CHANGE MANAGEMENT AND

ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

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CONTENTS

1. DEFINING ORGANIZATION

In order to discuss the issue of change at the organizational level, we must first of all define the concept of organization. We will not place too much of an emphasis on this aspect, but merely try to offer an overall idea of the matter.

The paradigm we adhere to – concerning the definition of organization – is the systematic one: an organization is an open system (engaged in exchanges of matter, energy and information with the environment), of a biological type (it is „born", it appears at a clearly defined moment in time, and progresses/regresses later on; it is able to adapt to the environment). More specifically, an organization is "a consciously coordinated social entity, with a relatively identifiable boundary, which functions on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or a set of goals"[1].

In other words, a discussion on organization must necessarily begin by defining the term "system". Ludwig von Bertalanffy was the first theoretician who formulated the principles of the general theory of systems, in 1950. According to his definition, a system is "a total of elements that are interacting"[2]. Kast and Rosenzweig believe that a system is "an organized unitary whole composed of two or more interdependent parts, components, or subsystems and delineated by identifiable boundaries"[3] . To sum up the diverse definitions offered for this notion, we may conclude that the concept of "system" indicates interdependence, interconnectedness, and interrelation between the elements of a set that is constituted as a whole or an identifiable gestalt[4].

We will continue with a brief presentation of the main features of an open system, as seen by Katz, Kahn and Hanna.

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[1] Robbins, P. Stephen- *Organization Theory*, decond edition, 1987, Prantice Hall Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, p. 5.
[2] French, Wendell and Bell**,** H. Cecil**,** jr.- *Organization Development*, 1999, Pranctice Hall, New Jersey, p. 82.
[3] ibidem.
[4] ibidem.

All systems are mechanisms that transform input in output by way of an internal mechanism that differs from one system to another. The input represents energy, matter or information, and guarantees the system's subsistence. The transformation mechanism refers to those specific activities of the organization which modify and convert the input into output (see graph 1).
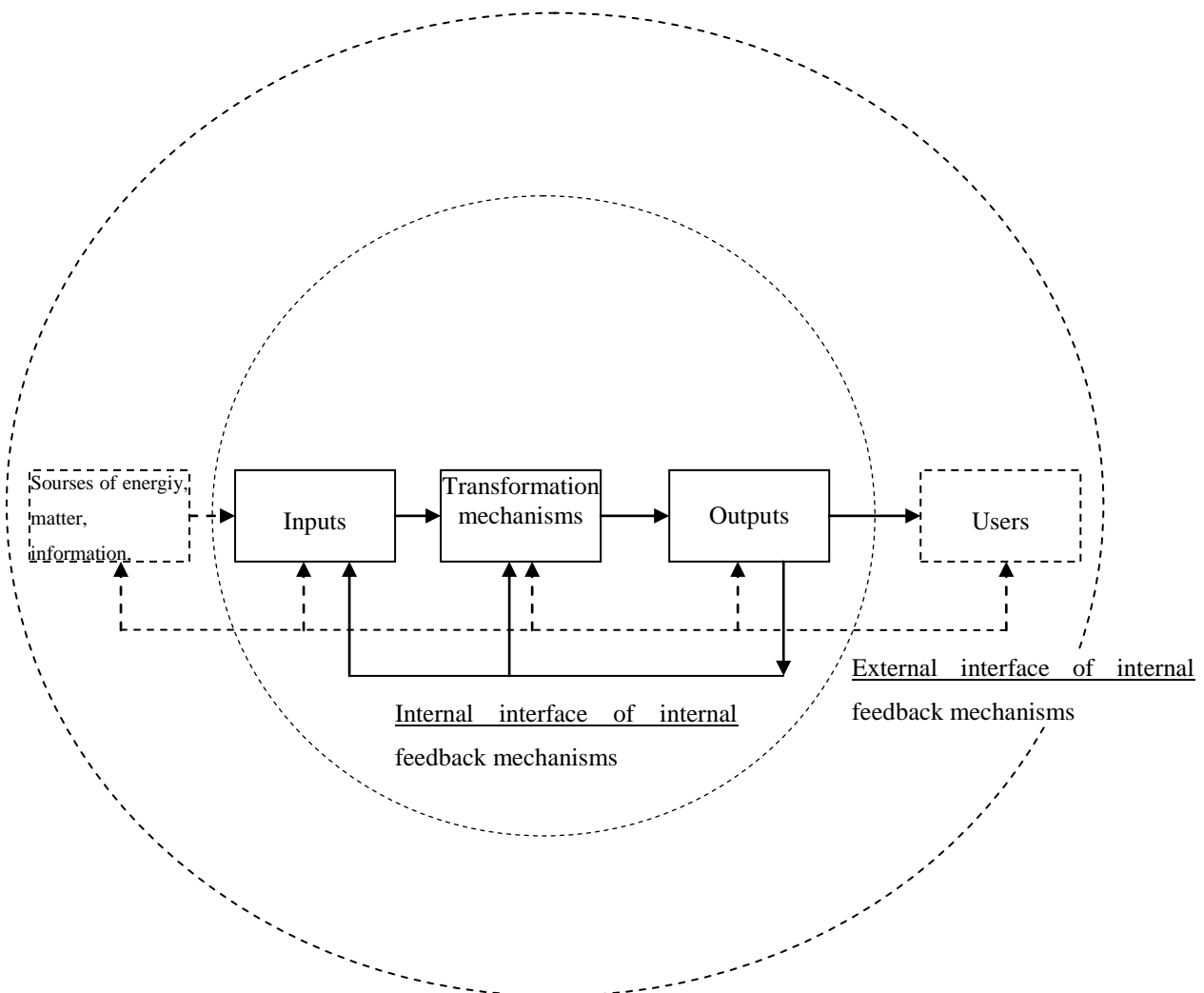

Figure 1. A SYSTEM'S INTERACTION WITH ITS ENVIRONMENT[5]

Every system has identifiable boundaries that represent the interface between that system and its environment. These borders are permeable, but it must be noted that most changes and activities take place within them, not outside them. In other words, the system's

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[5] French, Wendell and Bell, H. Cecil, jr.- *Organization Development*, 1999, Pranctice Hall, New Jersey, p. 83.

activity is mostly internal, and its relations with the environment are a mere fraction of the processes and activities that undergo within it.

An open system has goals and objectives that indicate the reasons for which that particular entity exists and functions. These goals and objectives cannot exist irrespectively of the values and requirements of their environment. Certainly, each system manifests a certain degree of autonomy (that is different from one system to another, depending on its features, the type of environment, and on the system-environment relations), but will have an influence on the system's features in all cases, thus also influencing its purposes. For instance, the organization's outputs represent the most accurate reflection of its purposes, and these outputs may or may not be accepted by the environment.

Another significant aspect of this discussion is the fact that all systems are likely to increase their entropy, to "disintegrate". This generally valid tendency is kept under control by certain mechanisms and processes that produce "negative entropy"[6] and preserve the unity of the system.

Any organization, any system needs information in order to survive, in order to perform successfully. At this level of our approach, we will focus on feedback, that is, on information that the system receives from its environment regarding its activities. There are 2 types of feedback: positive and negative. The definitions that Hanna offers concerning these notions state that "negative feedback measures the extent to which the output corresponds to the goals and objectives set. It is also known as feedback for correcting deviation. (…) Positive feedback refers to the extent to which the goals and objectives correspond to the requirements of the environment. It is sometimes found under the name of feedback for amplifying deviation"[7]. For instance, if a rocket on its way to the moon deviates from the initial trajectory, the correction performed is the consequence of a negative feedback, and results in resuming the trajectory's correct coordinates. However, if the mission's goal

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[6] Robbins, P. Stephen- *Organization Theory*, second edition, 1987, Prentice Hall Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey p.13.
[7] ibidem.

changes (for example, if the rocket must return to Earth), the information is a positive feedback, and the system adapts to the new goal/objective.

Systems are continuously swarmed with very large amounts of information – of which a part is useful, and another useless to the corresponding systems. As a result, any system will develop an ability to "encode" the useful information and to include it in its activities, and at the same time, to ignore the useless data. For instance, if we were an organization of higher education, we would deem useful any information concerning the particular legislative context, the high-school final exam, birth rate, in-school mortality, etc. but not information related to external affairs or the weapon industry…

One other feature of the open system is the dynamic homeostasis. The system reaches a certain state of equilibrium and tends to maintain it, against the inner or outer forces that attempt to modify it. Otherwise said, we are dealing with the system's tendency to self-preserve, to preserve its status-quo, its state of equilibrium (see Parsons's theory). Nevertheless, systems become in time more elaborate, specialized and complex; this process is entitled differentiation. The greater the difference is, the greater becomes the need to integrate and coordinate (that is, the need for leadership and management, in the case of organizations).

Finally, one last feature: equifinality. There is no one way of attaining a certain goal or a certain stage within a system. Any given system may reach the same position through various ways, identical from this point of view, different only in their modus operandi (or the cost/profit relationship, if we want to offer a managerial perspective)

The features of the open system can clarify a great deal of problems related to organizational change. Resistance to change may be explained by the systems' homeostatic nature, differentiation explains part of the organization's growth and propensity towards bureaucratization, even the "death" of organizations can be explained by its inability to create negative entropy. Obviously, all these explanations are but a framework for a deeper analysis, yet they offer an accurate enough description of the way in which an organization functions, so that they may be omitted within a theoretical procedure concerning change issues.

There are countless definitions of an organization (see table 1), but within the context of this work we may settle for the fact that any organization is an open system, capable of adapting to the environment.

Further on, we will present a few of the most well known points of view regarding the definition of organization:

1. **Organizations are rational entities that pursue attaining certain goals** – Organizations exist in order to reach goals, and the behavior of organization members may be described (and explained) as a rational attempt of reaching these goals.

2. **Organizations are coalitions of groups of power** – Organizations consist of groups that are only looking after their own interests. These groups use their power to bias the distribution of resources within the organization.

3. **Organizations are open systems** – Organizations are systems capable of input – which they later transform in output; in other words, organizations depend on their environment for survival.

4. **Organizations are systems with a signifier** – Organizations are entities created artificially. Their goals and objectives are conceived symbolically and preserved by management.

5. **Organizations are fragmentary systems** – Organizations consist of relatively independent units that pursue different or even conflicting goals.

