have different interests and backgrounds are often less effective in promoting their interests. Stable relationships enhance cohesiveness.
4. ***Location of the group:*** If the members are located close to each other, they interact frequently and freely. The cohesion is high.
5. ***Group status:*** A group with high status with success stories is more attractive to its members. The cohesion is high.
6. ***Group Leadership:*** If the leader is dynamic and energetic, he motivates the group members to work with zeal for the attainment of goals.
7. ***Outside pressure:*** If the members face challenges from outside, they minimize their personal differences in order to fight the common enemy and the cohesion is high.
8. ***Competition:*** There are of two types- intra-group and inter-group competition. If the factors are positive, it leads to higher cohesiveness.

There is a strong relationship between cohesion and productivity. In a cohesive group, the members tend to be uniform. The high group cohesiveness promotes control over the level of production of the individual members and this reduces variation among members. Thus, a cohesive group may not always produce better results. For productivity, both the group cohesiveness and performance norms should be high. Hence, the management must focus on group norms and their alignment with the organisational goals.

Check Your Progress 2

Fill in the blanks:

1. means the degree of attachment of the members to their group.
2. is the tendency of the individual to expend less effort when working collectively than when working individually.

8.6 GROUP DECISION-MAKING

The group members rather than the individuals make the decisions. The members interact with each other and arrive at decisions to solve the problem. The following behavior is likely to emerge.

8.6.1 Conformity to Group Norms

Every member establishes a set of norms as a means to achieve his goals. Over a period of time, these norms become the standards of conduct accepted by members in the group. The group tries to enforce these norms by suitable reinforcement that is the violator of the norms will be punished. Thus, every member in the decision-making adheres to the norms:

1. ***Influence Process:*** Every member in the group is equal. Some persons are able to exert more pressure, this may be due to their higher status or background. By which they can alter the attitudes of other members of the group.

2. **Role of leaders:** The leader defines the problem, and coordinates the group activities. Thus the leader has the task role and the social role. In the task role, he explains the problem, requests ideas and suggestions, summarizes decisions, etc. In the social role, he restores and maintains group relationship by recognizing contributions, playing a supportive role.
3. **Useful behavior for consensus:** Group decisions can be made either on the basis of majority votes or by consensus. Critical decisions require consensus of the members.

8.6.2 Techniques for Improving Group Decision-Making

There are four techniques for group decision making brainstorming, nominal group technique, delphi technique and dialectic decision method.

Brainstorming

This is a technique to stimulate idea generation for decision making. Originally applied by Osborn in 1938 in an American company, the technique is now widely used by many companies, educational institutions etc. It is defined as “a conference technique by which a group attempts to find a solution for a specific problem by amassing all ideas spontaneously contributed by its members.” A group of 10-15 persons is constituted. The participants must be directly or closely connected with the problem. The process goes in the following way:

1. The problem on which decision is required is given to the group. Problem is stated clearly and precisely so that the members of the group can focus their attention on it.
2. Each member is asked to give ideas through which the problem can be solved, The importance is given to the quantity of ideas and the quality follows later on. The session is meant to be frank, free and a relaxed one to generate maximum number of ideas irrespective of quality. The basic theme is idea generation.
3. The members are expected to put their ideas for problem solution without taking into consideration any limitations- financial, procedural, and legal organisational or otherwise. These limitations do not allow free flow of ideas.
4. Idea evaluation is deferred to a later stage because it does not flow in the direction of idea generation. Criticism, judgment, or comment is strictly prohibited.

The method is suitable for well-defined problems, it encourages enthusiasm and a competitive spirit among members in generating ideas.

Nominal Group Technique

NGT is structured group meeting which restricts verbal communication among members during the decision making process. It is meant to resolve differences in group opinion by having individuals generate and then rank the series of ideas in the problem exploration, alternative generation, and choice making states of group decision making. The process is as follows:

1. The group leader outlines the problem requiring decision.
2. Each member writes down his ideas silently and the independently and presents his best single idea on the problem.
3. When all the members have ranked the ideas, the decision is made on the basis of ranking.
4. This method is used in health, service, industry and education and government organisations. The technique promotes creativity, prevents personality type from dominating the group, encourages continued exploration of ideas, and gives the individual some time to think about the idea.

Delphi Technique

The name Delphi indicates a shrine at which the ancient Greeks used to pray for information about the future. In Delphi technique, the members do not have face-to-face interaction. Decision is arrived by written communication in the form of filling questionnaires, which is completed by a large respondent group. The results are then tabulated and used in developing a revised questionnaire, which is completed by the larger group. The results of the original polling are fed back to the respondent group to use it subsequent responses. The procedure is repeated until the issue is narrowed, responses are focused, or a consensus is reached.

The method can be used even if the members are geographically separated. Quality of decisions can improve because the members can insulate themselves from undue influence of the other. Technique is time consuming.

Dialectic Decision Method

The process begins with the clear statement of the problem to be solved. Alternative proposals are generated and participants identify the explicit and implicit assumptions underlying each proposal. The group then breaks into subgroups to study the proposals in the light of the problem. The entire group then meets for the final choice. The choice may be made in terms of particular proposal based on its pros and cons or there may be a compromise of different proposals, or new alternatives may be proposed.

8.7 ORGANISATIONS AS SYSTEMS

Organisations are complex social systems interacting with the environment, and OD efforts focus on improving the total organisation, or large parts of it. System theory is an important foundation for OD theory and practice.

The system school views an organisation as a complex set of dynamically intertwined and interconnected elements, including its inputs, processes, outputs, feedback loops, and the environment in which it operates. A change in any element of the system inevitably causes changes in its other elements.

A system perspective directs OD practitioners to be aware of interdependencies, interrelatedness, multiple causes, and multiple effects. System theory suggests that the change in one element of the system will require changes in other elements such as structure, processes, and culture if the change in strategy is to be effective.

A primary goal of OD programs is to optimize the system by ensuring that system elements are harmonious and congruent. Different OD interventions focus on aligning the individual and the organisation, aligning organisational element and aligning the organisation with environment demand.

Organisations are the examples of open system and not the closed system. In the open system the system is interacting with the environment. Many problems of organisation today stem from rapid changes in environmental demands, threats and opportunities.

The OD practitioners therefore have to be knowledgeable about both system thinking and open system thinking.

Check Your Progress 3

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. These structural variables are – formal leadership, roles, norms, group status, group size, composition of the group, and the degree of group cohesiveness
2. The first stage of the group development i.e., forming stage demonstrates group cohesiveness.

8.8 LET US SUM UP

This lesson has covered the understanding of the group dynamic and how it is essential for introducing changes and managing the organisations effectively. The understanding of the organisation as a system focus on improving the total organisation as a system. Because the target of the change is the organisation as a system and not its individual members. In the open system the system is interacting with the environment. Many problems of organisation today stem from rapid changes in environmental demands, threats and opportunities so the emphasis is upon that OD practitioners should be well informed about these changes for effective change management.

8.9 LESSON END ACTIVITY

Bring out the significance of the statement, “effective management is always contingency or situational management.” Take some examples and explain.

8.10 KEYWORDS

Open system: The nature and the functions of transactions that take place between a system and its environment.

Norms: Rules regulating behavior in any social system. They are usually unwritten and are more specific and pointed than values.

System: A set of interdependent parts that form a whole.

8.11 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Discuss the importance of group dynamics in the management of change.
2. Discuss few group decision-making techniques for effective management.

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

CYP 1

1. T, 2. F.

CYP 2

1. Cohesiveness
2. Social loafing

CYP 3

1. T, 2. F.

8.12 SUGGESTED READINGS

Leonard D. Goodstein and W. Warner Burke, *Creating Successful Organisational Change*.

John P. Kotter, *A Force for Change: How Leadership Differs From Management*. (New York: The Free Press).

D. Nadler, ‘The Effective Management of Change’, in *Hand book of Organisational Behaviour*.

Tripathi P.C., *Organisational Effectiveness and Change*, Sultan Chand and Sons.

Nilanjan Sengupta, M.S. Bhattacharya, R.N. SenGupta, *Managing Change in Organisation*.

UNIT III

LESSON

9

MANAGING OD PROCESS

CONTENTS

- 9.0 Aims and Objectives
- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Managing the Process
 - 9.2.1 Problem Identification and Diagnosis
 - 9.2.2 Planning Strategy for Change
 - 9.2.3 Intervening in the System
 - 9.2.4 Evaluation and Making Modifications
- 9.3 Let us Sum up
- 9.4 Lesson End Activity
- 9.5 Keywords
- 9.6 Questions for Discussion
- 9.7 Suggested Readings

9.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- The organizational development process
- Identification of the problems and their solution

9.1 INTRODUCTION

OD can be taken as a process of changing people and other related aspects of an organisation. Thus it consists of many sub processes or steps. However, theorists and practitioners both differ about the various steps and their sequence in OD. This is because most of the ideas in OD have generated from practices and these practices have differed from organisation to organisation. It is not necessary that each organisation may involve all the steps with same results from OD strategy.

9.2 MANAGING THE PROCESS

As such, uniformity in the steps involved cannot be expected. Blake and Mouton provide six steps in OD programmes: studying the managerial grid as a theoretical framework to understand behavioural dynamics of organisation's culture, studying the dynamics of the actual work team, launching similar activities in different units. engaging the top team, implementation tactics for transforming the organisation into the above model and measurement of changes. Beckhard provides five steps: diagnosis, strategy planning, education, consulting and training, and evaluation. French and Bell have identified three components: diagnosis, action, and process maintenance. The difference in the various steps as described by various scholars and

practitioners is due to the defining scope of a particular step. Moreover since OD is an ongoing interactive process-a process is an identifiable flow of interrelated events moving over time towards some goal-many of the events overlap, and in real practice, a clear-cut demarcation between various events becomes difficult. In OD programmes, various steps may be problem identification and diagnosis, planning change strategy intervening in the system and evaluation. These steps are not exclusive to each other and do not follow the same sequence but interact with each other.

9.2.1 Problem Identification and Diagnosis

OD programme leads to meet certain objective in the organisation because OD is a means and not an end in itself. Thus, it attempts to solve some organisational problems. The problems may be a gap between desired path of action and actual path of action, that is, the organisation fails to meet its objective on a long-term basis. OD programme starts with the identification of the problems in the organisation. Analysis of various symptoms both overt and covert may help in identifying the problems. Diagnosis gives correct identification of a problem and its causes and determines the scope of future course of action. Diagnosis in OD involves a number of techniques concerned with identifying concerns and issues, establishing priorities, and translating them into aims and objectives. At this stage itself, the collection and analysis of data is undertaken. Major consideration is given to the techniques and methods used to desirable organization system the relationships between the elements or sub-systems, and ways of identifying major problems and issues.

Problem identification flows almost immediately into analysis. Once a problem is identified the analysis will show why the problem exists. The analysis will identify the variables that can be altered or changed by the organization and its management, such as leadership style, organization structure, organizational objective etc. In other words analysis brings the identification of environment that has caused problems.

9.2.2 Planning Strategy for Change

When the problems are diagnosed the OD practitioner-either consultant or management but preferably consultant-plans the various courses of action in OD. Attempts are made to transform diagnosis of the problem into a proper action plan involving the overall goals for change, determination of the basic approach for attaining these goals, and the sequence of detailed scheme for implementing the approach. Although it is a relatively simple matter to identify changes after they have occurred. It is considerably more difficult to influence the direction thrust of changes while they are under way. Thus planning and implementation of change are interdependent; the way in which change is planned has an impact on the way in which it is carried out and conversely the problems of implementing change have an impact on the way in which it is planned.

Check Your Progress 1

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. Diagnosis gives correct identification of a problem and its causes and determines the scope of future course of action.
2. Blake and Mouton described five steps in OD programme as diagnosis, strategy planning, education, consulting and training, and evaluation.

9.2.3 Intervening in the System

Intervening in the system refers to implementation of the planned activities during the course of an OD programme. These planned activities bring certain changes in the system which is the basic objective of OD. There may be various methods through

which external consultant intervenes in the system such as: education and laboratory training, process consultation,. team development, etc. which will be discussed later.

9.2.4 Evaluation and Making Modifications

This step relates to evaluate the results of OD programme so that suitable actions may be followed up. Since OD is a long process. There is an urgent need for careful monitoring to get precise feedback regarding what is going on as soon as an OD programme starts. In this respect the use of critique sessions. Systematic appraisal of change efforts and pre- and post-training behavioral pattern are quite effective. This step again involves data gathering because such data will provide the basis for OD efforts evaluation and suggest suitable modification or continuation of OD efforts in similar direction. All parties concerned in OD programme need to realise that if major organizational improvements are to be made and sustained, managerial practices with respect to many subsystems will need to be modified if these practices are not congruent with the OD efforts because there exists the possibility of slip back and regression to old behavioral pattern if adequate changes in other parts integrating behavioral change are not made. In the event of achievement complete success, it has to be ensured that client team is competent enough to maintain the changed system without the support of the consultant, as there is tendency among organization to revert to their original states. Consultant can withdraw in this stage.