6. **Organizations are political systems** – Organization consist of groups that pursue taking control over the decision process within the organization, in order to consolidate their own positions.

7. **Organizations are instruments of dominance** – Organizations place their members in "cubicles" that restrict their freedom to act and interact socially. Moreover, they have a superior that has authority over them.

8. **Organizations are units of processing information** – Organizations evaluate the environment, coordinate the activities and facilitate the decision-making procedure by processing information, both vertically as well as horizontally, by way of a hierarchical structure.

9. **Organizations are mental prisons** – Organizations impose limitations upon their members by creating the job-description, by dividing them into departments, offices etc. and by setting standards of acceptable and unacceptable behavior. Once these elements have been accepted by their members, they turn into artificial barriers that limit the number of their choices.

10. **Organizations are social contracts** – Organizations consist of a set of unwritten agreements by which members commit themselves to completing certain tasks and to behaving in a certain way, in exchange for certain compensations.

TABLE 1. DIFFERENT DEFINITIONS OF ORGANIZATION[8]

Now that we have analyzed the main features of organizations and briefly described some of the definitions found for organizations, we trust it is time to apply this knowledge to the field of organizational change. Therefore, we will continue with a short presentation of two of the main variations of the open system theory (OST): socio-technical systems theory (SST) and open system planning (OSP).

SST was developed by Eric Trist and Fred Emery at the Tavistock Institute in the1950s. The basic premise is that all organizations are formed by two interdependent systems – a social one and a technological (or technical) one. Given their interdependence, any change in one of them brings about a change in the other one. In order to reach a high level of performance and satisfaction among employees at their workplace, both systems need to be maximized. SST is the theoretical basis for most of the attempts to restructure and

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[8] Robbins, P. Stephen- *Organization Theory*, ed. a doua, 1987, Prentice Hall Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, p. 9.

redesign organizations that are currently part of any OD effort. Certainly, in order to maximize the two systems, a series of techniques and methods have been created: the construction of autonomous work groups; training of the employees in several areas, for development of several skills, extended autonomy at the workplace; offering activity-based feedback, etc. At present, the most successful organizations use these techniques based on the SST theoretical constructs.

OST origins date back in the late '60s. It is a theoretical approach that attempts to analyze methodically the connection between organization and environment, the environmental demands and the way in which they can be fulfilled by the organization. In other words, OST involves (1) scanning the environment in order to identify the demands of both the other organizations, as well as the customers; (2) generating alternative scenarios for the future, both realistic (what would happen if the organization maintained its current development course), as well as idealist (what the organization would want to happen), and (3) outlining action plans that may guarantee a desirable future for the organization.

Certainly, the two models described above do not exclude each other. Most of the time, a combination of the two is used (in specific OD interventions), and the emphasis is placed both on maximizing the internal activity flow, as well as on relating it to the environmental demands.

2. THEORIES ON ORGANIZATION CHANGE

1. DEFINITION OF ORGANIZATION CHANGE

While the general concept of 'change' is defined as just "a new state of things, different from the old state of things"[9], organizational change is more difficult to define. For a better understanding, the easiest approach is not trying to define it, but rather comparing it to other types of change. The name itself – 'organizational change' – already explains that we are talking about a change in the organizational activities, but this statement alone does not say much about the type of activities that are subject to change. By comparing operational change with organizational change, the first thing that one will notice is the fact that the former refers exclusively to individuals, with their roles and values, whereas the latter covers a much larger field, that is all the operational processes - of serving customers, of production, of logistics.[10] Besides these, organizational change also covers changes that appear in work processes (that may be understood as "a set of work tasks fulfilled in order to reach a clear purpose" [11]) and in their subsystems.

Furthermore, organizational change may also be defined as "a state of transition between the current state and a future one, towards which the organization is directed"[12]. Although this definition is closer to the definition of change in general, a certain difference, though subtle, is indeed visible. The origins of this definition are found in the thinking of Lewin (1947), who formulated the concept of movement between two discrete and somewhat permanent "states", related to organizational change, which means being in a state 'I' at a moment 'I', and in a state 'II' at a moment 'II'. The suggested movement is linear and static as well as, according to some authors [13], unfit for the dynamic concept of organizational

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[9] French, Wendell and Bell, H. Cecil, jr.- *Organization Development*, 1999, Pranctice Hall, New Jersey, p.2.
[10] Salminen, 2000.
[11] Davenport and Short, 1990.
[12] Cummings, G. Thomas and Huse, F. Edgar- *Organization Development and Change*, third edition, 1985, West Publishing Company, Minnesota.
[13] Kanter, Rosabeth Moss et al., 1992.

change, because it oversimplifies a highly complex process, but it is for this very reason that it offers an extremely direct possibility of planning the change actions.

In addition to the above mentioned processes, organizational change includes the real content of the change that comes about within these processes. Besides these two dimensions, the context in which organizational change arrives is equally important, as "in order to formulate the content of a strategy, one needs to control both the context in which it happens, as well as the process through which it takes place"[14]. Thus, strategic change becomes an interaction between ideas about the context, the process and the content of a change; the analyses that disregard this fact and see any organizational change as an individual fact, are in fact lacking an analysis of the form, the meaning and the substance of change[15]. Such a lack results in the fact that the area covered by the analyses of change becomes extremely narrow, and it distances itself from the dynamic and complete analysis that should be applied to change - ideally speaking.[16]

One other important element in the definition of change consists of the causes that determine the appearance of change, that mainly characterize the radical and paradigmatic change named "change of the second degree" by Levy (1986).

To continue the idea of comparison presented above, organizational change (OC) may easily be compared to, or even considered as an innovation. The innovation may be defined as a technology, a product or a practice "used by the members of an organization for the first time, regardless of whether it has already been used by other organizations or not"[17], that is the use of an innovation is in itself an innovation. Irrespective of the truthfulness of this idea (as other authors make a clear distinction between an innovation and its implementation – "the process of determining the appropriate and continuous use of an innovation by certain members of an organization"[18]), it applies to organizational change to the same extent. From this point of view, change may be interpreted as "a continuous process of preparation of the

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[14] Pettigrew, 1985.
[15] Ibidem.
[16] Pettigrew et al., 1992.
[17] Nord and Tucker, 1987, p.6.
[18] Klein and Sora, 1996, p. 1055.

organization for the new system, as well as its introduction in such a way so as to insure its success"[19], a definition influenced by changes occurred in the IT field.

As shown above, the final purpose of OC is success, which means is a better meshing between the organization and the environment, in which it evolves, as well as a more efficient and effective working method. The success of a change may be defined as the degree to which the change in question respects the following criteria:[20]

     a. Reaches the goal for which it has been implemented;

     b. Does not exceed the deadline or the budget set for it;

     c. Leads to positive economic and operational results in a reasonable amount of time, results that outrun the costs of its implementation;

     d. Is perceived as a success by both inside members, as well as outside members of the organization.

We may, therefore, conclude that the success of OC depends on both the quality of the solution, as well as the effectiveness of its implementation, a fact which leads to three consequences:

(1) Effective implementation, the use of innovation or change (that are interchangeable in the given context) that improves the organization's performance;

(2) Effective implementation, but the organization's performance is not affected in any way;

(3) The implementation is not successful.[21]

As shown above, change may have negative effects if the solutions given are either bad or inappropriate for the context, a fact which does nothing but reveal, once again, the lack of interdependence between the content and the process of change. This is the very point of view of the strategic studies school, based rather on content, and having as a premise for change the predefined state that must be implemented (MacIntosh and MacLean, 1999). The success criteria (a) and (b) presented above (of accordance with the goals, the deadline and the budget defined by Salminen (2000)) also concord with this point of view; nevertheless, as

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[19] David and Olson, 1985.
[20] Salminen, 2000.
[21] Adapted from Klein and Sorra, 1996.

Salminen himself states, the issue that may rise is in fact that the goals and the budget could be defined inappropriately, in which case the implementation of change, even if it attains or exceeds its initial goals, will not succeed in improving the organization's performance. We may easily imagine the worst case scenario, in which implementation leads to impairment of performance. In this case, or if the solutions given are either poorly defined or completely inappropriate for the demands, the implementation may still be successful, provided the solutions are replaced or bettered, or, in the worst case, if the change is given up altogether. Thus, OC must promote a strategy for the organization's evolvement, which will obviously have to be dynamic, not constant.

1. TYPES OF ORGANIZATION CHANGE

OC may be categorized in many ways. The most comprehensive of them is the one that describes change depending on three main dimensions: *origin*, *result* and *process of* change. In what follows, we will deal with these three concepts.

The origin of change (introduced as dimension by Nadler and Tushman, 1989) has to do with the way in which change appears in an organizations – from the environment in which the organization functions, or by the latter's initiative. That means we may speak of both *unintentional* changes, those that just happen, as well as of *intentional* or *deliberate* changes – actions taken by the organization.[22] Certainly, the line between them is not drawn as clearly in real life, as even intentional changes may be influenced by an event outside the organization. Another classification is possible, one according to the way that change relates to external key-events, in *reactive* changes (changes initiated as reaction to an event or a series of events) and *anticipatory changes* (as the name shows, they are initiated in anticipation of events)[23].

On the other hand, the result of change is tightly connected to the definitions described above. The most popular way to classify organization changes is according to how radical a

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[22] Kanter, Rosabeth Moss et al., 1992.
[23] Nadler and Tushman, 1989.

change it appears to be (Dunphy and Stace, 1988; Nadler and Tushman, 1989; Gersick, 1991).

The concept of „radical change" and others alike are listed in the table below.