OD, practitioners, both internal and external consultants may counsel decision makers on an individual basis, work to improve working relationships among the members of working relationships among the members of the working group or team, work to improve relationship among interacting an interdependent organizational groups; and gather attitudinal data throughout the organization and feed this data back to selected individuals and groups who use this information as a basis for planning and making desired improvements.

Check Your Progress 2

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. French and Bell have identified three components: diagnosis, action, and process maintenance.
2. OD Diagnosis attempts to analyze the future ate of the organization interims of various structures, systems and process.

9.3 LET US SUM UP

In nutshell, OD process involves number of steps which are usually taken in the process of bringing about change. It starts from recognition of need to the final evaluation and improving the organization to renew and restructure. This would be only possible with the culture of formal work teams and with the assistance of change agent and technology of applied behavior science including action research.

9.4 LESSON END ACTIVITY

OD is a long range effort to improve and organization's problem-solving and renewable processes, particularly through a more effective and collaborative management of organization culture. Discuss.

9.5 KEYWORDS

Intervention: Any action on the part of a change agent.

Evaluation Feedback: Information about the overall effects of a change programme.

9.6 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Discuss the various activities involved in the diagnostic and action plan in managing the OD process.
2. How do organization undergo modifications with the help of the feedback about the changes introduced.

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

CYP 1

1. T, 2. F.

CYP 2

1. T, 2. F.

9.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

French, Wendell L., & Cecil H. (1996), *Organization Development: Behavioral Science Interventions for Organization Improvement* (5th Edition), New Delhi, India: Prentice Hall of India.

Senge, Peter M. (1990), *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of Learning Organization*, New York: Doubleday.

LESSON

10

ACTION RESEARCH AND ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT

CONTENTS

- 10.0 Aims and Objectives
- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Action Research: A Process and an Approach
- 10.3 History of Action Research
- 10.4 Varieties of Action Research
- 10.5 Let us Sum up
- 10.6 Lesson End Activity
- 10.7 Keywords
- 10.8 Questions for Discussion
- 10.9 Suggested Readings

10.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Process and problem-solving approach of action research
- The various varieties of action research

10.1 INTRODUCTION

Action research attempts to meet the dual goals of making action more effective and building a body of scientific knowledge around that action. Action in this context refers to programs and interventions designed to solve problems and improve conditions. Kurt Lewin, as a consummate applied social scientist and motivated methodology for behavioral science. Lewin believed that research on action programs, especially social change programs, was imperative if progress were to be made in solving social problems.

10.2 ACTION RESEARCH: A PROCESS AND AN APPROACH

Action research may be described as a process, that is, as an ongoing series of events and actions. It may be defined as follows:

Action research is the process of systematically collecting research data about an on going system relative to some objective, goal, or need of that system; feeding these data back into the system; taking actions by altering selected variable within the system based both on the data and on hypotheses; and evaluating the results of action by collecting more data.

This definition characterizes action research in terms of the activities the process. First, the researcher takes a static picture of an organisation. On the basis of "what exists", hunches and hypotheses suggest action; these actions typically entail manipulating variable in the systems that are under the action researcher's control, which often means doing something differently from the way it has always been done. Later, the researcher takes a second static picture of the system to examine the effects of the action. These steps are similar to the steps OD practitioners use when they execute OD programs.

Several authors have noted the importance of viewing action research as a process. In a study of the Tremont Hotel in Chicago, William F. Whyte and Edith L. Hamilton described their work as follows:

What was the project? It was an action-research program for management. We developed a process for applying human relations research findings to the changing of organisation behavior. The world process is important, for this was not a one-shot affair. The project involved a continuous gathering and analysis of human relations research data and the feeding of the findings into the organisation in such a way as to change behavior.

Their study by Whyte and Hamilton is a cogent example of the relation of action research to OD.

Action research is a process in two different ways. It is a sequence of events and activities within each iteration (data collection, feedback, and taking action based in the data); and is a cycle of iterations of these activities, sometimes treating the same problem several times and then moving to different problems.

Action research may also be described as an approach to problem solving, thus suggesting its usefulness as model, guide, or paradigm. Used in this way, action research may be defined as follows:

Action research is the application of the scientific method of fact-finding and experimentation to practical problems requiring action solutions and involving the collaboration and cooperation of scientists, practitioners, and laypersons.

The desired outcomes of the action research approach are solutions to immediate problems and a contribution to scientific knowledge and theory. Viewing action research from this perspective reveals additional important features.

In viewing action research as an approach to problem solving we note the following features: the centrality of objectives, and the different role requirements of the consultant/change agent vis-à-vis the clients. Three additional features deserve discussion: first, the elements of the action research model that link it to the scientific method of inquiry; second, the collaborative relation among scientists, practitioners, and laypersons that often is a component of action research; third, the increased richness of knowledge derived from action research programs.

These steps for the scientific method are identical to the steps outlined by Corey for action research:

The significant elements of a design for action research are:

1. The identification of a problem area about which an individual or a group is sufficiently concerned to want to take some action.
2. The selection of a specific problem and the formulation of a hypothesis or prediction that implies a goal and a procedure for reaching it. This specific goal must be viewed in relation to the total situation.
3. The careful recording of actions taken and the accumulation of evidence to determine the degree to which the goal has been achieved.

4. The inference from this evidence of generalizations regarding the relation between the actions and the desired goal. The actions and the desired goal.
5. The continuous retesting of these generalizations in action situations.

If the problem under attack is one of concern to many people, or if it is likely that the experiment will affect many people, the action research should involve these people. It then becomes cooperative action research.

An example applying action research to a typical organisational problem might be helpful. Suppose that the problem is unproductive staff meetings—they are poorly attended, members express low commitment and involvement in them, and they are generally agreed to be unproductive. Suppose also that you are the manager in charge of both the meetings and the staff and that you desire to make the meetings more vital and productive. Following the action research model, the first step is to gather data about the status quo. Assume the data have been gathered and that the data suggest the meetings are generally disliked and regarded as unproductive. The next step is to search for causes of the problem and to generate one or more hypotheses from which you deduce the consequences that will allow you to test the hypotheses. Say you come up with the following four hypotheses. Note that an action research hypothesis consists of two aspects: a goal and an action or procedure for achieving that goal.

1. Staff meetings will be more productive if I solicit and use agenda topics from the staff rather than have the agenda made up just by me.
2. Staff meetings will be more productive if I rotate the chair of the meeting among the staff rather than my always being chairperson.
3. Staff meetings will be more productive if we hold them once a week instead of twice a week.
4. I have always run the staff meetings in a brisk "all-business no-nonsense" fashion; perhaps if I encourage more discussion and am more open about how I am reacting to what is being said, then staff meetings will be more productive.

Each of these action research hypotheses has a goal, (better staff meeting productivity), and each has an action, or procedure, for achieving the goal. Additional work would be done to clarify and specify the goal and the actions.

Another distinguishing feature of action research is collaboration between individual inside the system clients—and individuals outside the systems—change agents or researchers.

10.3 HISTORY OF ACTION RESEARCH

John Dewey translated the scientific method of problem solving into terms understandable to practitioners and laypersons that incorporated the ideas into action research several years later.

Collier called this form of research *action research*. Taking effective actions requires research that is directed to important problems. Also, the solutions must be relevant and feasible. To be able to implement a good action plan requires cooperation of the client. Action research afforded a means to mesh these diverse elements.

The other major source of action research, social psychologist Kurt Lewin, was profoundly interested in applying social science knowledge to help solve social problems. In the mid-1940s and early 1950s, Lewin and his students conducted action research projects in many different behavioral domains: Lewin applied action research principles to improving inter group relations and to changing eating habits; For the Lewin group, action research linked experimentation and application, and at the same time, people of science and people of action.

10.4 VARIETIES OF ACTION RESEARCH

Action research projects may be directed toward diverse goals, which gives rise to several variations of the model. Lewin, for example, suggested two broad categories of action research: the investigation of general laws and the diagnosis of a specific situation. The study of general laws leads to contributions to theory and practice, and to generalizations about natural phenomena; the diagnosis of a specific situation leads to solving immediate, practical problems.

Raymond Katzell identified three "varieties" of action research in the refinery action research project he conducted. He found three types of situations in which the research consultant staff were providing data feedback to managers. The first situation was described as "adventitious," that is, the research group happened to have already collected data that turned out to be quite useful to someone at a later time. The second situation represented preplanned, systematic data collection on a refinery wide basis, that is, a periodic pulse taking of the organisation. The third situation was to work intensively with a small "demonstration" group, continuously collecting data on all sorts of topics and feeding them back to the group as needed.

Chein, Cook, and Harding describe four varieties of action research—diagnostic, participant, empirical, and experimental.

In *diagnostic action research*, the scientist enters a problem situation; diagnoses it, and makes recommendations for remedial treatment to the client.

Participant action research, in which the people who are to take action are involved in the entire research and action process from the beginning. This involvement increases the likelihood of carrying out the actions once decided upon, and keeps the recommended actions feasible.

An *Empirical action research* is that in which the actor keeps a systematic, extensive record of what he or she did and what effects it had.

A fourth variety of action research, the *experimental*, is controlled research on the relative effectiveness of various action techniques. There is almost always more than one possible way of trying to accomplish some thing. The problem is to find which is the best. This is research *on* action in the strictest sense of both words.

Argyris promotes action research under the label of "action science," and he believes action science (action research) is more appropriate and effective for studying social change and social action than is "normal science." He criticizes traditional scientific methods for focusing on trivial problems, distorting human subjects and researchers alike, generating unreliable data, and being generally unable to answer questions about everyday life. According to Argyris, Lewin's action research was characterized by six features: ". . . (1) it was problem-driven, (2) it was client-centered, (3) it challenged the status quo and was simultaneously concerned with (4) producing empirically disconfirmable propositions that (5) could be systematically interrelated into a theory designed to be (6) usable in everyday life." All six characteristics should be present in action research programs but often are not.

Another variation of action research is "appreciative inquiry." David Cooperrider and Suresh criticize current action research as too problem centered, too action-oriented, and not sufficiently concerned with creating theory. They propose Appreciative Inquiry (AI) to augment contemporary action research and introduce their article with these words:

For action-research to reach its potential as a vehicle for social innovation it needs to be advancing theoretical knowledge of consequence; that good theory may be one of the best means human beings have for affecting change in a postindustrial world; that the discipline's steadfast commitment to a problem-solving view of the world acts

as a primary constraint on its imagination and contribution to knowledge; that appreciative inquiry represents a viable complement to conventional forms of action-research; and finally, that through our assumptions and choice of method we largely create the world we later discover.

Appreciative inquiry advocates four principles for research on organisations: research should begin with appreciation, should be applicable, should be provocative, and should be collaborative.

Several other varieties of action research exist. The concept of grounded theory in sociological research appears to be similar to action research, as does Edgar Schein's clinical inquiry. Shani and Pasmore, and Shani and Bushe present good reviews of action research.

The final variant of action research comes from the quality movement. The action research model is similar to the Shewhart cycle of "plan, do, check, act"-a virtual mantra in Total Quality Management (TQM) programs. Walter A. Shewhart was the "father" of statistical process control and TQM.

Shewhart advised that to improve quality you should: *plan* a test or change intended to improve something; *do* a small-scale test; *check* the effects of the test; and *act* on the new learning. Then plan new tests based on the knowledge gained and repeat the cycle again and again. This ongoing process was the road to continuous quality improvement, he asserted. It looks a lot like action research.

Check Your Progress

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. Action research is the application of the scientific method of fact-finding and experimentation to practical problems requiring action solutions and involving the collaboration and cooperation of scientists, practitioners, and laypersons.
2. An empirical action research is that in which the actor keeps a systematic, extensive record of what he or she did and what effects it had.
3. Whyte and Edith L. Hamilton is a cogent example of the relation of action research to OD.
4. Centrality of objectives, and the different role requirements of the consultant/change agent vis-à-vis the client exhibits viewing action research as an approach to problem solving.

10.5 LET US SUM UP

The philosophical and pragmatic values underlie action research. The first is that programs designed to solve real problems should be based on valid public data generated collaboratively by clients and consultants. This belief calls for actions to be based on diagnostic research-an *action-should-follow-research* mode of thinking. Or, to state it, another way, diagnose the problem situation and base actions on that diagnosis. The second value is that action in the real world should be accompanied by research on that action in order to build a cumulative body of knowledge and theory of the effects of various actions directed to solving real-world problems-a *research-should-follow-action* mode of thinking. Only if we systematically evaluate (do research on) actions can we know the real effects of these actions. And only if we systematically build a body of knowledge can we build better social science theories.

Thus actions to solve real-world problems offer a unique opportunity for both the scientist-researcher and the administrator-layperson if they approach the problems from the standpoint of the action research model: the administrator's problems will be solved, and the scientist's quest for theory and empirical validation of theory will be

solved. Thus we conclude that the applied behavioral science discipline of organisation development is fertile ground for action research projects.

10.6 LESSON END ACTIVITY

Example of Action Research in Organisation Development

The nature of organisation development and of action research are quite similar. They are both variants of applied behavioral science; they are both action oriented; they are both data based; they both call for close collaboration between insider and outsider and they are both problem-solving social interventions. Because of these characteristics, we believe a sound organisation development program rests on an action research model).

The 18 highest-performing and 18 lowest-performing banks out of the total of 80 were examined to see how they had used the learning from the OD program. At the end of three years the high-performing banks had made more strategic changes and fewer operational changes; the low-performing banks had made more operational changes and fewer strategic changes. At the end of six years, the high-performing banks had made more "deep-seated" (fundamental and significant) changes than the low performing banks. This action research had high payoff-knowledge about the results of the OD intervention, and knowledge about the ingredients of high and low performance.

Comment how the above mentioned particular program was an excellent blend of action and research?

10.7 KEYWORDS

Appreciative inquiry: A contemporary approach to planned change.

Change Agent: A person who attempts to alter some aspect of an organisation or an environment.

10.8 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is action research? What are its processes? How does it help in making organisations more effective?
2. Discuss the varieties of action research as proposed by Chein, Cook, and Harding.
3. Action research may be described as a process, that is, as an ongoing series of events and actions. Explain.

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

1. T, 2. T, 3. T, 4. T.

10.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

Kurt Lewin, 'Frontiers in Group Dynamics,' *Human Relations*.

Wendell French, *Organisational Development: Objectives and Strategies, Assumptions*.

Lewin, *Action Research and Minority Problems*.

LESSON

11

COMPONENTS OF OD—OPERATIONAL AND MAINTENANCE

CONTENTS

- 11.0 Aims and Objectives
- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 The OD Process
 - 11.2.1 Diagnosing the System, its Sub-units and Processes
 - 11.2.2 Program Management Component
- 11.3 Phases of OD Programs
 - 11.3.1 Analyzing Discrepancies
- 11.4 Model for Managing Change
- 11.5 Let us Sum up
- 11.6 Lesson End Activity
- 11.7 Keywords
- 11.8 Questions for Discussion
- 11.9 Suggested Readings

11.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- The implementation and management of organization development programs
- Foundation for intervening
- Various change inducing action programs

11.1 INTRODUCTION

All the OD programs have three basic components: diagnosis ,action and program management. All these three components are interventions into the organizations in that all impact organizations members. The diagnosis involves identifying strengths opportunities and problem areas.

Action plans are developed in the next step to correct problem, to seize opportunities and maintain areas of strength.

The next step involves the fact finding about the results of the actions .If the actions have desired effects the organization members move on to new and different problem then the members initiate new action plans and interventions to resolve the issue.

However the OD process requires attention directed toward ensuring that the program is supported by the organization members and is relevant to the organization's priorities and contributes in the organizations progress. Thus managing the OD program is a continuous activity.

11.2 THE OD PROCESS

The OD process involves the following steps:

11.2.1 Diagnosing the System, its Sub-units and Processes

Organisation development is at heart an action program based on valid information about the status quo, current problems, and opportunities, and effects of actions as they relate to achieving goals. An OD program thus starts with the diagnosis and employs data collecting and data analyzing throughout.

According to Beckhard diagnosis involves two areas:

- a) First area is the diagnosis of the various subsystems that make up the total organizations.
- b) The second area of diagnosis is the organization processes that are occurring which includes decision making processes, communication patterns and styles, relationship between interacting groups etc.

In practice the OD consultant collects the detailed information of the target group and the processes. They pay special attention to the organizational processes like strategic management, long range planning, vision, mission formulation, organizational learning etc. Continual diagnosis is thus necessary in any planned change effort as it helps to compare the gap between actual and desired conditions.

The success of the OD program depends on the result of the diagnostic activities which are important as to how the information is collected and what is to done with the information etc. The information can be collected from the various sources like interviews, questionnaires, organizations records and so on.

The action component includes planning actions, executing actions and evaluating the consequences of the actions are integral part to the organization development. This emphasis on action planning and action taking is a powerful feature of OD and in some respect very distinguishing. There exist always a difference between learning and practicing.

OD problem solving interventions tend to focus on real problems central to the organization's needs rather than on hypothetical problems that may or may not fit the members needs.

Action programs in OD are closely linked with explicit goals and objectives. Attention is given to translating goals into observable, explicit and measurable actions and equal care is given to ensuring that actions are relevant to and instrumental for attaining goals.

Diagnosis, action taking and goal setting are all linked in OD programs. Diagnostic activities precede action programs; that is fact-finding provides a foundation for action. Actions are continuously evaluated for their contribution to goal accomplishment. Organization development is a continuous process of setting goals, collecting data and about the status quo, planning and taking actions based on hypothesis and on the data, and evaluating the effects of action through additional data collection.

11.2.2 Program Management Component

OD practitioners apply behavioral science principles and practices to improve organizational functioning and individual development, they apply these same principles and practices as they manage OD programs.

Managing OD programs effectively means the difference between success and failure.

We specifically examine the phases in OD programs, several changes management models and a procedure for creating parallel line structures.

11.3 PHASES OF OD PROGRAMS

OD programs follow a logical progression of events. Warner Burke describes the following phases of OD programs:

1. Entry-represents the initial contact with the consultant and client.
2. Contracting-involves establishing mutual expectations.
3. Diagnosis-is the fact finding phase which produces a picture of the situation through information.
4. Feedback-represents returning the analysed information to the client system.
5. Planning Change-involves the client deciding what action steps to be taken based .
6. Intervention-implements sets of actions designed to correct the problems or seize the opportunities.
7. Evaluation-represents assessing the effects of the program i.e., was it successful or not?

The most important point here is that each phase build as the foundation for subsequent phases therefore each phase must be executed with care and precision.

11.3.1 Analyzing Discrepancies

A useful model for thinking about diagnosis and intervention could be termed discrepancy analysis-examining the discrepancies or gaps between what is happening and what should be happening and the discrepancies between where one is and where one wants to be.

Discrepancies therefore define both problems and goals and OD is more than just problem solving and goal seeking, but a large part of any OD program is devoted to these two critical activities.

11.4 MODEL FOR MANAGING CHANGE

Cumming and Worley identify five sets of activities required for effective management of change:

1. Motivating change.
2. Creating a vision.
3. Developing political support.
4. Managing the transition.
5. Sustaining the momentum.

Check Your Progress

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. Diagnostic activities are designed to provide an accurate account of the things as they really are.
2. The program management component encompasses all the activities interventions to improve organizations functioning.

11.5 LET US SUM UP

The lesson discuss the three components - diagnosis, interventions and program management critical to all organizations development program. The more people learned about these three components the more effective they will become in their

organizational improvement efforts. OD is a complex blend of art, science and craft gained through the study of these three components.

11.6 LESSON END ACTIVITY

“Successful organizational changes require knowledge, skill, a little bit of luck, and the ability to avoid mistakes”. Discuss how will you suggest the transformation of your organization.

11.7 KEYWORDS

Diagnosis: The process of collecting information about a client system and working collaboratively with the client to understand the system’s current functioning.

Evaluation: Information about the overall effects of a change program.

Feedback: Information regarding the actual performance or the results of the activities of a system.

11.8 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Discuss the importance of diagnostic activities as emphasized by Beckhard.
2. Explain the logical progression of events that unfold overtime in managing an OD program.

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

1. T, 2. F.

11.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

Richard Beckhard, *Organizational Development: Strategies and Models*.

Burke’s *Organizational Development*.

Kepner and Tregoe, *The Rational Manager*.

UNIT IV

LESSON

12

IMPLEMENTATION AND ASSESSMENT OF OD

CONTENTS

- 12.0 Aims and Objectives
- 12.1 Introduction
- 12.2 Organisational Assessment
 - 12.2.1 Applicability
 - 12.2.2 Feasibility
 - 12.2.3 Acceptability
- 12.3 Basic Components of Assessment of OD
- 12.4 Criteria for Assessment
- 12.5 Measurement
- 12.6 Research Design
- 12.7 Key Points for Implementation of OD
- 12.8 Pre-requisites to Success of OD
- 12.9 Limitations in OD Efforts
- 12.10 Assessment of OD and Change in Organizational Performance
 - 12.10.1 Goal Setting
 - 12.10.2 Performance Appraisal
 - 12.10.3 Reward Systems
- 12.11 Let us Sum up
- 12.12 Lesson End Activity
- 12.13 Keywords
- 12.14 Questions for Discussion
- 12.15 Suggested Readings

12.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Assessing organization development
- How the intervention is implemented and how it should be evaluated to discover whether it is producing the desired effects
- Assessment of OD and change in organizational assessment of OD and change in organizational performance

12.1 INTRODUCTION

Most of the studies reviewed did not utilize designs rigorous enough to adequately determine the outcomes of the OD process. The present underdeveloped state of the

art of OD evaluation demonstrates that practitioners must: (1) determine appropriate measures for assessing; (2) develop more adequate instruments for measuring change related to OD; and (3) consistently utilize more rigorous designs for their studies.

12.2 ORGANISATIONAL ASSESSMENT

Assessment is concerned with providing feedback to the practitioner and organization members about the progress and the impact of interventions. Evaluation process considers both the implementation success of the intended intervention and the long term results it produce.

Factors influencing choice of an OD intervention to fit the best in the situation for implementation?

Selection of an OD intervention is influenced by the following three factors :

1. Applicability
2. Feasibility
3. Acceptability

12.2.1 Applicability

Applicability means the potential of a given intervention to yield desired results. This is possible when an intervention is capable enough to address the real problem and holds good promise of solving it. One way to ascertain applicability of an intervention is to examine the likely positive and negative consequences associated with it. What follows from above is the need for evaluating one's client system with great care and concern before actually introducing any intervention.

12.2.2 Feasibility

Feasibility means the suitability of an intervention to suit to the client system. In other words, one needs to evaluate whether an intervention can actually be effectively introduced in a given type of client system.

12.2.3 Acceptability

Whatever applicability and feasibility an intervention carries has no use unless it is acceptable to the client system. It means an intervention needs to be accepted by its client system to yield desired results: Experience shows that an intervention is likely be less acceptable unless sufficient preparatory work has been done before introducing it.

12.3 BASIC COMPONENTS OF ASSESSMENT OF OD

In order to undertake an assessment program it is necessary to identify the basic components of assessment. They are as follows:

1. **Objectives:** It is synonymous to mission, goals or aims. The objective of an assessment at the initial stages of the main change program is to gain knowledge and insight the efficacy and design of the main change program. Objectives of intermediate evaluations at regular intervals are to establish benchmarks.
2. **Worth or value:** for the focal variables which can be an individual, object, situation or a program.
3. **Measurement:** The technique of measurement of social variables is done through psychometric tests. It is the quantitative dimension of the variable. Estimation of worth can also be made by other methods which are qualitative like interviewing, observational methods, simulation and projective techniques.

4. **Comparison:** The data obtained from the measurement can be compared from the data measured from other reference.
5. **Conclusion:** It is arriving at a judgment after comparison is made.

12.4 CRITERIA FOR ASSESSMENT

1. **Efficiency Measurement of Evaluation:** The prime objective in efficiency evaluation to determine wastage and explore ways
2. **Intervention Evaluation:** It is concerned with examination of the transformational process.
3. **Effectiveness Evaluation:** It is the assessment of outcomes from a given set of inputs through process. The outcome represents the object from which organizational effectiveness is assessed. Some effectiveness criteria are:
 - ❖ Achieving objectives and goals,
 - ❖ Adapting to the external environment,
 - ❖ Monitoring internal environment,
 - ❖ Re-vitalisation, integration, profitability, and
 - ❖ Growth-in net sales, in earnings, variation in growth rate, risking, bargaining position, employee satisfaction and collaboration.
4. **Cost Benefit Analysis:** It is to assess the benefits from a given level of inputs such as achievement of change programme, social relevance, contribution to society etc.

Evaluation should basically both during implementation assessment and after implementation evaluation of whether they are producing expected results. Two key aspects of the evaluation are measurement and the research design.

12.5 MEASUREMENT

Providing useful implementation and evaluation feedback involves two activities:

- **Selecting the appropriate variables:** The variables measured in OD evaluation should derive from the theory or conceptual model underlying the intervention. Measuring both the interventions and outcome variables is necessary for implementation and evaluation. The choice of the intervention variable to measure should derive from the conceptual framework underlying the OD intervention. Additional sources of knowledge about intervention variables can be found in the numerous references.
- **Designing good measures a good measure should possess the following characteristics:**
 - ❖ A good measure is operationally defined as how the empirical data needed is collected and most important how they can be converted from data to information.
 - ❖ **Reliability:** Reliability concerns the extent to which a measure represents the true value of a variable. OD practitioners can improve the reliability of their measures in four ways:
 - ◆ Operationally define the chosen variables.
 - ◆ Use multiple methods to measure a particular variable. The use of questionnaires, interviews, observations.
 - ◆ Use multiple items to measure the same variable on a questionnaire.

- ◆ Use standardized instruments.

A growing number of standardized questionnaires are available for measuring OD intervention and outcome variables.

- ❖ *Validity*: Validity concerns the extent to which a measure actually reflects the variable it is intended to reflect.

12.6 RESEARCH DESIGN

OD practitioners must make choices about how to design the evaluation to achieve valid results. The key issue is how to design the assessment to show whether the intervention did in fact produced the desired result. This is called internal validity.