	Classification	Main difference
Gersick, 1991	• Gradual change • Revolutionary change	• Supports prime structure or current order • Destroys and replaces current structure and order
Dunphy and Stace, 1988	• Incremental (evolutionary) change • Transformational (revolutionary) change	• Is continuous, at a small scale • Has no continuity, at large scale
Levy, 1986	• Change of the 1st degree • Change of the 2nd degree	• Change in the system's basic rules • Paradigmatic change that changes the system's meta-rules (rules of rules)
Tushman et al., 1986	• Convergent change • Frame changing (transformational) change	• Compatible with the existing organizational structure • At system level, a simultaneous change in strategy, power, structure and control
Fiol and Lyles, 1985- Organizational learning	• Low level learning • Higher level learning	• Behavioral change within the organizational structure • Cognitive change that adjusts general rules and norms
Miller & Friesen, 1984	• Evolutionary (incremental) • Revolutionary (dramatic)	• Low number of changes, one at a time • Increased number of extreme changes
Greiner, 1972- organization's life span	• Evolution • Revolution	• Uses dominant type of management to obtain stable growth • Due to a problem, it creates a new management style to insure continuance of growth

TABLE 2. DIFFERENT TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGES

As shown in the table, not all authors have the same way of understanding the main difference between types of changes. Below, we will describe a model in which the organization and its subsystems can be altered in such a way as to either simultaneously change, as the change to affect only one of them, with a minimum effect upon the others.
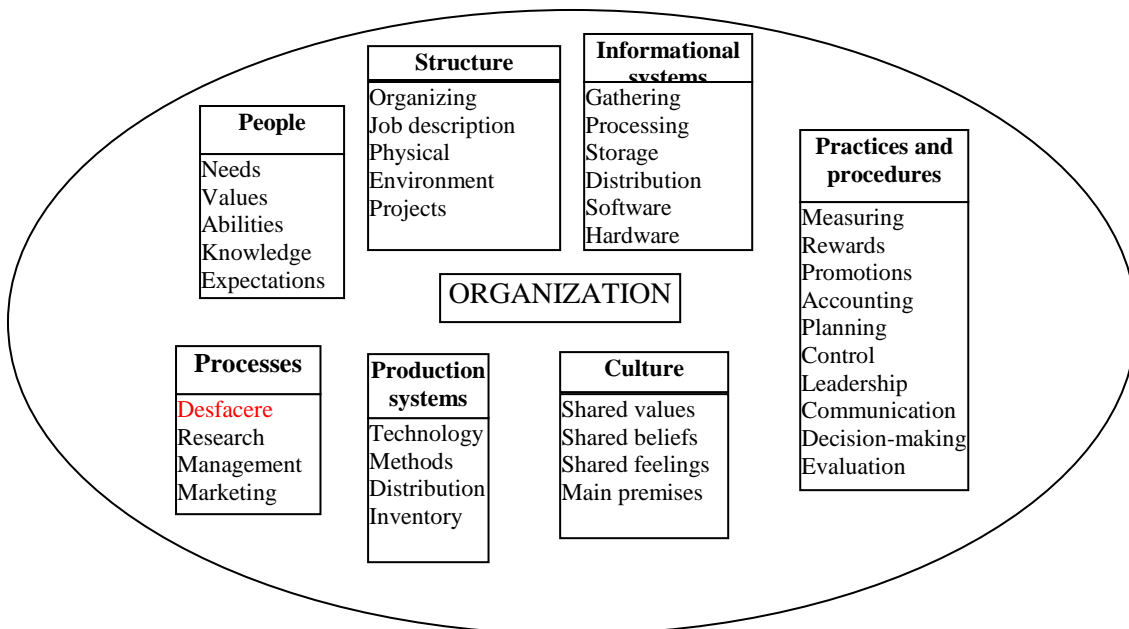
Figure 2 THE ORGANIZATION AND ITS SUBSYSTEMS[24]

Returning to the concept of "radical change", we may further observe that, while some authors make a distinction (as is clear from the table above) between radical change and gradual change as types of evolution[25], others think that gradual change is the exact opposite of the radical one[26]. One author (Reger et al., 1994) even suggests a third type of change – besides the gradual and the radical one – "the tectonic change", because according to him "the two existing types can rarely adapt to the real context of change". The tectonic change is determined by a major difference between the existing organizations and the ideal ones; it shows the need for change but does not cause the same amount of stress as the other types of changes. This type of change, presented here as a merely curious fact, is interesting as well as useful because, despite the existence of several models, there is no clear theoretical distinction between the 'classic' types of change.

One of the practical classifications from a managerial point of view is possible according to the *level* of the change, to the extent to which the organization is affected by change, as Salminen (2000) states. An example of a low level of change is the reorganizing of the job structures, while a change at the level of the whole organization is its own complete

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[24] Salminen, 2000, p. 42.
[25] Gersick, 1991.
[26] Dunphy and Stace, 1988 and Pettigrew, 1985.

restructuring. Stace and Dunphy (1994) continue this idea, giving clear examples of interventions at every level:

(1) *Macro intervention* that affects the entire organization- strategic analysis, the presence of a vision or a mission for development, strategic job setting, restructuring and reorganizing of the work process at organization level.

(2) *Major Intervention* that affects one unit of production- the forming of a unit, planning or strategic positioning, programs for continuous formation, recruiting new leaders.

(3) *Intergroup intervention* – strategies of forming intergroup teams, restructuring work teams and reorganizing the work process.

(4) *Intervention at staff level-* development of personnel, professional development, reorganization of positions and development of leaders.

The process of change is the third dimension according to which organizational change can be grouped, and it refers to the means and the progressive unfolding of events within the actual change of the organization. The process of change may be grouped according to its *time span* or its (human or material) *resources* used in implementing the change. The unity of change may be a singular entity – an individual or an organization - or the interaction between people or the relations within the organization. The means of change, on the other hand, describes that which determines the series of events (deterministic or probabilistic laws) or whether it is created by the entity subject to change, while the process is in development.[27]

The most common and practical classification of organizational change, according to the process, is the one consisting of two fundamental change processes- *planned change* and *random* or *emerging change*.[28] The two types are different – while planned change is formal, random change is informal; the former is imposed within the organization while the latter has its origins outside it.

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[27] Van de Ven, Andrew and Poole, Marshall S.- *Explaining Development and Change in Organizations*, 1995, Academy of Management Review, Vol 20, no. 3, p. 520.
[28] Burnes, 1996; Macredie and Sandom, 1999; Farrel, 2000.

Planned change is extremely important to this study, as this term is the most frequently used one for naming the Organization Development process. We will discuss it in detail further on.

Planned change is defined as a proactive change, initiated by the members of the organization, as well as implemented by them deliberately with a view to anticipating or responding to environmental change or to pursuing new opportunities. As stated before, it is initiated within the organization, in response to needs that appear in the environment and that affect many segments of an organization.[29] This last sentence makes it obvious that the goal of planned change is that of anticipating events and searching for new ways of improving the situation[30]. For that to happen, some essential features are the ability of having an overall view of things, as well as having a clearly defined view of the future state of things – that which is aimed for through the change. One of the main elements of planned change is the importance of leadership, especially of its echelon; change emerges at their initiative.[31] Besides initiating change, leaders get actively involved in its planning and implementation, so that the whole process is centralized.

The cardinal element of planned change is suggested by its very name – planning the change. The process unfolds in sequences, as the implementation occurs after the strategy has been formulated (Mintzberg, 1990). From this point of view, planned change takes place "by way of a systematic process of well led events, monitored by constant surveillance"[32]. Therefore, it is clearly implied that the state that must be reached and the means to do it are stated clearly and explicitly, and that they can be implemented as final concept (Mintzberg, 1990).

As to the other type of change, the random or emerging change, it is the opposite of planned change, but is not as widely employed. Change *happens* starting from the continuous activities of the organization members, as they gradually address problems and opportunities.

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[29] Porras, Jerry and Robertson, Peter- *Organization development: Theory, Practice and Research* in Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, vol. 3, 1991, Davies-Black Publishing.
[30] French, Wendell şi Bell, H. Cecil, jr.- *Organization Development*, 1999, Prantice Hall, New Jersey, p. 82.
[31] Burnes, 1996.
[32] Farrel, 2000.

Change is forced in from the outside, leaders create the vision of change, and the employees apply the implementation, which is done gradually – through more changes at an inferior level, which in time, will lead to a major organizational change.

Although the current level of research does not clearly prove the superiority of either one of the two types of changes, as it has been shown, planned change is at the basis of the main theory of organizational change. The most recent studies go along this line, emphasizing the importance of controlling and planning the process of change for its complete success.[33]

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[33] Salminen, 2000.
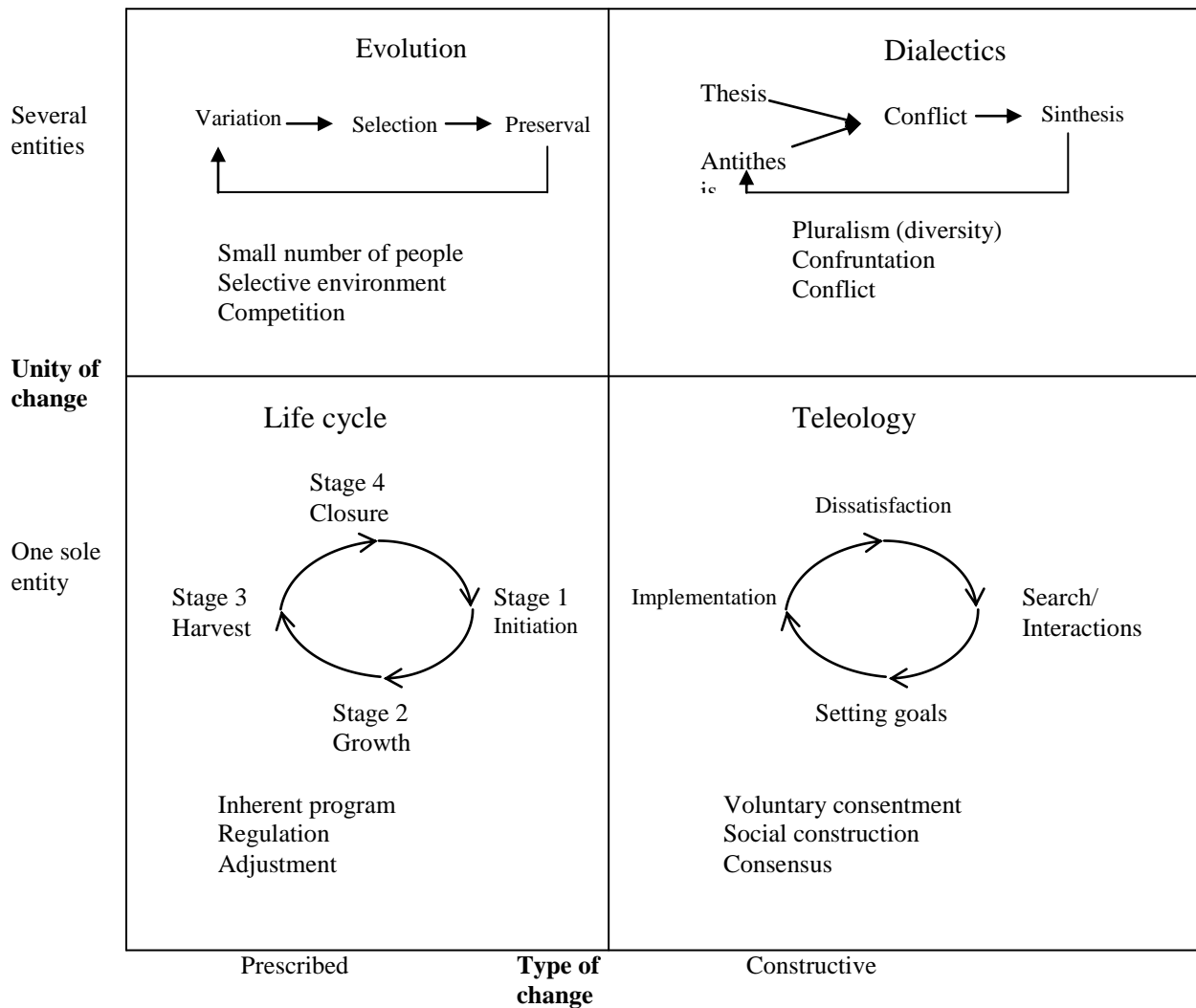
Figure 3. THEORIES ON ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT AND ON CHANGE ACCORDING TO THE TYPE OF PROCESS:[34]