The secondary situation that whether the intervention would work similarly in other situations is referred to as external validity. Assessing the internal validity of an intervention is in effect, testing a hypothesis.

Given the problems inherent in assessing OD interventions, practitioners have turned to quasi-experimental research design. These designs are not as rigorous and controlled as are randomized experimental designs, but they allow evaluators to rule out many rival explanations for OD results.

12.7 KEY POINTS FOR IMPLEMENTATION OF OD

There are five keys to manage OD. They relate directly to the problems identified earlier and to elements of the organization. Each can influence the elements of the social system and may help the organization avoid some of the major problems in managing the change:

1. Take a holistic view of the organization.
2. Secure top management support.
3. Encourage participation by those affected by the change.
4. Foster open communication.
5. Reward those who contribute to change.

12.8 PRE-REQUISITES TO SUCCESS OF OD

There are many things that can grow in an OD programme. The conditions which are accepted as necessary for optimal success of an OD programme by Wendell French and Cecil Bell:

1. ***Top management awareness of problem:*** Top management and other key people must be aware that the organization has a problem. The top management actually decides the time, effort and money to be invested in an OD programme.
2. A behavioural science consultant must be brought into the picture. It is the consultant job to diagnose the problem.
3. The OD effort should involve the human resource people and should be in line with the current personnel policies and practices.
4. The organizational personnel must build on what they learn from the OD change agent.
5. ***The OD effort must be carefully monitored:*** The change agent and the organizational personnels must communicate with each other so that all understands where the organization is heading.

6. The process must start slowly and gain momentum through its own success. The management in consultation with the change agent should plan the activities for success of the intervention.
7. **Action research must be used:** The change agent needs to make a preliminary diagnosis, gather data, feed it back to the personnels and develop a plan of action and follow-up.
8. The OD effort in order to be truly successful, must be monitored in terms of checking on the personnel attitudes regarding what is going on and determining to the extent to which the problems are identified and being resolved.

12.9 LIMITATIONS IN OD EFFORTS

Limitations of organization development are given including some by French and Bell:

1. Imprecision of definition and conceptualization concerning OD.
2. Inadequacy of client-consultant relationship
3. Non availability of behaviour science consultant who has expertise in OD.
4. Lack of knowledge of skillful interventions and effectiveness of various strategies.
5. Failure in linking of OD changes with other sub systems.
6. Lack of innovativeness in bringing about congruence with other programmes.
7. Top management support and involvement for long duration as persons may change.
8. There are problems in measuring attitude change.
9. According to Nadler there are four factors i.e, resistance, power, control and task redefinition represents the major hurdles to effective organizational change.

12.10 ASSESSMENT OF OD AND CHANGE IN ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

Performance management is an integrated process of defining, assessing and reinforcing employee work behaviour and outcomes. Organizations with a well developed performance management process often outperform those without this element of work design. Performance management is an in the organizational performance is affected by practices and methods of goal setting, performance appraisals and reward system. They are discussed below:

12.10.1 Goal Setting

Goal setting involves manager and subordinates in jointly establishing and clarifying employee goals. The process of establishing challenging goals involves managing the level of participation and goal difficulty.

Characteristics of Goal Setting

- **Establishing challenging goals:** Establishing goals that are perceived as challenging but realistic and to which there is a high level of commitment.
- **Clarifying goal measurements:** The second element of goal setting process involves specifying and clarifying the goals. To clarify goal measurement should be operationally defined and it has to be ensured that the measure can be influenced by employee or group behaviour.

- **Application stages:** OD practitioners have developed specific approaches which involve-*diagnosis, preparation of goal setting, setting of goals and review.*
- Management by objectives a common form of goal setting used in organisation is MBO. This method is chiefly an attempt to align personal goals with the business strategy by increasing communication and shared perception between the management and subordinates.

12.10.2 Performance Appraisal

Performance appraisal is a feedback system that involves the direct evaluation of individual or work performance groups by a supervisor, manager or peers. The process of performance appraisal involves the following steps:

- Select the right people.
- Diagnose the current situation
- Establish the system's purpose and objectives.
- Design the performance appraisal system.

Effects of Performance Appraisal

In the meta analysis of performance appraisal interventions feedback was found to be having positive effect on the individuals and would lead to better organizational performance.

12.10.3 Reward Systems

Organizational rewards are powerful incentives for improving employee and work group performance. OD traditionally has relied on the intrinsic rewards to motivate the employee performance. More recently OD practitioners have focused to include the extrinsic rewards like pay, stock options, bonus, promotions, profit sharing and gain sharing etc. They have discovered that both the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards can enhance individual performance.

The three contextual factors which determine how these practice affect work performance are:

1. **Business strategy:** defines the goals and objectives that are needed for an organization to compete successfully.
2. **Work place technology:** affects whether performance management practices should be based on the individual or the group.
3. **Employee involvement:** The level of employee involvement in an organization should determine the nature of the performance management practices.

Check Your Progress

1. State whether the following statements are True or False:
 - a. OD interventions should take a holistic view of the organization and secure top management support.
 - b. The secondary situation that whether the intervention would work similarly in other situations is referred to as internal validity.
2. Fill in the blanks:
 - a. The secondary situation that whether the intervention would work similarly in other situations is referred to as
 - b. The technique of measurement of social variables is done through

12.11 LET US SUM UP

The lesson has discussed in details the implementation and assessment of the OD interventions. OD interventions are institutionalized when the change program persist and become part of the organization's normal functioning. Explanation of OD measurement and Research design has been described. The latter part of the chapter covers the detailed discussion on the prerequisites of OD success and briefly covers the various OD interventions limitations and detailed information of the assessment of OD and change in organisational performance-the factors and the methods are covered.

12.12 LESSON END ACTIVITY

Discuss the importance of internal and external validity in order to design the evaluation to achieve the valid result for the evaluation of the OD intervention with the help of an example.

12.13 KEYWORDS

Evaluation Feedback: Information about the overall effects of a change program.

Action research: Cyclical process of diagnosis-change-research –change-research.

Quasi experimental research design: The design involves choices about what to measure and when to measure it.

12.14 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Discuss the basic components of assessment of OD and the criteria for the assessment of OD interventions.
2. Briefly explain the prerequisites of the success of OD and also explain the reasons of its failures.
3. Discuss how the OD practitioners assess the OD and change in the organizational performance.

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

1. a. T, b. F.
2. a. External validity
b. Psychometric tests

12.15 SUGGESTED READINGS

French, Wendell L., & Cecil H. (1996), *Organization Development: Behavioral Science Interventions for Organization Improvement* (5th Edition), New Delhi, India: Prentice Hall of India.

T. Cummings and E. Molloy, “*Strategies for Improving Productivity and Quality of Work Life*”.

R. Hackman and G. Oldham, “*Work Design*”.

G. Dessler, “*Human Resource Management*” New York: Prentice Hall, 1996.

LESSON

13

STRUCTURAL INTERVENTIONS

CONTENTS

- 13.0 Aims and Objectives
- 13.1 Introduction
- 13.2 Selected Structural Intervention
 - 13.2.1 Socio-technical Systems (STS) Theory
 - 13.2.2 Traditional MBO Theory
 - 13.2.3 Quality Circles
 - 13.2.4 Quality of Work Life (QWL) Programs
 - 13.2.5 Parallel Learning Structures (or Collateral Organizations)
 - 13.2.6 Physical Settings or Arrangements
 - 13.2.7 Total Quality Management (TQM) Programs
 - 13.2.8 Reengineering
 - 13.2.9 Large-scale Systems Change
- 13.3 Let us Sum up
- 13.4 Lesson End Activity
- 13.5 Keywords
- 13.6 Questions for Discussion
- 13.7 Suggested Readings

13.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- The structural intervention
- Changes in how the overall work of the organization is divided into units

13.1 INTRODUCTION

The term socio-technical system or STS is largely associated with experiments that emerged under the auspice of the Tavistock Institute in Great Britain. STS theory has two basic premises One is that “effective work systems must jointly optimize the relationship between their social and technical parts”. The second premise is that “such system must effectively manage the boundary separating and relating them to the environment.”

13.2.1 Socio-technical Systems (STS) Theory

It is based on joint optimization of the social and technological systems of organizations. Further more:

- a) The boundary between the organization and its environment should be managed in such a way as to allow effective exchanges, but protection from external disruptions,
- b) The implementation of STS should be highly participative, and
- c) The creation and development of self-managed teams is an important factor in STS implementation (Cummings and Worley; Trist, Higgin, Murray, and Pollock; and others).

Creation of Self-managed Teams

- a) Providing teams with a grouping of tasks that comprises a major unit of the total work to be performed;
- b) Training group members in multiple skills, including team-effectiveness skills;
- c) Delegating to the team many aspects of how the work gets done;
- d) Providing a great deal of information and feedback for self-regulation of quality and productivity;
- e) Solving the problem of dislocation of first-line supervisors; and
- f) Reconceptualising the role of managers with emphasis on coaching, expediting, and coordinating (Walton, Lawler, and others).

Work redesign theory suggests that:

- a) Motivation and performance can be enhanced through redesigning jobs to heighten skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback from the job;
- b) The concept can be extended to the creation of self-managed teams; and
- c) Third-party assistance in the development and monitoring of group norms can be useful (Hackman and Oldham).

13.2.2 Traditional MBO Theory

It assumes the need for systematic goal setting linking the goals of superiors to subordinates and that:

- a) Objectives or targets should be stated in quantitative terms whenever possible,
- b) Goal setting and appraisal should be one-on-one dialogues between superior and subordinate
- c) MBO can vary on an autocratic-participative continuum and that
- d) MBO can feature a participative team approach (French and Hollmann, Likert and Fisher).

13.2.3 Quality Circles

At least the participative, problem-solving versions are based on the assumptions' that many, if not most, employees are willing to work collaboratively in group settings-both natural work teams and cross-functional teams-on problems of product quality

and system effectiveness, and that they can learn to effectively utilize both technical and process consultants, providing they are:

- a) Trained in quality control concepts and the relevant measuring techniques, and are
- b) Trained in group dynamics, team leadership, and interpersonal communication skills.

13.2.4 Quality of Work Life (QWL) Programs

This programs vary in content but frequently include restructuring of several dimensions of the organization, including:

- a) increased problem solving between management and the union;
- b) increased participation by teams of employees in shop floor decisions pertaining to production flow, quality control, and safety; and
- c) skill development through technical skill training, job rotation, and training in team problem solving (Fuller, Carrigan, Bluestone, Goodman, Lawler, Ledford, Walton, and others).

13.2.5 Parallel Learning Structures (or Collateral Organizations)

Parallel learning structures are organizations established within ongoing organizations and have the following features:

- a) A mandate to deal with complex, non-routine, future-oriented problems and/or to co-ordinate large-scale systems change;
- b) The creation of different norms and culture to enhance creative problem solving and to create a model organization from which the organization can learn (Z and, Bushe, and Sham).

Check Your Progress 1

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. Parallel learning structures have a mandate to deal with complex, non-routine, future-oriented problems and/or to co-ordinate large-scale systems change.
2. MBO cannot vary on an autocratic-participative continuum.

13.2.6 Physical Settings or Arrangements

It can be the focus of interventions that can utilize and be highly congruent with OD techniques and assumptions (Steele).

13.2.7 Total Quality Management (TQM) Programs

Total Quality Management (TQM) programs are combinations of a number of approaches, including:

- a) A high emphasis on customers, including internal customers;
- b) The use of statistical quality control and statistical process control techniques;
- c) Competitive benchmarking;
- d) Participative management;
- e) An emphasis on teams and teamwork; and
- f) An emphasis on continuous training (Peters and Peters, Ciampa, Sashkin, and others).

13.2.8 Reengineering

Reengineering as currently conceptualized (Hammer and Champy):

- a) Focuses almost exclusively on streamlining business processes, and
- b) appears to pay little attention to the human-social system.

However, it appears theoretically possible for reengineering programs to utilize OD approaches in which:

- a) Collateral organizations are used extensively, and
- b) Organizational members are extensively involved and adequately protected.

13.2.9 Large-scale Systems Change

Large-scale system change (including organizational transformation) with unextensive OD thrust typically requires a multiplicity of interventions over an extended time frame. Including:

- a) A reconceptualisation of the nature of the business;
- b) The use of a parallel learning structure;
- c) a reduction in hierarchical levels;
- d) team building and Development, including the use of cross-functional teams;
- e) Survey feedback;
- f) Extensive use of task forces; and
- g) Intensive leadership training (Nadler, Ackerman, Porras and Silvers Cummings and Worley, Weisbord, and others).

Check Your Progress 2

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. Reengineering as currently conceptualized focuses almost exclusively on streamlining business processes.
2. Socio-technical Systems (STS) theory is based on joint optimization of the technological and political systems of organizations.

13.3 LET US SUM UP

The lesson covers the various selected structural intervention and shows the differences and similarities as well as the overlap between Socio Technical Systems (STS), self managed teams and others as discussed in the lesson. Applications are properly called OD to the extent that the latter is true: it is used by the OD practitioners but it is expected that OD label would not be applied whenever structural interventions are carried out without the attention to the social system or to humanistic values.

13.4 LESSON END ACTIVITY

‘Reengineering is the fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of business processes to achieve dramatic improvements in temporary measures of performance’. Discuss.

13.5 KEYWORDS

Quality of Work Life: A way of thinking about people, work, and organization.

Reengineering: An intervention that focuses on dramatically redesigning core business processes.

Socio-technical system: Considering both the social system (human) and the technical system simultaneously, in order to match the technology and the people optimally.

13.6 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Explain TQM appears to be highly congruent with OD approaches and values.
2. What are self-managed teams and how they are relevant to socio-technical system design?

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

CYP 1

1. T, 2. F.

CYP 2

1. T, 2. F.

13.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

Thomas G. Cummings and Christopher G. Worley, *Organization Development and Change*, 5th ed.

J. Richard Hackman and Greg R. Oldham, *Work Redesign*.

French, Wendell L., & Cecil H. (1996), *Organization Development: Behavioral Science Interventions for Organization Improvement* (5th Edition), New Delhi, India: Prentice Hall of India.

S. Ramanarayan, T.V. Rao, Kuldeep Singh, *Organisational Development Interventions and Strategies*.

LESSON

14

TRAINING EXPERIENCES

CONTENTS

- 14.0 Aims and Objectives
- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 Training Experiences
 - 14.2.1 T-Groups
 - 14.2.2 Behavior Modeling
- 14.3 Life and Career Planning
 - 14.3.1 Career Anchors
 - 14.3.2 Coaching and Mentoring
 - 14.3.3 Instrumented Training
- 14.4 Let us Sum up
- 14.5 Lesson End Activity
- 14.6 Keywords
- 14.7 Questions for Discussion
- 14.8 Suggested Readings

14.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- T-groups, behavior modeling, and life and career planning, including the use of career anchors, and the use of the collage and letters
- Mentoring and coaching, and the use of instrumented training

14.1 INTRODUCTION

A number of training or educational experiences aimed at individuals have utility in the successful evolution of an OD effort. These OD interventions can be complementary and reinforcing adjuncts to the OD process.

14.2 TRAINING EXPERIENCES

The various training experiences used for reinforcing adjuncts to the OD process are:

14.2.1 T-Groups

Early in the OD movement, *T-groups* ("T" for training) were sometimes used with intact work teams, but such use has largely given way to team building.

A T-group is an essentially unstructured, agenda less group session for about 10 to 12 members and a professional "trainer" who acts as catalyst and facilitator for the group.

The data for discussion are the data provided by the interaction of the group members as they strive to create a viable society for themselves. Actions, reactions, interactions, and the concomitant feelings accompanying them are the data for the group. The group typically meets for three days up to two weeks. Conceptual material relating to communication skills, interpersonal relations, individual personality theory, and group dynamics is a part of the program. But the main learning vehicle is the group experience.

Learning's derived from the T-group vary for different individuals, but they are Usually described as learning to be more competent in interpersonal relationships, learning more about oneself as a person, learning how others react to one's behavior, and learning about the dynamics of group formation and group norms and group growth.

The T-group is a powerful learning laboratory where individuals gain insights into the meaning and consequences of their own behavior, the meaning and consequences of others' behaviors, and the dynamics and processes of group behavior.

14.2.2 Behaviour Modeling

Behavior modeling is a training technique designed to improve interpersonal competence. It is not an OD intervention per se, but we believed it should be added to the OD practitioner's repertoire because it is such an effective tool, and because problems with interpersonal relations are common in organizations. For improving interpersonal skills, behavior modeling is an important training option.

Goldstein and Sorcher, behavior modeling has been shown to be an excellent way to make first-line supervisors more effective (Latham and Saari) and to improve organizational performance (Porras et al.).

A simple problem-solving model underlies most behavior modeling training. Porras and Singh describe it as follows:

1. Behavior description
2. Justification
3. Active listening
4. Participative problem solving
5. Positive reinforcement

At the training sessions the problem situation is announced and briefly discussed. Participants then observe a videotape in which the model (who looks similar to them) successfully solves the problems by enacting specific behavioral skills. The trainees discuss the behavioral skills and then role play the situation receiving feedback from the group and the trainer on their performance.

14.3 LIFE AND CAREER PLANNING

A number of approaches exist to help the individual think through and analyze his or her life and career trajectory. This information is often used in workshop or other educational setting in the context of small group discussions and some theory input.

14.3.1 Career Anchors

Edgar Schein has provided the concept of *career anchors*, which are useful individually and in voluntary group discussions in career development workshops. Based on a longitudinal study of MIT Sloan School alumni, Schein hypothesized five basic career anchors. He defines the career anchor as "the pattern of self-perceived talents, motives, and values" that serves "to guide, constrain, stabilize, and integrate the person's career" and that tends to "remain stable throughout the person's career."

The five career anchors are as follows:

1. Technical/functional competence
2. Managerial competence
3. Creativity
4. Security or stability
5. Autonomy

Check Your Progress 1

Fill in the blanks:

1. The concept of career anchors has been proposed by
2. is a training technique designed to improve interpersonal competence.

14.3.2 Coaching and Mentoring

Edgar Schein's view of the OD consultant's role *coaching* and counseling. The consultant maintains the posture, however, that changes in behavior should be based on client decision.

In addition, the OD consultant can be in a position to provide guidance for formal mentoring programs. While coaching by an employee's immediate superior usually focuses on job performance, mentoring is usually much broader and focuses on general career and personal development. The mentor role is usually filled by someone other than the immediate superior, and usually by a person of higher rank from outside the employee's department. Mentoring can be accomplished on a person to person basis or the mentor can meet with a small group of four to six persons, or in both group and one and one sessions. With the group approach the group has the potential to evolve into a learning tem whose members can coach each other. The OD consultant can provide valuable training, such as training in active listening or training in small group process interventions, for example, for those involved in this process.

Mentoring, coaching, counseling, and consulting skills can be enhanced significantly by T-group experience.

14.3.3 Instrumented Training

Self-diagnostic surveys are widely used in human relations training and in laboratory training settings. When used appropriately, they can also be useful for team building. For a successful intervention, the consultant must have expertise in the use of a particular instrument, it must have reasonably high reliability and validity, its use must be based on a diagnosis of what would be helpful to further the development of the team, and participants must have concurred in its use.

One example of a diagnostic instrument, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), with origins in Carl Jung's concept of personality types, uses combinations of scores from four major scales to identify orientation toward Extraversion or Introversion, Sensing or Intuition, Thinking or Feeling, and Judging or perceiving. As another example, Grid OD, is based on an inventory that assesses one's leadership style and management practices. Using a questionnaire, participants can plot on a tow dimensional grid where their practices appear to be in terms of "concern for production" and "concern for people."

The advantages of using self-diagnostic instruments are probably greater in the context of training programs involving strangers or persons from different units than in the context of team building. Some of the dysfunctional consequences might be:

1. Using the results to label or stereotype others.

2. Distorting responses so that scores produce results assumed to be "socially acceptable" or what management might want.
3. Focussing on the analysis of behavior rather than on addressing and solving more fundamental issues facing the team.
4. Fostering over dependence on the OD consultant.

Check Your Progress 2

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. Mentoring is usually much broader and focuses on general career and personal development.
2. A T-group is an essentially unstructured, agenda less group session for about 20 to 30 members.

14.4 LET US SUM UP

T-group training, the educational and social invention giving rise to the laboratory training movement, typically yields important awareness about the self, interpersonal relationships, group dynamics, and leadership. Behavior modeling is a training technique designed to increase effectiveness in problematic interpersonal situation. Life and career-planning workshops are less process oriented than T-group experiences, and they emphasize individual examination of personal career and life plans and then discussion of individuals' analyses and plans in small groups. The use of the five career, anchors, the life goals exercise, and the collage and letters can be significant experiences for participants in these workshops. Coaching and mentoring can supplement an OD effort, and the OD consultant can play an important role in these processes. Instrumented training sessions using self-diagnostic surveys can be useful adjuncts to team building. One dysfunctional aspect of diagnostic surveys, like any OD or training technique, is that they can drive the OD consultant's interventions when a careful diagnosis of what would be particularly useful to a client group would be more appropriate.

14.5 LESSON END ACTIVITY

Design a self analysis form, a questionnaire that a person can use to provide information to help determine his or her own career anchors.

14.6 KEYWORDS

Career: The sequence of behaviours and attitudes associated with past, present and anticipated future work related experiences and role activities.

Coaching: A new paradigm for management based on giving organization members committed support, feedback, new views of work, new visions of organizations, and new ways of relating to supervisors.

Leadership: A process of influence exercised when institutional, political, psychological, and other resources are used to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of the followers.

14.7 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. How can coaching and mentoring supplement an OD effort?
2. Write short notes on:
 - a) T-Group training.
 - b) Behaviour modeling.

Check Your Progress: Model Answers**CYP 1**

1. Edgar Schein
2. Behavior modeling

CYP 2

1. T, 2. F.

14.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

Edgar H. Schien, *Career Dynamics: Matching Individual and Organizational Needs* (Reading, M.A: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1978).

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UNIT V

LESSON

15

POWER, POLITICS AND OD

CONTENTS

- 15.0 Aims and Objectives
- 15.1 Introduction
- 15.2 Power
- 15.3 Theories of Sources of Social Power
 - 15.3.1 Power Dependence Theory
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- 15.5 Framework for Analyzing Power and Politics
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- 15.8 Thumb Rules for OD Practitioners
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- 15.10 Let us Sum up
- 15.11 Lesson End Activity
- 15.12 Keywords
- 15.13 Questions for Discussion
- 15.14 Suggested Readings

15.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- The power and politics in relation to the organisation development
- Theories on power and politics
- The role of power in OD and the role of OD in the power setting

15.1 INTRODUCTION

Power is defined as the ability to get an individual or group to do something- to get the person or group to change in some way. The person who possesses power has the ability to manipulate or change others.

Peffer defined power as “the potential ability to influence behavior, to change the course of events, to overcome resistance, and to get people to do things that they would not otherwise.” Power and politics play a major role in the implementation of change. It is widely observed that power and politics achieves their highest pitch during the transition state i.e., the period when the change program has begun for the positive control.

15.2 POWER

Power can be defined as the intentional influence over the beliefs, emotions, and behaviors of people.

It is derived from a French word ‘pouvoir’ which stands for the noun ‘power’ and the verb ‘to be able’.

The phenomena of the power are ubiquitous. Without the influence of the power people would have no cooperation and no society. Power in action can take many forms. Power *per se* is probably neither good nor bad, a moment’s reflection, however suggest that many problems with power stems from the goals of persons with power and the means they use, not the possession of power as such.

15.3 THEORIES OF SOURCES OF SOCIAL POWER

The important theories are:

15.3.1 Power Dependence Theory

According to this theory given by Richard Emerson states that: (a) the dependence of Actor A upon Actor B is directly proportional to A’s motivational investment in the goals mediated by B. (b) inversely proportional to the availability of these goals to A outside of A-B relation.

The component of this theory is a social relation between two parties and the resources that are controlled by one party and desired by others.

Power dependence theory is related to a broader framework of social interaction called social exchange theory, which posits that what goes on between persons is an exchange of social commodities: love, hate, respect, power, information, blame, rejection etc.

15.3.2 According to French and Raven

On the bases of social power suggested five sources of social power:

- a) Reward power.
- b) Coercive power.
- c) Legitimate power.
- d) Referent power.
- e) Expert power.

In this theory, power belongs to those who control or mediate desired commodities.

15.3.3 Strategic Contingency Model

This model of power suggest that power in organisations accrues to the subunits (individual units or departments most important for solving the organisation's most critical problems.

15.3.4 According to Henry Mint Berg

A theory of organisation power drawn the organisation theory literature and his own creative synthesis abilities.

This theory is built on the premises that organisation behavior is a power game in which players called influencers, seek control to organisation's decisions and actions.

In short all the above mentioned theories of the sources of power are remarkably similar power stems fro possession of or mediation of desired resources. The resources may be ability to reward, punish, being in control of critical skills, knowledge or information etc.

15.4 ORGANISATION POLITICS

Organisation politics involves those activities taken within the organisations to acquire, develop and use power and other resources to obtain one preferred outcomes in a situation in which there is uncertainty or dissensus about choices.

Organisation Politics involves intentional acts of influence to enhance or protect the self interest of the individuals and the group.

However in our context we consider politics as neither good nor bad but believe that politics like power has two face: the first face is negative which is characterized by extreme pursuit of self interest and the positive face which is characterized by the balanced pursuit of the self interest.

Organisation politics tend to be associated with decision making, resource allocation, and conflict resolution process. In fact one gets the understanding of the overall political climate of an organisation by studying its methods of resource allocation, conflict resolution, and choosing among alternative means and goals.

Organisations generally display consistent patterns of decision making, resource allocation, and conflict resolution. Three patterns identified in the organisation literature are the bureaucratic, rational and political models.

In bureaucratic model, decisions are made on the basis of rules, procedures, traditions, and historical precedents.