The graph above represents a synthetic image of the main types of organizational change. We believe that graph 2 is self explanatory to such a degree that it does not need any further comment.

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[34] Van de Ven, Andrew and Poole, Marshall S.- *Explaining Development and Change in Organizations*, 1995, Academy of Management Review, vol. 20, nr.3, *op.cit.*, p. 520.

2. THEORIES OF ORGANIZATION CHANGE

First of all, most organizational changes are planned, intentional changes, introduced by management for different reasons (that vary from a response to internal or environmental pressures, to strategic changes, meant to develop the organization). Secondly, organizational changes are easily noticed, as they unfold in a more orderly, a better structured and a significantly smaller space than social changes. Moreover, changes that take place at organization level often evolve in a shorter time span than those taking place at a macro level (except for the revolutions, of course). One other difference is in identifying the operator of change – thanks to the features presented so far, it (or they) can be easily identified. Yet another significant difference is the fact that, in the case of organizational changes, the systematic paradigm has a leading role; for instance, in OD the most frequently used means of measuring the effects of a change is measuring a set of factors specific to the system both before, as well as after the change, the variation thus representing the effect of the intervention. Otherwise said, two different stages of the system are measured, estimating the difference between them at different moments in time – the very core principles of the systematic model.

The theoretical space of organizational change has a few more features, that are part of the metalanguage; first of all, most of the expert literature is written from a managerial point of view – that is OD represents the point of view of the management team, that is certainly interested in the most effective ways of introducing change in the organization they run. The second feature refers to the fact that there are two main ways of approaching the issue of organizational change: the one that is an explanation for the means of implementing a planned change, and the one that represents a description of the process, that analyzes change instead of offering norms for applying it. We will continue by presenting the two models included in each approach.

One of the most well known analytical models belongs to Harold J. Leavitt. This American author believes that organizations are multivariate systems with at least 4 important variables: goal, structure, players and technology - see graph 1.[35]

STRUCTURE

GOAL ——————— TECHNOLOGY

PLATERS
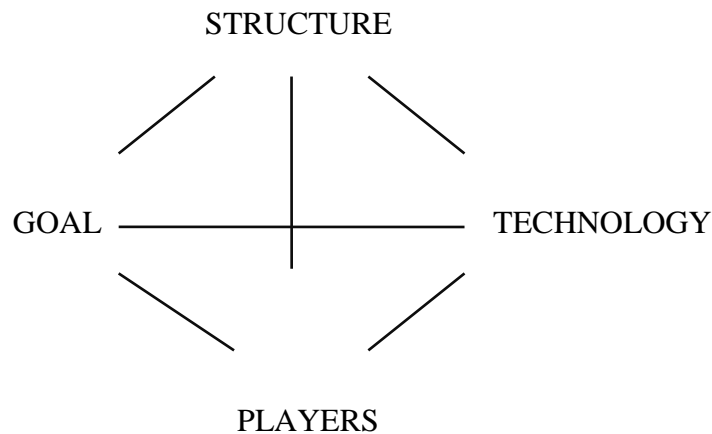
PLAYERS

Figure 4. ORGANIZATIONAL MODEL PROVIDED BY H. LEAVITT (3, p. 198)

By **structure**, Leavitt meant structures of authority, responsibility, communication and work relations; the **players** were represented by the employees of the organization; **technology** was believed to be a total of instruments and techniques used in the attempt to reach the organization's goals; as for the **goal,** it was considered "la raison d'être" of the organization, the rationale that supports its existence and functioning. These variables represented the marks for change to set in, thus resulting 4 types of changes. At the core of this model was the strong interdependence between these variables, which means if one modified, the others would also modify as an effect. This fact has two consequences:

1. One variable can be deliberately modified in order to cause desirable changes in the other variables
2. The change of one variable may lead to unexpected and unwanted changes in the other variables

The influence of the systematic paradigm is quite obvious here.

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[35] Androniceanu, Armenia- Managementul schimbărilor, 1998, Editura All, București, p. 198-212.

The second analytical model that we will present belongs to Kurt Lewin[36]. He believed that change occurred when the forces that supported the system's stable behavior were modified. More specifically, that the situation of the system, at any given moment in time, is in accordance with the interaction between two groups of forces – those that tend to maintain the status quo, and those that tend to modify it. When both groups of forces are approximately equal, it is said that the system is in a state of "quasi-stationary equilibrium". In order to modify this state, we must strengthen one group of forces or the other. Lewin suggests that altering the stability forces – those favorable to the maintaining of the status-quo – is likely to generate less resistance to change than strengthening the pro-change forces; this is why he believes the former strategy to be more effective. In his view, the process of change unfolds in 3 stages:

1. Unfreezing. This step refers to minimizing the forces that maintain the system's behavior at the current level. It can be done by the introduction in the system of information that would show the presence of certain discrepancies between the behavior desired by the employees and the actual behavior.

2. Change proper. It is about modifying the organization's behavior, about reaching another level of this plan. This step refers to the development of new behaviors, values and attitudes through the change of organizational structures and processes.

3. Refreezing. This step refers to stabilizing the new stage the organization is in, to reinforcing the newly introduced elements; it can be accomplished via organizational culture, norms, policies and structures.

As is easily noticeable, the 3 stages of the process of change suggested Lewin are rather broad and dispersed. The models that will be presented further on attempt to develop rather the stages of introducing an organizational change, buy they also modify the perspective: while the present model – as well as the previous one – tries to analyze change theoretically, the model of planning and that of action/research merely aim at formulating methods of intervention based on refining this theoretical model.

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[36] Archer, Margaret- Being Human: The Problem of Agency, 2000, Cambridge University Press, p. 19-20.

Edgar Schein has developed Lewin's model by attaching the corresponding psychological mechanisms to every phase, as is visible from table 2.

Stage 1. *Unfreezing*: Creating motivation and a felt need for change

    a. Non-confirmation or the lack of confirmation

    b. Creating a sense of guilt or anxiety

    c. Offering psychological safety

Stage 2. *Change through cognitive reconstruction*: Assisting the customer in accomplishing, judging, feeling and reacting to different things based upon a new point of view attained by

    a. Identification with a new model or mentor

    b. Search of new relevant information in the environment

Stage 3. *Refreezing*: Assistance offered to the customer in integrating the new point of view in

    a. Both their personality as a whole, and their self-esteem

    b. The system of significant relations

TABLE 3. A THREE-STAGE-MODEL OF THE PROCESS OF CHANGE[37]

In stage 1 the lack of confirmation creates discomfort, a sensation that in its turn generates a sense of guilt and anxiety that creates a felt need for change in that particular person. However, should the individual feel uncomfortable leaving his/her old behavior behind and trying to "attain" a new one, the change will not happen. In other words, the individual must reach a state of psychological comfort with the idea of change, in order to be able to replace the old behavior patterns with some new ones.

In stage 2, the subject of change goes through a process of cognitive reconstruction. He/she needs information and proofs that make the change in question look desirable and positive. This evidence with a motivating tone is obtained by his/her identification with other

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[37] Schein, H. Edgar- Process Consultation, vol II, 1987, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, p.93.

people that have gone through the same situation and by becoming aware of the costs and dangers of his/her old state.

The stage of refreezing has as a main goal the inclusion of the new behavior patterns in that person's system of values and attitudes. Otherwise said, we are talking about stabilizing the new situation by testing it, in order to see whether it fits or not to this individual and to his/her social context. The term "system of significant relations" refers to important people within the social environment of the person that undergoes the change, and to their attitude towards him/her.

Even though Schein's model is valid at an individual level, there are many similarities with what happens in an organization that goes through a process of change. For example, stage 3 (refreezing) is almost identical. The new organizational situation must be "received" by the organizational culture; the members of the organization must incorporate the new values, which have to be viable in the new social environment. A "system of significant relations"- it can apply to an organization, too: it refers to the players in that environment that are of high importance to the organization's activity (partners, providers, clients, organizations ruled by norms and regulations etc.). The greatest difference between Lewin's model (designed for organizational level) and Schein's (designed for individual level) becomes visible at stage 2, that of implementation of change. In order to have a successful change at an organizational level, one must use other techniques (that are somewhat different in content and complexity) than cognitive restructuring…

Another way to modify Lewin's model is that suggested by Ronald Lippitt, Jeanne Watson and Bruce Westley[38]. These American authors extended the initial three-stage model to a seven-stage one. The stages are as follow:

1. The occurrence and growing of a need for change. This phase corresponds to the stage of *unfreezing* in Lewin's model.

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[38] Lippit, Watson and Westley – *Dynamics of Planned Change*, 1958, New York: Harcourt and Brace.