In a rational model decisions are made on the basis of rational problem solving: goals are identified and agreed upon: situations are objectively analyzed and alternative action plans are generated.

In a political model, decisions are made on the basis of perceived self interest by coalitions for dominance, influence, or resource control.

15.5 FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSING POWER AND POLITICS

Two conceptual models provide a picture of the component parts of situations involving organisation power and politics.

15.5.1 Model 1: By Pfeffer

This model is given by Pfeffer, according to which the environment of the organisation imposes demands and constraints that will be accommodated in the form of "means"

and ends-that is how the organisation gets its job done and the goal it pursues. Often heterogeneous or incompatible goals are sought by the members of the organisation. Like wise, members may seek different or incompatible ways to accomplish the goals.

The primary conditions giving rise to conflict are differentiation, scarcity, interdependence and incompatible goals and means to goals. When these conditions exist, conflict occurs. And when conflict occurs, power and political behaviors are likely to result.

It is possible to increase or decrease the amount of political activity in organisations by manipulating the conditions of power and politics. If organisation actors become less interdependent, conflict will be reduced.

15.5.2 Model 2

Derived from the literature of the game theory literature. The conditions giving rise to cooperation and competition and to use the power have been studied extensively by economist and behavioral scientists in an attempt to understand wars, strikes and arguments as well as cooperation and altruism. Several concepts from the game theory provide a framework for understanding power and politics. Some of these concepts are conflicts, the payoff matrix, the nature of the independent relationships, and integrative and distributive bargaining.

Game theory views conflict as a critical condition leading to power and political behavior. In conflict of interest, different parties prefer different goals. In conflict or competition for scarce resources, different parties want the same resources but both the parties cannot possess them.

Power and politics will predominate in the purely competitive, win lose situation. Power should be absent from the purely cooperative, win- win situations, here the appropriate behaviors are communication, coordination, and cooperation. Power may or may not prevail in the mixed motive situation; here each party needs the other to transact an exchange, yet each party is seeking to maximize its own gains.

15.6 ROLE OF POWER AND POLITICS IN THE PRACTICE OF OD

OD practitioners for dealing with the political realities of the organisations should learn to integrate the concepts of power and politics. Organisation development was founded on the belief that using behavioral science methods to increase collaborative problem solving would increase both organisation effectiveness and individual well-being. This belief gave rise to the field and is the guiding premise behind this technology. To increase collaborative problem solving is to increase the positive face of the power. Thus from its inception OD addressed issues of power and politics by proposing that collaboration, cooperation and problem solving are the better ways to get things done in organisations that rely solely on bargaining and politics. The nature of OD in relation to power and politics can be examined from several perspectives-its strategy of change, its interventions, its values and the role of OD practitioner.

To use the framework of Robert Chin and Kenneth, OD programs implement normative-reeducative and empirical-rational strategies of change, and not power coercive strategy. The normative re educative strategy of change focuses on norms, cultures, prevailing attitudes and belief systems. Change occurs by changing norms and beliefs, usually through education and reeducation. The empirical-rational strategy of change seeks facts and information in an attempt to find better ways to do things.

Virtually all OD interventions promote problem solving, not politics, as preferred way to get things accomplished. OD interventions increase problem solving, collaboration,

fact-finding, and effective pursuits of goals while decreasing reliance on the negative faces of power and politics. The OD interventions generate public data about the organisation culture, power, strengths and weaknesses. OD interventions do not deny or attempt to abolish the reality of power in the organisations; rather they enhance the positive face of power and politics.

OD values are consistent with the positive face of power, but not with the negative face of the power. Values such as trust, openness, collaboration and promoting individuals and organisation competence are the parts of the foundation of organisation development.

The role of OD practitioner is that of facilitator, catalyst, problem solver, and educator.

According to Chris Argyris, the interventionist has three primary tasks:

1. To generate valid and useful information
2. To promote free, informed choice.
3. To promote the client's internal commitment to the choices made.

In short, Organisation Development represents an approach and method to enable the organisation members to go beyond the negative face of power and politics. This major strength of OD drives from the strategy of change, the technology, the values and the role of OD practitioners.

Check Your Progress 1

Fill in the blanks:

1. The provides framework for the concepts like conflicts, the payoff matrix, the nature of the independent relationships, and integrative and distributive bargaining.
2. In, decisions are made on the basis of rules, procedures, traditions, and historical precedents.

15.7 OD PRACTITIONERS OPERATING IN THE POLITICAL ORGANISATION ENVIRONMENT

OD practitioners operate from potentially strong power base which they can use to advantage.

According to French and Raven OD consultants possess the power from the following bases:

15.7.1 Reward Power

This source of power depends on the person's having the ability and resources to reward others. Manager have many potential rewards, such as pay increases, promotion, favourable work assignments, more responsibility, new equipment, praise, feedback and recognition, available to them.

To understand this power, one must remember that the recipient holds the key. If managers offer subordinate what they think is reward, but subordinate do not value it, then managers do not really have reward power.

15.7.2 Coercive Power

This source of power depends on fear. The person with coercive power has the ability to inflict punishment or make other person believe that it will lead to undesirable consequences. It is probably this fear that gets most people to come to work on time & look busy when boss walks through the area.

15.7.3 Legitimate Power

It is almost identical to authority and closely linked to both reward and coercive power because the person with legitimacy is also in the position to reward and punish. It is dependent on the position and not on the personality or the relationship.

Power comes from three different sources. First, the prevailing cultural values of the society, organisation, or group, which determine what, is legitimate. For example in the organisation, managers generally have legitimate power because people believe in hierarchy where the higher positions have been designated to have power over lower positions. Second, people can obtain legitimate power from the accepted social structure, in some societies, there is an accepted ruling class like the blue collar workers. A third, source of legitimate power comes from the designated as the agent or representative of a powerful person or group. For example elected officials or chairperson of the committee.

15.7.4 Referent Power

This type of power comes from the desire on the part of the other persons to identify with the powerful person. The other grant the power he or she is attractive & has desirable resources or personal characteristics. For example, arguments especially emotional ones are more influential when they come from beautiful people. Out of season athlete is forgotten and has little referent power. Managers who depend on referent power must be personally attractive to the subordinate.

15.7.5 Expert Power

Experts are believed to have knowledge or understanding only in certain well-defined areas. The target must perceive the agent to be credible, trustworthy and relevant before expert power is granted.

These sources of influence produces a substantial power base that will enhance the likelihood of success.

- According to Michael Beer, the additional means by which an OD group can gain wield power in organisations are:
 - ❖ Competence.
 - ❖ Political access and sensitivity.
 - ❖ Sponsorship.
 - ❖ Stature and credibility.
 - ❖ Resource management.
 - ❖ Group support.

With the help of these an OD practitioner can enhance the likelihood of success of OD programs:

- OD practitioners can help the organisation members reduce the negative faces of power.
- The concept of negative and positive faces of power and politics suggests where the practitioner is likely to be more effective and less effective. The OD programs will likely be used as a pawn in the organisations power struggle.
- OD practitioners should learn as much as possible about bargaining negotiations, the nature of power and politics, the strategy and tactics of influence and the characteristics and behaviors of power holders.
- OD practitioner realizes that power stems from possessing a commodity valued by others.

15.8 THUMB RULES FOR OD PRACTITIONERS

For effectively operating in a political environment there are several thumb rules for OD practitioners:

RULE ONE Become a desired commodity both as a person and as a professional. OD practitioners should have high interpersonal skills.

RULE TWO OD programs itself should become a desired commodity.

RULE THREE To make the OD program a valued commodity for multiple powerful people in the organisation.

RULE FOUR Create win-win solutions.

RULE FIVE The OD consultants should help on the requests.

RULE SIX OD consultants should help the decision maker by providing them good decision making processes and not getting involved in the answers.

RULE SEVEN OD practitioner should act as a facilitator, catalyst, problem solver and educator, not power activist or power broker.

15.9 GREINER, SCHEIN, POWER AND ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT MODEL

Greiner and Schein proposed a four stage model for using the OD process to help the power elite transform the organisation in ways beneficial for all concerned. The four stages are:

Stage 1: Consolidating power to prepare for changes.

Stage 2: Focusing power on strategic consensus.

Stage 3: Aligning power with Structure and people.

Stage 4: Releasing power through leadership and collaboration.

Thus the model offers the practical insights for acquiring and using powers in the organisation.

Check Your Progress 2

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. OD practitioner should act as a facilitator, catalyst, problem solver and educator, not power activist or power broker.
2. Organisation politics involves intentional acts of influence to enhance or protect the self interest of the individuals and the group.

15.10 LET US SUM UP

This lesson has examined power and politics with the goals of understanding the phenomena and deriving implication for OD practitioners. Power and politics are similar in nature and arise from known conditions, and are amenable to positive control. The lesson has also focused upon the organisation political environment and the various rules to be followed by the OD practitioners to effectively use the power and politics base for the organisation conflict management.

15.11 LESSON END ACTIVITY

Draw a conceptual model, showing the model of power and influence.

15.12 KEYWORDS

Power: The ability to influence others so that one's values are satisfied.

Problem solving process: A systematic, disciplined approach to identifying and solving work related problems.

Intervention: Any action on the part of a change agent. Intervention carries the implication that the action is planned, deliberate and presumably functional.

15.13 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Discuss the role of power and politics in the practice of OD.
2. Comment on the role of OD practitioner is that of facilitator, catalyst, problem solver, and educator.

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

CYP 1

1. Game theory
2. Bureaucratic model

CYP 2

1. T, 2. T.

15.14 SUGGESTED READINGS

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LESSON

16

RESEARCH ON ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT AND ITS FUTURE

CONTENTS

- 16.0 Aims and Objectives
- 16.1 Introduction
- 16.2 Research on OD
 - 16.2.1 Problems with Definitions and Concepts
 - 16.2.2 Problems with Internal Validity
 - 16.2.3 Problems with External Validity
 - 16.2.4 Problems with Lack of Theory
 - 16.2.5 Problems with Measuring Attitude Change
- 16.3 Positive Developments in Research on OD
- 16.4 Future and Organisation Development
 - 16.4.1 Fundamental Strength of OD
 - 16.4.2 OD's Future
- 16.5 Let us Sum up
- 16.6 Lesson End Activity
- 16.7 Keywords
- 16.8 Questions for Discussion
- 16.9 Suggested Readings

16.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- The problems inherent in conducting research on OD
- The substantial progress made in improving research in the field of OD
- To summarize the results of studies conducted on OD and OD processes

16.1 INTRODUCTION

Organisation Development is a prescription for a process of planned change that includes concepts, values and interventions. The OD processes uses various techniques to bring about improvement in the target groups-individuals, teams and the total organisations. In research terminology the OD programs could be called the independent variable and is presumed to cause variation in the dependent variable or effect. The efforts are made to assess the effects of OD, some issues and some problems are discussed. Some focus is also laid to find out the fundamental strengths of OD and the conditions and contingencies associated with the OD's future.

16.2 RESEARCH ON OD

OD research will loosely refer to the OD interventions or program as a treatment that contains some independent variables affecting depending variables of interest. These are discussed below:

16.2.1 Problems with Definitions and Concepts

One of the first problems in research on OD is that X and Y are not precise terms.

Robert Kahn has criticized the field of OD for its lack of precise meaning that OD is not a concept, it is not precisely defined, it is not reducible to specific, uniform, observable behavior; it does not have a prescribed and verifiable place in a network of logically related concepts, a theory.

In this reference the OD has to be precisely defined and we must also move from describing global treatments and global effects to describe independent and dependent variables.

16.2.2 Problems with Internal Validity

Internal validity is the basic minimum without which any experiment is unpredictable. This is the another problem with OD research that OD is demonstrating that the X of interest, some OD activities, and not some other known or unknown X, in fact, caused the variation in Y. Almost all fields of research experiences this problem and the solution to this problem is the research design—the structure of the research from start to finish.

Several designs features enhance internal validity. One of the beat methods is having comparison or control group that receives no treatment but are measured on the dependent variable.

Time series designs are the effective tools used for the excessive concerns of the internal validity in OD research.

16.2.3 Problems with External Validity

A third problem in research on OD is external validity. External validity asks question of generalisability. The question of generalisability to other settings and circumstances is always important and will probably become even more important in the future.

16.2.4 Problems with Lack of Theory

Another problem is that most OD research is not theory guided research. Kerlinger defines theory as a set of interrelated constructs, definitions and propositions, that present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relationship among variables, with purpose of explaining and predicting the phenomena.

Without an established theory on OD, the relations among the variables and the variables themselves are unknown.

The first major step in building theory in OD is identifying and specifying independent and dependent variables that explains the phenomena significant progress is being made, however in the development of theory and the identification and specification of relevant independent and dependent variables.

16.2.5 Problems with Measuring Attitude Change

Research on organisation development often involves administering pre intervention and post intervention attitude questionnaires and observing pre and post intervention differences on attitude scores. If responses become more favorable it is taken that the OD intervention helped to produce positive attitude change and vice versa. The

implications for practitioners and researchers are that additional care and planning must go into research that involves measuring attitude change.

Thus we have seen the major problems confronting research on OD. These problems are not insurmountable, although they continue to plague research efforts.