2. Setting a framework of relations connected to change. In this phase, the relation between the client-system and an agent of change from outside the organization is set.

3. Making the diagnosis of the client-system issues

4. Examining the alternative ways and goals; setting the goals and intentions for the action plan

5. Turning intentions into real efforts to change. Stages 3, 4 and 5 correspond to the stage of *implementation of change* in Lewin's model

6. Generalizing and stabilizing change. This phase corresponds to the stage of *refreezing* in Lewin's model

7. Determining a final relationship, or in other words, concluding the client-consultant relationship.

As may be noticed, what we are detailing is a model that describes the structure of an OD consultancy activity. We must take this opportunity to emphasize the fact that the external agent (or consultant) is of high importance in any OD intervention, at least in the context of the first such intervention, when the organization has not yet learned to solve its problems on its own[39] (or in more particular cases, in which the organization is overwhelmed, for whatever reason, by its internal problems).

One other theory on organizational change is the one introduced by Larry Greiner[40]. The American author's starting point is the difference between evolutionary theories and revolutionary theories. The former deem organizational change a slow process that consists of minor adjustments of the system's dimensions, and that is also amplified in time by the environmental forces. There is little and rather passive intervention of management.

As for the latter type of theory, the revolutionary one, it starts with the premise that environment changes very fast, so the organization is subject to many pressures and challenges. As a consequence, changes are highly significant and rapid, and the leaders take

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[39] This being the ultimate goal of OD, as we have shown in the chapter "Organization development".
[40] Greiner, Larry -*Patterns of Organization Change*, in **Classics of Organizational Behavior**, p. 336-348, edited by Walter Natemeyer, 1978, Moore Publishing Company.

an active part in the process; increased stress is placed on anticipation, involvement and creativity.

In the '70s, the second type of approach became dominant, and completely modified the attitudes leaders had concerning the issue of organizational change. Starting from this observation, Greiner believes that all important approaches on change are part of what he calls a "continuum of power", a dimension that has on the one end approaches based on unilateral authority, and on the other those based on delegation of power and authority. In the center of the continuum, there are the poles that support the division of power. We will try to give a brief description of the main elements of this dimension.

Unilateral approaches. Change happens thanks to the power of an individual, of his/her position in the organization's hierarchy. This agent of change generates the process, supervises and implements it given his/her position, that provides him/her with the necessary and due amount of power. There are 3 main manifestations of this approach:

a. By „decree". This approach is the most common one, and it means issuing a written order that initiates and describes the change that is about to take place. Obviously, we are referring especially to military organizations or exceedingly bureaucratic organizations. This is a one way approach (downwards); it grounds on and uses formal authority, and is impersonal and task-oriented. Its main principle: people are rational, and directives coming from authorities are most likely to be the best motivation for them.

b. By „replacement". We are referring to the replacement of key players. Main principle: the organization's problems consist of the privileges of a few well placed individuals, meaning that their replacement will bring about significant changes. This approach is directed downwards also, and conducted by a person with authority. At the same time, it tends to be a little less impersonal, as certain individuals are identified for replacement. Nevertheless, it maintains the same formal and task-oriented position as the previous approach.

c. By „structure". Main principle: individuals act according to structure and technology, the two elements that govern them. In other words, if we want to change an organization, we build up a plan and use it to modify its structure and/or technology. The main problem with this approach is the fact that what seems logical on paper does not always turn out to be logical in the human dimension of the organization.

Approaches based on the division of power. These approaches are found towards the center of the power continuum and, although an authority figure is still present, they also use interactive methods of dividing power. There are 2 essential manifestations of this approach:

a. By group decision. Problems are defined unilaterally by leaders, but the groups that on inferior levels are left alone to develop their own alternative solutions. Main principle: individuals get more involved when they have something to say regarding a decision that affects them. The result is the division of power between employers and employees, yet with a clear distinction between those who define the problem and those who solve it.

b. By solving problems in a group. Definitions and solutions to problems are given in a group discussion. Main principle: individuals get more involved when they have something to say regarding a decision that affects them, and furthermore, an individual's motivation is influenced by the amount of information that he/she has.

Approaches based on delegating power. These approaches – placed on the side opposite to the power continuum – are known for laying almost all the responsibility for defining and discussing problems on the employees. They have two central manifestations:

a. By case discussions. This method focuses more on acquiring knowledge and skills, rather than on solving problems. An individual with authority – "the teacher" – makes use of his/her status to describe a case, encouraging the group to reach its own

solutions. Main principle: by way of these case studies, individuals get to develop their problem-solving skills, helping them change the organization.

b.   By using t-group sessions. This method is used ever more often within organizations, especially at top-management level. Its purpose is increasing the sensitivity of individuals towards group social processes. Main principle: exposure to unstructured situations will release unconscious emotional energy that will lead to self-analysis and behavioral changes. There is no position of authority in these exercises, and the group enjoys the highest level of autonomy seen so far in the methods described.

Based on these methods, Greiner examines 18 organizational change studies so that, finally, he can present his own model of a "successful change" (see graph 5). His starting point is the fact that, when analyzing cases of change, a significant difference between the successful and the less successful ones is easily noticeable. Thus, Greiner identifies 8 components of a successful change:

1. There is considerable internal and external pressure on the organization (especially at top-management level), long before change emerges. Both morale, as well as level of performance is low.

2. A new outside individual shows up in the organization, one that is well known for its change-oriented abilities. This future agent of change joins the organization either as a leader, or as management consultant.

3. The first thing this person does is encourage a review of past practices and current problems of the organization.

4. Head management personally takes up a leading role in this review.

5. The agent of change initiates debates on the problems of the organization, a process that takes place at different levels of the system, with an emphasis on developing cooperation in solving problems.

6. The agent of change launches new ideas, new methods for solving small-scale problems before they grow too much.

7. Solutions and decisions are tested at a small scale before they are to be applied at organization level.

8. The process of change grows with every success and, while support from management increases, the change is permanently absorbed in the organization's way of life.

Thereafter, Greiner shows the characteristics changes that are thought of as less successful. Mainly, there are 3 elements that are responsible for all these „failures":

1. All changes start from different points of the organization, without a focus on internal and external pressures.

2. There are large „gaps" between the steps necessary in the process of change; some stages are skipped or performed in the wrong order.

3. Participation is not used; the tendency is towards unilateral approach (described above).

Based on these elements, Greiner comes up with his own model for a successful change, given in detail in graph 5. This model has 6 stages/phases that must advance precisely in the order described below, and that are all absolutely necessary to the success of change.

The stages of Greiner's model are grounded on elements that are specific to successful changes, so that we will not describe them in detail now. Here are the 6 stages:

1. Pressure upon leaders

2. Intervention and redirection

3. Diagnosis and acceptance of problems

4. Innovation and finding new solutions

5. Experimenting and testing the solutions

6. Stabilizing the new situation by getting positive results
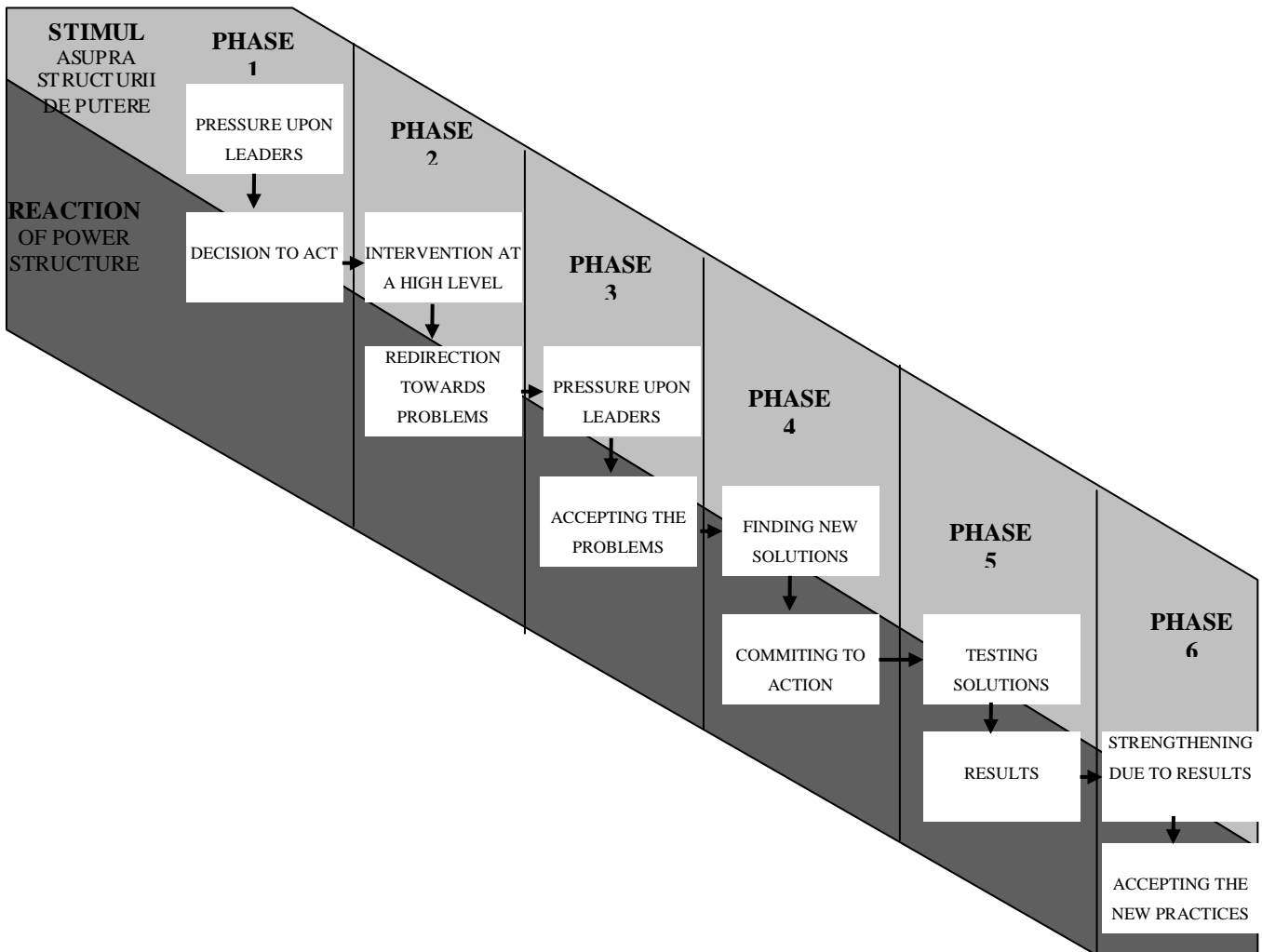
Figure 5: THE DYNAMICS OF A SUCCESSFUL ORGANIZATION CHANGE[41]

It is visible that the model discussed here is a synthetic one; it assembles the components of several theories. Even though expert literature regards it as one of the most complete models, there are still a few debatable elements. For instance, the intervention of an outsider is not always necessary for the change to be successful; if the management team admits to the problem and is willing to act upon it, we will have the same result (of course, that is a big 'if' we are talking about). Maybe the more appropriate phrase would be 'an agent

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[41] Greiner, Larry E.- *Patterns of Organization Change*, în Walter E. Natemeyer (ed.), *Classics of Organizational Behavior*, Moore Publishing, 1978, p. 342.

of change, with new ideas' instead of 'outsider'. If we decide on this expression, then indeed the presence of such a factor becomes indispensable.