Check Your Progress 1

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. Organisation Development is a prescription for a process of planned change that includes concepts, values and interventions.
2. Time series designs are the effective tools used for the excessive concerns of the external validity in OD research.

16.3 POSITIVE DEVELOPMENTS IN RESEARCH ON OD

- Some advances in the research on OD are the use of experimental and quasi experimental research designs that really permit us to know what the treatment effects are and increasing attention to formulating theory and testable hypothesis.
- Another positive feature is the increasing evidence of longitudinal studies. Longitudinal research allows both the short term and long term effects of OD intervention to be noted. Development of theory will go hand in hand with more longitudinal research on OD.
- Advances in measurement techniques and valid measurement instruments have also contributed to the better research of OD.
- Use of Meta Analysis to evaluate OD studies has improved the quality of OD research. Meta Analysis uses the quantified data gathered from single studies, cumulates the data across many studies and estimates the true effect of treatments on dependent variable. In essence this technique allows investigators to assess the impact of an intervention by using the results from a number of studies. It is a powerful method for evaluating the effectiveness and effects of OD interventions. Meta analysis have proved to be a very useful tool for understanding the effects of OD interventions.
- Use of socio technical systems interventions are important development in OD field. These efforts aim to optimize the social and the technical system of organisations in order to increase both productivity and quality of life.

16.4 FUTURE AND ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT

The environment in which organisations operate is increasingly turbulent in an era of global, national, regional commercial competitiveness. Alliances, mergers, acquisitions are all common. In large part the old organisation paradigm is dying. OD thus play major role in assisting organisations to shift and to sustain this new paradigm and to help invent new paradigms in the future.

16.4.1 Fundamental Strength of OD

The central strength of OD is that the processes which includes careful tuning in to the perceptions and feelings of the people; creating safe conditions for surfacing perceptions, involving people in diagnosing strength and weaknesses of their organisation and making action plans for improvement.

A second fundamental strength is that OD is highly compatible with democratic governmental structures and processes that are well established in many parts of the world and emerging elsewhere.

16.4.2 OD's Future

How large a role OD will play in the constantly changing organisational, political and economic scenario will depend upon number of conditions which are interrelated. These conditions are:

1. **Leadership and values:** For OD to flourish, top management must place high value on strong individual, group and organisational performance coupled with people oriented values. OD consultants should have organisational effectiveness coupled with democratic and humanistic values.
2. **Knowledge about OD:** Top management groups are likely to utilize OD to the extent that they are aware of and understand the process involved. Thus overall we see that the need for more detailed, published case studies of OD efforts-including success and failures and the use of OD processes in conjunction with the other improvement strategies are required.
3. **OD Training:** A quality training of OD is desired. The need is that the future will hold a need for more availability of T-Group training as a training intervention for aspiring both OD practitioners and managers.
4. Mergers, Acquisition, and Alliances as the business transactions are increasing the phenomena of mergers, acquisition, and alliances have become the Buzz word field thus can be highly relevant in helping the two or more organisational cultures meld. Such interventions would require high degree of interpersonal, political and cultural skill.
5. **Rediscovering and Recording history:** The history of OD is indispensable for retraining and improving effective OD interventions and approaches. some portions of OD history are in danger of being lost forever, although some are likely to be reinvented from time to time.
6. **Search for community:** We believe that the search for community will be increasingly high on the agendas of organisations and OD efforts in the future, either explicitly or implicitly. OD interventions take people towards a sense of community, because the values underlying OD stem largely from what people have said over and over again.
7. **High performance and community:** We strongly believe that future OD efforts increasingly will be aimed at both high organisational performance and a sense of community.
8. **Integrative practices:** Yet a major need is to couple the OD skills should couple with other integrative practices like TQM and QWL, reengineering programs. OD practitioners should be as knowledgeable as possible about such structural interventions and these integrations.

Check Your Progress 2

Fill in the blanks:

1. In, decisions are made on the basis of rules, procedures, traditions, and historical precedents.
2. asks question of generalisability.

16.5 LET US SUM UP

This lesson gives an overview of the problems, positive developments, and results for research on organisation development substantiates the valuable contribution OD makes to organisation and its people. Beside this we have examined that enormous opportunities and potential exists for the OD movement in the future. Organisations throughout the world need the unique help that can be provided by highly trained

interventionist using people oriented and action oriented approaches. The future of OD is bright as long as the high quality, hard work of the past continues. Much challenging, difficult work remains to be done.

16.6 LESSON END ACTIVITY

Discuss the individual power bases and determine the strategies for success giving insights on effective combination of OD and power.

16.7 KEYWORDS

T-Groups: A method of helping people develop greater self awareness and become more sensitive to their effect on others.

Total Quality Management: A comprehensive and a large scale intervention that focuses all organisation systems on the continuous improvement of quality.

16.8 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. How large a role OD will play in the constantly changing organisational, political and economic scenario?
2. “Organisational Politics involves intentional acts of influence to enhance or protect the self interest of the individuals and the group.” Discuss.

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

CYP 1

1. T, 2. F.

CYP 2

1. Bureaucratic model
2. External validity

16.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

Chris Argyris, *Intervention theory and Methods: A Behavioral Science View*.

Beer and Walton, *Organisational Change and Development*.

Nilanjan Sengupta, Bhattacharya and R.N. Sengupta, *Managing Change in Organisations*.

Paul Goodman, *Assessing Organisational Change*.

W. Warner Burke, *Organisational Development*, p. 200.

LESSON

17

ISSUES IN CONSULTANT-CLIENT RELATIONSHIP

CONTENTS

- 17.0 Aims and Objectives
- 17.1 Introduction
- 17.2 Issues
 - 17.2.1 Entry and Contracting
- 17.3 Defining the Client System
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- 17.8 Action Research and the OD Process
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- 17.10 Let us Sum up
- 17.11 Lesson End Activity
- 17.12 Keywords
- 17.13 Questions for Discussion
- 17.14 Suggested Readings

17.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- A number of interrelated issues in consultant-client relationship in OD activities
- The need to manage these issues appropriately if advance effects are to be avoided

17.1 INTRODUCTION

Numerous issues regarding the client-consultant relationship need to be addressed and managed in a successful OD effort. These issues are discussed ahead.

17.2 ISSUES

These issues tend to center on the following important areas:

17.2.1 Entry and Contracting

An initial discussion that can lead to an OD consulting contract can occur in various ways:

During the face-to-face meeting, the consultant explores with the potential client some of the deeper aspects of the presenting problem.

Furthermore, in the first meeting, the consultant and the client probably begin to sort out what group would be the logical starting point for an OD intervention.

If the problems appear to lend themselves to OD interventions, the consultant describes how he or she usually proceeds in such circumstances.

The more formal compensation aspects of the initial contract are also important and need to be clarified for the peace of mind of both client and consultant. One course of action is to have an oral agreement for an hourly or daily fee, with no charge for a brief telephone discussion and usually no charge for a longer first exploration.

Constricting, in both a psychological and financial sense, occurs over and over in OD consulting.

17.3 DEFINING THE CLIENT SYSTEM

The question of who the client is quickly becomes an important issue in consultant relationships. (We usually refer to the consultant in the singular, but the points we want to make also tend to apply to consultant team. Similarly, the initial client may be an individual or a management team.) We think a viable model is one in which in the initial contact, a single manager is the client, but as trust and confidence develop between the key client and the consultant, both begin to view the manager and his or her subordinate team as the client, and then the manager's total organisation as the client. Ideally, this progression begins to occur in the first interview.

Another viable model is one in which a small, top management team (for example the CEO, vice president of human resources, and another vice president) comprises the initial client group. Still another model of who the client might be is a steering committee comprised of representatives from different levels and functional areas. In this case, if the CEO is not a member, the consultant will need to be sensitive to whom presents the CEO, or, in short, who represents the power structure. The whole process will be impotent if a steering committee is not free to act in the absence of the CEO.

17.4 TRUST ISSUE

A good deal of the interaction in early contacts between client and consultant is implicitly related to developing a relationship of mutual trust.

Similarly, the consultant's trust of the client may be starting at neutral. The consultant will be trying to understand the client's motives and will want to surface any that are partly hidden.

On a positive note, the client may see OD as means of increasing both the client's and the subordinates effectiveness, plus having hopes that successful OD effort may bring considerable recognition from superiors. Surfacing such motives and examining their implications for effective behaviour will enhance trust between the consultant and the client and will help to assure the eventual success of OD activities.

Confidentiality must be maintained if trust is to be maintained, implied in Weisbord's ground rules for contracting. Even unintentional errors can be disastrous to the consultant-client relationship. Gavin gives an illustration in which notes made by consultants on the leadership and communication styles of managers were inadvertently duplicated and circulated to participants along with notes on workshop

themes and action steps. The consultants had been asked to do the latter; the notes on the managers' styles had been intended to be used by the facilitators in private counseling sessions with individual managers. As Gavin reports it, by the time these notes had been circulated, any semblance of trust in the consultants had been destroyed.

17.5 NATURE OF THE CONSULTANT'S EXPERTISE

Partly because of the unfamiliarity with organisation development methods, clients frequently try to put the consultant in the role of the expert on substantive content, such as on personnel policy or business strategy. We believe it is possible, and desirable, for the OD consultant to be an expert in the sense of being competent to present a range of options open to the client, but any extensive reliance on the traditional mode of consulting, that is, giving substantive advice, will tend to negate the OD consultant's effectiveness. The OD consultant needs to resist the temptation of playing the content expert and will need to clarify his or her role with the client when it becomes an issue. However, we think the OD consultant should be prepared to describe in broad outline what the organisation might look like if it were to go very far with an OD effort.

In other words, the OD consultant should act in the expert role on the process used but not the task. The OD consultant can be helpful by presenting some optional forms and discussing the possible implications of each.

We believe that the more extensive the OD consultant's knowledge of management and organisation, the more effective the OD consultant can be but beware of the difference between being essentially a facilitator-educator and being essentially an advice-giver.

17.6 DIAGNOSIS AND APPROPRIATE INTERVENTIONS

Another pitfall for the consultant is the temptation to apply an intervention technique he or she particularly likes and that has produced good results in the past, but may not square with a careful diagnosis of the immediate situation.

We think a consultant should do what he or she can do but the intervention should be appropriate to the diagnosis, which requires an intensive look at the data, for example, the themes from interviews. The wider the range of interventions with which the consultant is familiar, of course, the more options the consultant can consider. The more the consultant's expertise and experience, the less agonizing is likely to be required in selecting or designing appropriate interventions.

17.6.1 Depth of Intervention

A major aspect of selecting appropriate interventions is the matter of depth of intervention.

Harrison means the degree to which the data are more or less public versus being hidden or private and the ease with which the intervention skills can be learned. Individuality means the closeness to the person's perceptions of self and the degree to which the effects of an intervention are in the individual in contrast to the organisation.

To minimize these risks, Harrison suggests two criteria for determining the appropriate depth of intervention:

First to intervene at a level no deeper than that required to produce enduring solutions to the problems at hand; and, second, to intervene at a level no deeper than that at which the energy and resources of the client can be committed to problem solving and to change.

Another way of viewing depth of intervention might be to think about the performance of units by descending order of systems and subsystems. Data about the

behavior and performance of the total organisation are perhaps the most accessible and the least personal and perhaps create the least personal anxiety and defensiveness. Performance and behavior data about me in an organisation are perhaps the least accessible and the most personal.

17.7 CONSULTANT AS A MODEL

Another important issue is whether change agents are willing and able to practice what preach. In the area of feelings, for example, the consultant maybe advocating a more open system in which feelings are considered legitimate and their expression important to effective problem solving and at the same time suppressing his or her own feelings about what is happening in the client system.

17.7.1 Consultant Team as a Microcosm

The consultant-key client viewed as a team or consultants working as a team can be profitably if viewed as a microcosm of the organisation they are trying to create. In the first place, the consultant team must set an example of an effective unit if the team is to enhance its credibility. Second, practitioners need the effectiveness that comes from continuous growth and renewal processes and third, the quality of the interrelationships with the consulting team carries over directly into the quality of their diagnosis their intervention designs, and their interventions designs, and their interventions.

Check Your Progress 1

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. To think about the performance of units by descending order of systems and subsystems is a way of viewing depth of intervention.
2. The client may see OD as means of increasing both the client's and the subordinates effectiveness.

17.8 ACTION RESEARCH AND THE OD PROCESS

A related issue is whether the OD process itself will be subject to the ongoing action search being experienced by the client system process, the change agents and the organisation will not learn how to make the future OD interventions more effective.

17.8.1 Dependency Issue and Terminating the Relationship

If the consultant is in the business of enhancing the client system's abilities in problem living and renewal, then the consultant is in the business of assisting the client to internalize skill sand insights rather than to create a prolonged dependency relationship. This issue tends to be minor, however, if the consultant and the client work out the expert versus facilitator issued scribed earlier and if the consultant subscribes to the notion that OD should be a shared technology. The facilitator role, we believe, creates less dependency and more client growth than the traditional consulting modes the notion of a shared technology leads to rapid learning on the part of the client.