Greiner's model fails to consider two important aspects: the time span of the change and the costs/benefits relation. We do not have unlimited amounts of either resources or time in real life. A successful change must occur at the right time, in order for the organization to gain the most benefits, and it must also be 'cheap' (the costs/benefits relation must be favor the latter), without of course affecting the goals or the quality of the process.

Moreover, we may note that Greiner's model fits mostly to societies with a stable environment. In a social system that undergoes a transitional period (or whose social environment has a high level of entropy) things look a little different. For instance, an intense external pressure (a new law) can appear literally overnight, and not be accompanied by an internal pressure. In that case, there is no time to bring in an agent of change from outside, or to follow all the phases of the model.

As we have arrived once again to the 'outsider', we should say there is another problem in this field: in most societies, consultancy is not very developed. Therefore, where do we find an organizational change specialist? And most of all, where do we find one when we are on a tight deadline? Also, consultancy services do not have a tradition in most social systems, and many organizations, even if they had the necessary funding for hiring a consultant, do not deem this option an acceptable solution. For example, the Romanian public administration (PA) is undergoing an intense process of change; the legislative environment is changing, administrative and management practices are modifying, etc. Yet we have no knowledge about any of the PA organizations in our country having hired a consultant to assist it in this complex process of change (obviously, we are referring to local, not central administration).

In conclusion, Greiner's model has, from our point of view, more of a guiding role than one that can immediately be put into practice (as we believe were the intentions of the author), similarly to Kurt Lewin's theory (with which it shares many elements), at least regarding societies that are going through a transition phase.

One other model that is worth analyzing is the one created by Warner Burke and George Litwin. It relies on a highly significant distinction regarding organizational change, that is to say the one between first order changes and second order changes. Burke and Litwin call them "transactional" changes and "transformative" changes. In the case of "first order changes", the identity of the organization remains unchanged[42], its fundamental nature stays the same; only certain features of the organization are modified, a fact which does not affect it essentially, or even significantly. This type of change may be described as transactional, evolutionary, adaptive, incremental or continuous[43]. As for the latter case – that of "second order changes" – the organization's identity, its fundamental nature, is essentially changed. According to French and Bell, these changes may be described as transformative, revolutionary, radical or discontinuous. Organization development is concerned with both types of changes, yet with an emphasis on the second order ones.

Burke and Litwin make another important distinction, that between organizational *climate* and *culture*. The former is said to represent the members' perceptions and attitudes both concerning, as well as and towards their organization: whether it is a good workplace or not, a friendly or a hostile environment etc. These perceptions are relatively easy to modify, because they are built on employees' reactions to recent management and organizational practices. Organizational culture may, in its turn, be defined as the sum of key principles, accepted values, and very often unconscious values. Therefore, it is harder to modify. The premise of the Burke-Litwin model is the following: OD interventions on structures, practices and management styles, as well as on policies and procedures, leads to a "first order change"; interventions on the organization's mission, strategy or culture leads to a "second order changes".

The model also makes the distinction between *transactional* and *transformative* styles of leadership. The leaders who adopt the former style are usually those who "guide or motivate their employees towards goals that are already set, by clarifying their ensuing roles

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[42] See chapter on social change.
[43] French, Wendell and Bell**,** H. Cecil**,** jr. - *Organization Development*, 1999, Pranctice Hall, New Jersey, p. 76.

and tasks"[44]. On the other hand, managers that go for the *transformative* style of leadership are those who "inspire their employees to go beyond their own interests for the organization's sake, and who are able to have a great influence on those under their authority"[45]. This type of leaders can motivate their employees to such a degree as to reach unusual levels of performance. It is obvious that the type of transactional leadership is used in first order changes, and the transformative one in second order changes.

Graph 6 represents the factors involved in the transactional type of changes. The change of structure, management practices, policies and procedures brings along changes in the organization's climate – which, in its turn, transforms the motivational system and both the individual and the organizational performance. The success of this process can only be insured by a transactional type of leadership.
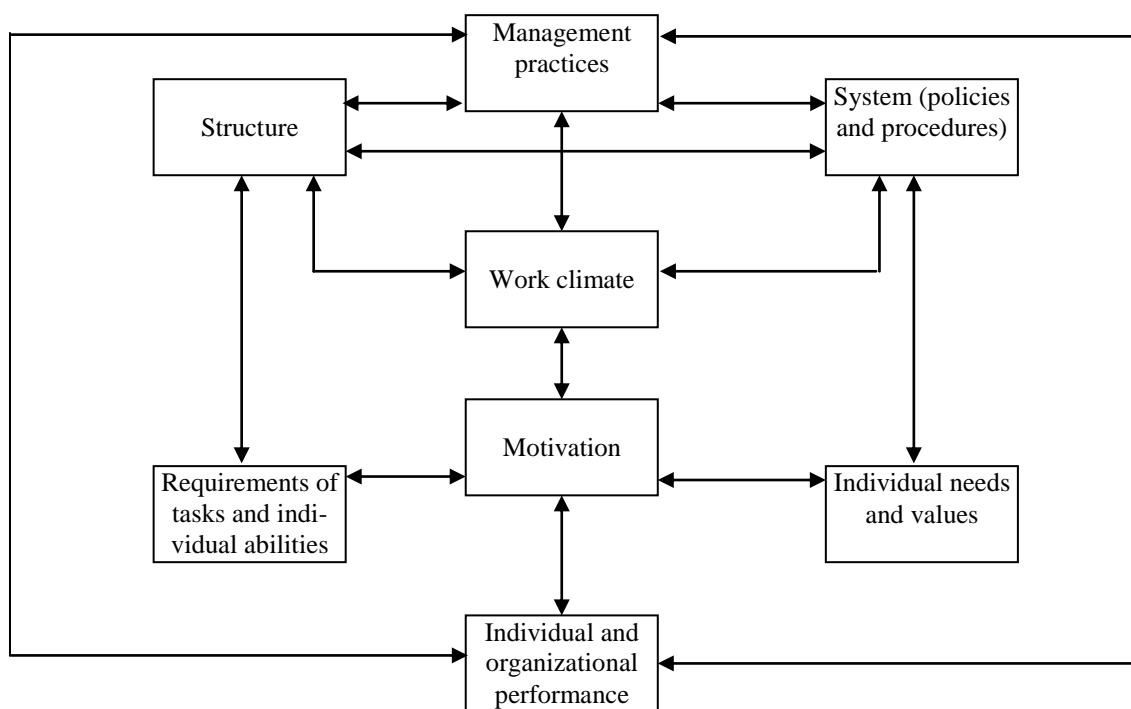
Figure 6. FACTORS INVOLVED IN TRANZACTIONAL CHANGES[46]

Figure 7 describes both the factors, as well as the process needed for "second order changes". First of all, we must change the organization's mission, strategy and culture. Interventions (those endowed with success...) in this field create a fundamental change of the

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[44] French, Wendell şi Bell, H. Cecil, jr.- *Organization Development*, 1999, Pranctice Hall, New Jersey, p. 77
[45] ibidem, p.77
[46] Burke, W. Warner- *Organization Development*, second edition, p. 131, 1994, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company

organizational system and irreversibly modify organizational culture. As in the previous case, these changes affect both organizational, as well as individual performance.

Figure.7: <u>TRANSFORMATIVE FACTORS INVOLVED IN SECOND ORDER CHANGES</u>[47]

If we join figures 6 and 7 together, we get the complete graphic representation of the Burke-Litwin model, as shown in figure 8.

The utility of this model comes, first of all, from the fact that it identifies two different types of organizational change that have different effects upon the organization. Thus, once the problem (or problems) has been identified, the agent of change decides what type of change to use, according to the facts of the problem and the desired results. Secondly, this model also tells us which organizational dimensions we must act upon in order to reach the desired level of change – which is fairly hard to come by within theoretical systems in this field.

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[47] Burke, W. Warner- *Organization Development*, ed.a second edition, p. 130, 1994, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
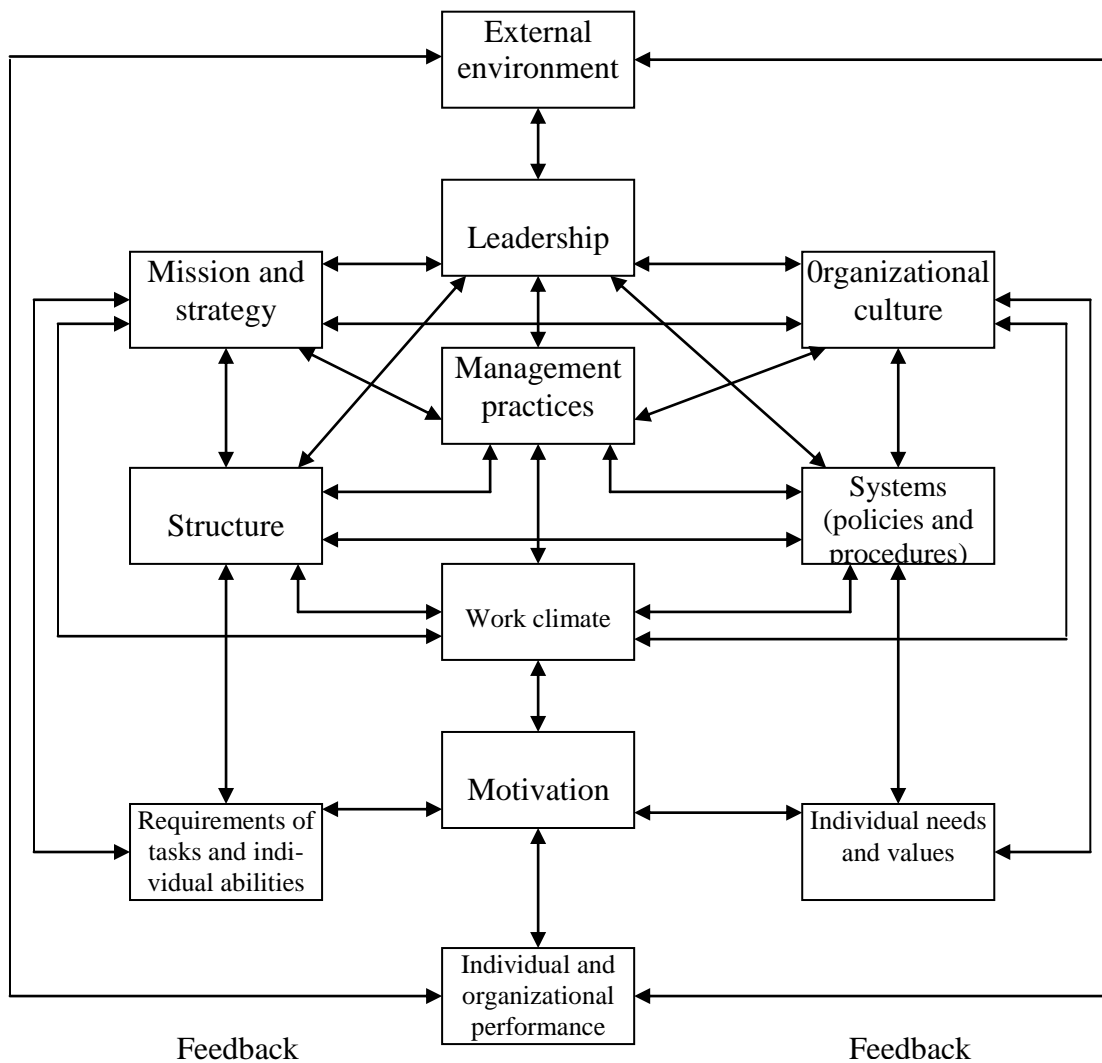
Figure 8. THE BURKE-LITWIN MODEL OF ORGANIZATION CHANGE AND PERFORMANCE[48]

The model we are about to present stresses on individual factors as a catalyst for change. Porras and Robertson believe that organizational change appears when individuals modify their behavior – a fact which occurs, in its turn, because of the environment's transformation thanks to OD. In other words, the purpose is altering individual behavior by changing the work environment's structure and way of functioning. This last change is due to interventions upon four factors: organizational arrangements, social factors, physical environment and technology (see graph 9).

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[48] ibidem.

Environment

Vision

Physical environment

Organizational arrangements

Technology

Social factors

1. Goals 2. Strategies 3. Structure 4. Administrative policies and procedures 5. Administrative systems 6. Reward system 7. Propriety	1. Culture 2. Management style 3. Interaction processes 4. Informal networks and structures 5. Individual features	1. Space configuration 2. Physical ambiance 3. Interior design 4. Architecture	1. Equipments 2. Informational technologies 3. Analysis of job 4. Structure of work process 5. Technical expertise 6. Technical procedures 7. Technical systems

Figure 9. FACTORS OF THE WORKING ENVIRONMENT[49]

This model presents a psychological perspective upon organizational change, with an emphasis on the interventions in the working environment. For instance, transformations based on goals, strategies and rewards will affect organizational arrangements (in other words, both the static as well as the dynamic structure of the organization). As for those that place their emphasis on culture, management style and interaction processes, they will affect social factors etc. The basal premise is that factors that make up the working environment

[49] Porras, Jerry and Robertson, Peter J.- *Organization development: Theory, Practice and Research*, p.729, from **Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology**, vol. 3, 1991, Davies-Black Publishing.

influence the behavior and axiological direction of the organization's members (as they learn what is expected of them, what type of behavior is rewarded and what other type is banned), which in turn influence their performance at the workplace, and consequently, the performance of the entire organization.
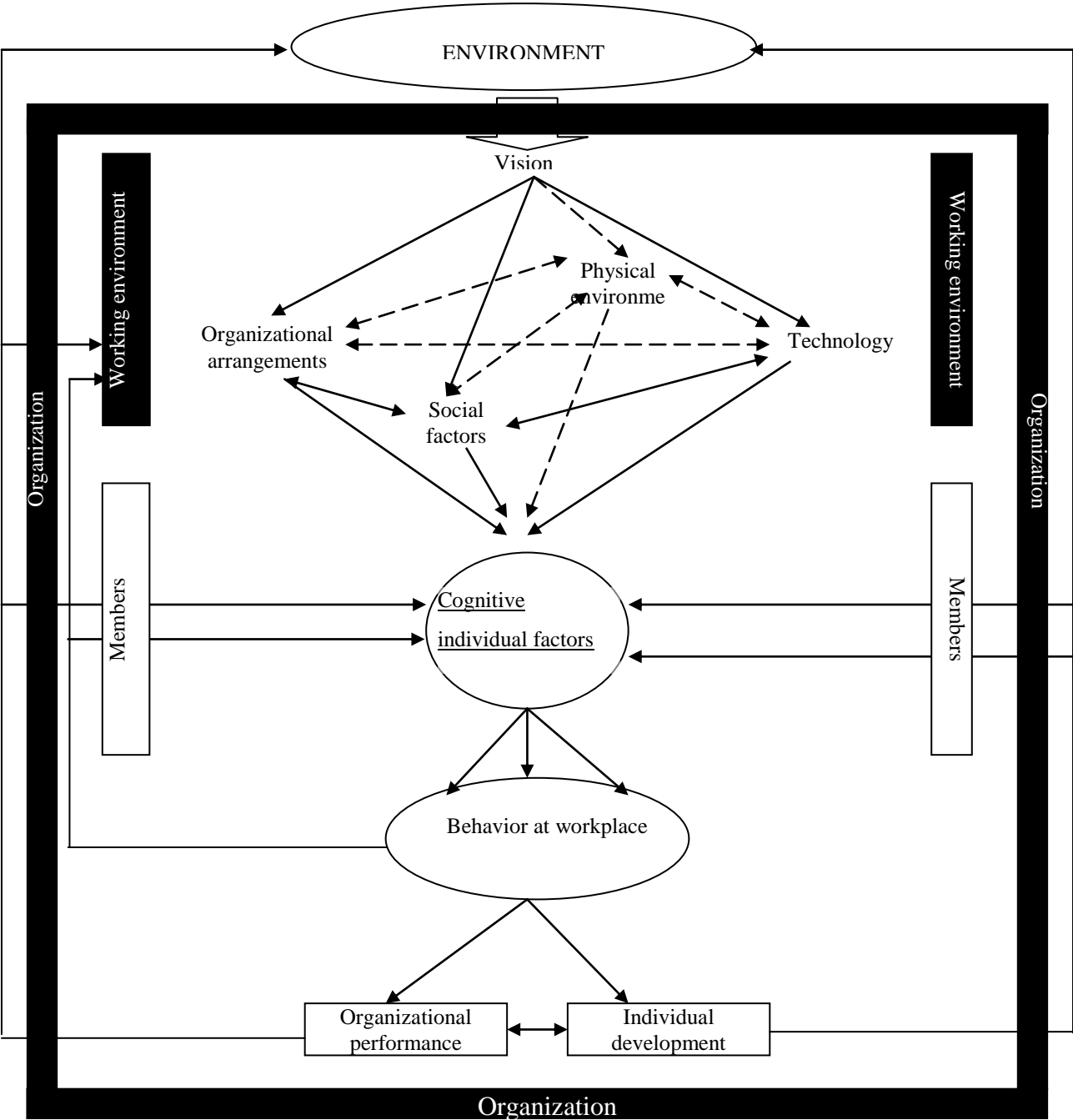
Figure 10. ORGANIZATIONAL ENVIRONMENT BASED ON CHANGE[50]

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[50] ibidem.

Even more than the previous one, the model belonging to Porras and Robertson both indicates specific points/dimensions of the organization that can become targets of change or of OD interventions, as well as suggests the possible consequences of actions upon these organizational elements. Nevertheless, this model's utility is limited by the fact that it focuses only on increasing performance level (a possible and significant OD goal, but not the only one), as well as by its not approaching the OD process systematically, laying stress on interventions at individual level – a limited area and a rather uncertain one, when it comes to global results.