Tannenbaum believes that many OD programs taper off because not enough attention has been given to helping people and units let go of matters that need to be laid to rest, to die. He believes that in a real sense, facilitators should be able to assist in a mourning process, but to be of help, facilitators must able to confront their own tendencies to want to hang on and their own vulnerability.

We also suspect that OD efforts frequently flounder because of internal power struggles. The threat may be the practitioner or the OD effort or the threat may be wholly unrelated to the OD Process.

Sometimes the organisation may simply be temporarily overloaded by externally imposed crises occupying the attention of key people. Under such conditions the best strategy may be one of reducing or suspending the more formalized OD interventions and letting people carry on with their enhanced skills and then returning to the more formalized aspects at a later date.

17.9 IMPLICATIONS OF OD FOR THE CLIENT

An OD effort has some fundamental implications for the chief executive officer and top managers of an organisation, and we believe that these implications need to be shared and understood at the outset. Basically, OD interventions as we have described them, are a conscious effort on the part of top management:

1. ***To enlarge the database for making management decisions.*** In particular, the expertise, perceptions, and sentiments of team members throughout the organisation are more extensively considered than heretofore.
2. ***To expand the influence processes.*** The OD process tends to further a process of mutual influence; managers and subordinates alike tend to be influential in ways they have not experienced previously.
3. ***To capitalize on the strength of the informal system and to make the formal and the informal system more congruent.*** A great deal of information that has previously been suppressed within individuals or within the informal system (e.g., appreciations, frustrations, hurts, opinions about how to do things more effectively, fears begins to surfaced and dealt with. Energies spent suppressing matters cap now be re channeled into cooperative effort.
4. ***To become more responsive.*** Management must now respond to data that have been submerged and must begin to move in the direction of personal, team, and organisational effectiveness suggested by the data
5. ***To legitimize conflict as an area of collaborative management.*** Rather than using win-lose, smoothing, or withdrawal modes of conflicted solution, the mode gradually becomes one of confronting the underlying basis for the conflict and working the problem through to a successful resolution.
6. ***To examine its own leadership style and ways of manage.*** We do not think an effort can be viable long if the top management team (the CEO plus subordinate team or the top team of an essentially autonomous unit) does not actively participate in the effort. The top team inevitably is a powerful determinant of organisational culture. OD is not a televised game being played for viewing by top management; members of top management are the key players.
7. ***To legitimize and encourage the collaborative management of team inter team, and organisation cultures.*** This broad intervention goal is largely the essence of OD.

We think that these items largely describe the underlying implications for top management and that the OD consultant needs to be clear about them from the beginning an to help the top management group be clear about them as the process unfolds.

Check Your Progress 2

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. A good deal of the interaction in early contacts between client and consultant is implicitly related to developing a relationship of mutual trust.
2. The top team inevitably is a powerful determinant of organisational culture and largely the essence of OD.

17.10 LET US SUM UP

Numerous issues have to do with establishing the initial contract, identifying who is the client, establishing trust, clarifying the role of the consultant determining the appropriate depth of intervention, examining the consequent, is of being absorbed by, the organisation's culture, viewing the consultant and consulting teams as models, applying action research to OD, terminating the relationship, and ethical standards. These issue important implications for practitioners, top management, and the organisation.

17.11 LESSON END ACTIVITY

Discuss taking an example of the organisation that OD interventions are conscious efforts on the part of the top management.

17.12 KEYWORDS

Model: A simplification of some phenomena for purposes of study and understanding.

Microcosm group: A small, representative group selected from the organisation at a large to address important organisational issues.

Entry: The process that describes how an OD practitioner first encounters and establishes relationship with a client system.

17.13 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Discuss the role of consultant as a model.
2. 'We believe that the more extensive the OD consultant's knowledge of management and organisation, the more effective the OD consultant can be.' Discuss.

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

CYP 1

1. T, 2. T.

CYP 2

1. T, 2. T.

17.14 SUGGESTED READINGS

Marvin Weisboard, *The Organisation Development Contract, Organisation Development Practitioner*.

W. Warner Burke, *Organisation Development*, 2nd edition.

Edgar H. Schien, *Process Consultation*, Vol. 1.

Chris Argyris, *Intervention Theory and Method*.

LESSON

18

MECHANISTIC AND ORGANIC SYSTEMS

CONTENTS

- 18.0 Aims and Objectives
- 18.1 Introduction
- 18.2 Mechanistic Systems
- 18.3 Organic Systems
- 18.4 Contingency or Situational Approach
 - 18.4.1 Implications of Contingency Approach
 - 18.4.2 Limitations of Contingency Approach
- 18.5 Failures of Organisation Development
- 18.6 Let us Sum up
- 18.7 Lesson End Activity
- 18.8 Keywords
- 18.9 Questions for Discussion
- 18.10 Suggested Readings

18.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, you should be able to understand:

- Various types of systems and their importance in OD
- How the contingency approach is an important addition to the paradigm of the modern management theory

18.1 INTRODUCTION

A organisation is a system which works within a broader framework of an environment. The organisation continuously interacts with its environment and is affected by environment and also affects the environment. The researches and study has proved that there are two types of systems of management suitable for two types of environment. These are:

1. Mechanistic systems-suitable for stable environment
2. Organic systems-Suitable for dynamic environment.

The development of two systems in various organisations is the conclusive proof of the effect of environment on the management and organisation structure, with environment acting as a major determinant.

18.2 MECHANISTIC SYSTEMS

According to Burns and Stalker, a mechanistic system has the following characteristics:

1. The specialised differentiation of functional tasks into which the problems and the tasks facing the concern as a whole are broken down.
2. The reconciliation, for each level in the hierarchy, of these distinct performances by the immediate superiors, who are also in turn, responsible for seeing that each is relevant in his own special part of the main task.
3. The translation of rights and obligations and methods into the responsibilities of a functional position.
4. Hierarchic structure of control, authority and communication.
5. The abstract nature of each individual task, which is pursued with techniques and purposes more or less distinct from those of the concern as a whole.
6. A tendency of interaction between members of the concern to be vertical i.e, between superior and subordinate.
7. The greater importance and prestige attaching to internal than the general knowledge, experience, and skill.
8. A reinforcement of the hierarchic structure by the location of knowledge of actualities exclusively at the top of the hierarchy, where the final reconciliation of distinct tasks and assessment of relevance is made.
9. A tendency of operations and working behavior to be governed by the instruction and decision issued by the superiors.
10. The greater importance and prestige attaching to internal than the general knowledge, experience and skills.

18.3 ORGANIC SYSTEMS

The organic system has the following characteristics:

1. The contributive nature of special knowledge and experience to the common task of the concerns;
2. The spread of the commitment to the concern beyond any technical definition.
3. A lateral rather than a vertical direction of communication through the organisation, communication between people of different ranks, also resembling consultation rather than command;
4. A content of communication which consist of information and advice rather than instruction and decisions;
5. The adjustment and continual re-definition of individual tasks through interactions with others.
6. Importance and prestige attached to affiliations and expertise valid in the industrial and commercial milieu central to the firm.
7. The network structure of control, authority and communication.
8. Commitment to the concern's tasks and to the technological ethos of material progress and expansion is more highly valued than loyalty and obedience.

18.4 CONTINGENCY OR SITUATIONAL APPROACH

Contingency or situational approach is an important addition to the paradigm of modern management. The basic idea of the contingency approaches that there cannot be a particular management action which will be suitable for all situations. Contingency approach tries to fill the gap between organisation and its environment.

Contingency approach takes into account not only given situations but also the influence of given solutions on behavior patterns of an organisation.

According to Tosi and Hammer the basic view is that when a subsystem in an organisation behaves in response to another system or subsystem, we say that response is contingent on environment.

Contingency approach has the following features:

1. Management action is contingent on certain action outside the system or subsystem as the case may be.
2. Organisational action should be based on the behavior of action outside the system so that organisation should be integrated with the environment.
3. Because of the specific organisation-environment relationship, no action can be universal. It varies from situation to situation.

18.4.1 Implications of Contingency Approach

Contingency approach is an important addition to the paradigm of modern theory of management. It is the sophisticated approach to understand the increasing complexity to the organisation. The major implications of the contingency approach are as follows:

1. Management is entirely situational and there is nothing like universal principle of management or one best way of doing a particular thing.
2. The approach suggests suitable alternatives for those managerial actions which are generally contingent upon external and internal environment such as organisational design, strategy formulation etc.
3. Contingency approach suggest that since the organisation interacts with its environment, neither the organisation or any of its subsystem is free to take absolute action.

18.4.2 Limitations of Contingency Approach

In spite of various contributions, contingency approach has not been acknowledged as a unified theory of management because it suffers from certain limitations:

1. **Inadequate literature:** This approach has not adequately spelled out various types of actions which can be taken under different situations.
2. **Complex:** The suggestion of this approach is very simple, that the managers when actually put into practice, this becomes very complex.
3. **Difficult empirical testing:** This approach lacks the empirical validity and hence cannot be adopted to managerial actions.
4. **Reactive not proactive:** Contingency approach is basically reactive in nature. It merely suggests what managers can do in a given situation.

No doubt these limitations are valid, but the situation remains that at micro level, managers have to manage according to contingency approach.

Check Your Progress 1

Fill in the blanks:

1. The network structure of control, authority and communication.
2. The concept of mechanistic system is given by

18.5 FAILURES OF ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT

Organisation development however has invited sharp criticism as a strategy to increase, organisational viability and effectiveness because many OD programmes have failed. Much of the enthusiasm created at the beginning of OD programmes vanished over the period of time in early 60s. OD became quite successful with many professional consultants offering ship services and programmes to various organisations. By 70 s, however substantial disenchantment with OD became evident because of many controversial OD techniques like sensitivity training confrontation techniques. etc. Research studies have also failed to conclude significant contributions of OD in all organisations, particularly in bottom-line ones. Therefore, OD can not be taken as panacea for curing all organisational problems. In general, OD is criticized on the following lines:

1. There is discrepancy between ideal and real situations. OD tries to achieve ideal without taking into account real.
2. OD makes people unfit for the real organisational world because no organisation can fully adopt open system concept.
3. Resistance to change is a natural phenomenon and OD puts undue pressure to change. Hence it fails even as a long-term strategy.
4. OD fails to motivate people with low level of achievement needs. If an organisation is laden with these people. It is useless to try OD.
5. OD programmes are often quite costly and only large organisations can afford this luxury without any guarantee of positive outcome.

It can be seen that many of these criticisms are based on reality and experience. People realised its dysfunctional aspects only when many OD efforts failed. However, it may be emphasised that OD programmes are likely to fail when these are not undertaken properly. In fact, there have been cases of wrong implementation of OD programmes and hence failure.

Evans has identified three factors which have been responsible for the failure of OD programmes:

1. failure of the management consultant group to correctly tailor the programme to actual needs of the organisation;
2. failure to correctly model appropriate personnel behavior in the programme; and
3. failure to increase employee motivation through participation and development of personal growth and self-esteem.

Thus, it can be visualized that OD itself may not be dysfunctional but application may be. Therefore, in order to make best use of OD efforts some specific efforts are required. Some of these efforts are as follows:

1. There should be genuine support of OD programme from top management.
2. Organisation must formulate the objectives of OD programme very clearly and specifically.
3. Enough time should be allowed so that the effects of OD programme are realized.
4. There should be proper use of OD interventions. These should be based on the specific needs of the organisation.
5. Only fully competent OD consultant should be pressed for the service and he should develop understanding with internal change agents.

Check Your Progress 2

State whether the following statements are True or False:

1. Contingency approach suggests an active relationship between the variables in a situation and the managerial action devised.
2. Management as a system emphasizes on close system perspective.

18.6 LET US SUM UP

The lesson has tried to cover the understanding of the system as an assemblage of things connected or interrelated so as to form a complex unit. The lesson has also tried to cover the characteristics of the mechanistic and organic system and the contingency approach in details. The latter part of the lesson discuss the major reasons of the failure of OD. Thus we conclude that system approach posses the conceptual level of managerial analysis much higher than any other approach.

18.7 LESSON END ACTIVITY

Bring out the significance of the statement, 'Effective management is always contingency or situational management.' Explain with the help of a relevant example in Indian organization.

18.8 KEYWORDS

Sub system: A part of a system.

Differentiation: The extent to which individual organisational units are different from each other along a variety of dimensions.

Functional: Those parts of the system that promotes the attainment of its goals.

18.9 QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is system approach in the organisation theory? Differentiate between mechanistic and organic system?
2. Discuss the reasons for the failure of OD.
3. Write short notes on:
 - a) Mechanistic systems.
 - b) Organic systems.

Check Your Progress: Model Answers

CYP 1

1. Organic system
2. Burns and stalker

CYP 2

1. T, 2. F.

18.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

C. WEST Churchman, *The System Approach*, New York: Dale Publishing.

Henry L. Tosi and W. Clay Hammer, *Organisational Behavior and Management: A Contingency Approach*, Chicago: St. Clair Press, 1974.

L M Prasad, *Principles and Practice of Management*, Sultan Chand and Sons.

Nilanjan Sen Gupta, Bhattacharya and R.N Sengupta, *Managing Change in Organisations*, PHI.