Another morel that highlights individual factors is that of Robert Golembiewski. The main principle of the theoretical system set up by this author is:

Individuals change; organizations must change, too.[51]

Changing priorities **at an individual level**	
From	To
Acquiring skills	Learning to learn
Few needs satisfied by belonging to the organization	Various needs satisfied by belonging to the organization
Socializing within a narrow and stable set of roles that can last a lifetime, like being born in a certain chaste	Socializing within a wide range of roles that can be activated as the individual grows and develops
Getting satisfaction mainly out of identifications, attitudes or skills that are more or less permanent	Getting satisfaction mainly out of identifications, attitudes or skills that may quickly appear and disappear
Changing priorities **at an organization level**	
From	To
Stability	Change or choice
Predictability and loyalty to the organization	Creativity and dedication in fulfilling the tasks
Hierarchy and constraint from few to control many	Freedom materialized in self-direction and self-control
Stable work relationships, but hard to develop and present even after their conclusion	Work relationships that bring satisfaction, but can be stabilized rapidly and disappear together with their importance
Changing priorities **at bureaucratic organizations level**	
From	To
Setting a routine	Creativity in theory; adaptability in practice
Programmed decisions	New decisions
Competencies, technologies, and stable and	Competencies, technologies and variable and

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[51] Golembiewski, Robert T. - *Organizational Patterns of the Future*, in **Personnel Administration**, vol 32 (1969), p. 11.

simple markets	complex markets
On-again-off-again activity	Continuous activity
Stable products and programs	Continuously changing products and programs
Requirements coming from the hierarchy	Requirements related to tasks, technologies and professions
Department-oriented	System-oriented
Centralized development	Development of certain autonomous units

The main model of change adopted by Golembiewski is:[52]
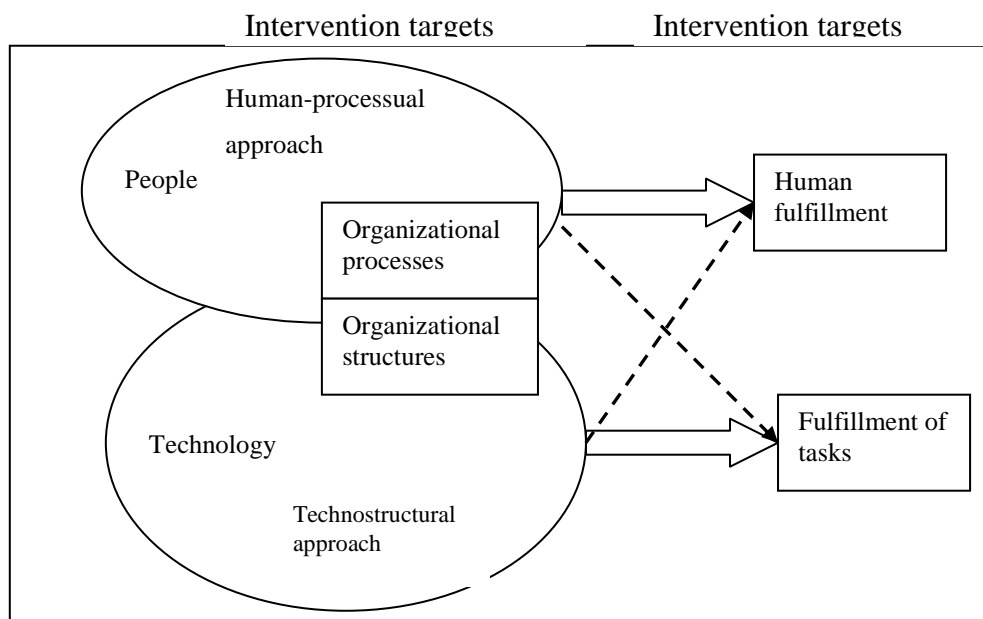
Figure 11. THE MAIN MODEL OF CHANGE ACCORDING TO GOLEMBIEWSKI

According to Robert T. Golembiewski[53], the main directions of organization development place the emphasis on:

- People, in a human-processual approach that deals with the dynamics of their relation;

- Technology, as the techno-structural approach involves policies and procedures that define work relations;

- An overlapping of behavioral processes, formal structures and technologies.

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[52] Golembiewski, Robert T.- *Approaches to Planned Change. Orienting Perspectives and Micro-Level Interventions*, Transaction Publishers, 1993, p. 85. Friedlander, Frank, Brown, L. Dave- *Organization development*, Annual Review of Psychology, vol 25 (1974), p. 315.

[53] Friedlander, Frank, Brown, L. Dave- *Organization development*, Annual Review of Psychology, vol 25 (1974), p. 315. Golembiewski, Robert T.- *Approaches to Planned Change. Orienting Perspectives and Micro-Level Interventions*, Transaction Publishers, 1993, p. 85.

To this model, OD represents "a variety of group-oriented strategies for conscious and intentional changes within the society."[54] It is changes at the level of rules and values that drive organizational change, through their influence on individuals' behavior.

The human-processual approach is oriented primarily towards attitudes, values and skills in the field of interpersonal and inter-group relations. Within this approach, it is very important that the individuals be aware of the processes through which relations with the others are set, and that they analyze them on a regular basis. This process-orientation must be based on experience on collaboration in diagnosis making and finding solutions; it is continuous, ideally it acts simultaneously at an individual, interpersonal and inter-group level; it must be in contact with the content and with the existing structures, and it provides an extra solution, not an exclusive one, for the increase of organizational effectiveness.

Process-orientation can be very useful for improving the interaction system in the organization. In the graph below, two ideal types are described. In the case of a regenerating system, it is visible that openness, acceptance of attitudes and confidence are at higher rates, and that the risk of negative reactions is low. The regenerative system allows the activation and surpassing of situations that are likely to produce conflicts, while the degenerative system generates and aggravates the possible conflicts.

Regenerative system   Degenerative system

Regenerative		Degenerative
high	Openness	low
high	Acceptance	low
low	Risk in case of an experiment	high
high	Confidence	low
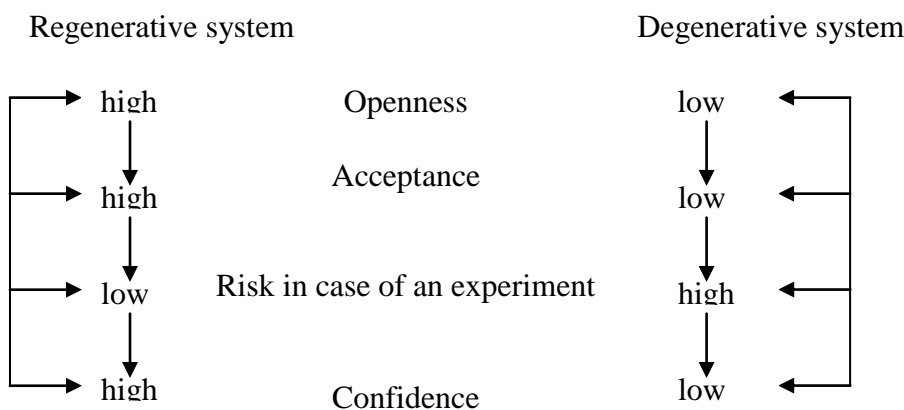
Figure 12 REGENERATIVE AND DEGENERATIVE SYSTEMS

A great deal of emphasis is placed on meta-values that can create an open interpersonal system. The following are considered fundamental:

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[54] *Idem 66*, p. 13.

- Acceptance of interrogation by the other members of the organization;

- More awareness and acceptance of the choices of each member. The possibility of free choice is a central concept of change, as choosing to change is related to assuming it – which is preferable to acceptance;

- A different opinion on authority, based on collaboration instead of subjection;

- Mutual assistance in the community/society;

- Authenticity in interpersonal relations.

In order to reach the behaviors corresponding to these values, three models of change, which are inspired by Lewin's general model, are nominated:[55]

- **The Big-Bang model.** In this case, the greater the discrepancy between the present and the desired behavior, the more probable it is that actions will be taken to minimize it;

- **The and/or model.** If there is great involvement of the ego, there will be a contrast effect (a change inhibitor) if the discrepancy is significant, and an assimilation effect if the discrepancy is less significant. If the ego is less involved, change will occur;

- **The balance model.** This model lays stress upon equilibrium. Assimilation will appear once discrepancies are small, otherwise a contrast effect appears.

The techno-structural approach and the overlapping of behavioral processes, formal structures and technologies are regarded by Golembiewski mainly from the point of view of the way in which individuals relate themselves to their work and to the organizational structures. There are problems and changes that are necessary at an individual level, at couple level, at small group level, as well as at organization level.

Organization development is marked both as theory, but most of all as practice. There are three dimensions to be taken into consideration:

- **Problems** that may appear in an organization;

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[55] *ibidem*, p. 175

- **The level** at which they appear: individual, couple, group or team, inter-group, organization;

- **Interventions** that can be made.

One of the most solid theoretical grounds in the field of organizational change is the theory of systems. Respecting this point of view, organizations would be open systems that are engaged in exchanges of matter, energy and information with the environment (see beginning of current chapter).

A particular perspective on the organization-environment relation and, implicitly, on organizational change, is the theory of "autopoiesis", described by the Chilean researchers H. Maturana and F. Varela. Taking into account what was said in the chapter on the issue of social change, we must add that the present theory is counted among the equilibrium theories. Its initiators start from the well known "biological metaphor", and have as main principle the assumption that all living organisms are closed – organizationally speaking –, and construct themselves as autonomous and auto referential systems of interactions. They reject the statement that says systems are open to the environment, arguing that this is the perspective of an outside observer. At this point, a brief description needs to be added: autonomy of systems is not isolation; systems are closed merely from an organizational point of view, not as part engaged in the exchange of matter, energy or information with the environment.

According to Maturana and Varala, the main features of a living organism are three: autonomy, circularity and auto-referentiality – features that allow it to auto-create. The organism self-reproduces through a closed system that basically aims at reproducing its original identity. The closing of the system is done by its constant attempt to maintain identity by manipulating all changes in favor of the preservation of its own organization. Such a reality is attained through a whole circuit of dynamic continuum that consists of auto referential interactions. A system cannot enter relations that are not mentioned in its defining structure, as it lacks the necessary functions and elements. Thus, its interactions with the environment are a reflection and a part of its own organization, since the only possible

changes are the ones for which the system is available; its relation with the environment is merely a part of its auto production, or reproduction.

Change is possible within the context of this theory simply because the system tends to construct its environment according to its own identity. This translates into a change in the environment that creates the premises for the system's own change.

Clearly, this theory pushes the "biological metaphor"[56] too far and places too much stress on both the negative entropy available in any social system, as well as the homeostatic mechanisms that govern exchanges with the environment and allow the renewal of the system's components. What we need to keep in mind about this theory is the emphasis on the system's (or the organization's) identity, the tendency of every social entity of maintaining its defining traits, its status-quo. Even if we operate with the concept of "dialectic identity" – discussed in the previous chapters – the aforesaid tendency remains and represents one of the central problems and debate subjects in the field of organizational change: resistance to change (this concept will be discussed in detail throughout the next chapter) .

The planned change model was forwarded by Lippitt, Watson and Westley[57]. It is grounded on two axiomatic premises:

a) Information must be openly disseminated by the organization and by the agent of change

b) Information is useful only when it can be converted directly into action.

In fact, the planned change model consists of setting seven steps for the implementation of a change: recognition, penetration, diagnosis, action, stabilization, evaluation and the final phase of terminating the action, as shown in graph 2.

Even though the model described above seems extremely simple, it is rarely used as such in practice. The plan is frequently altered as a result of debates with the agent of change (who is considered an outside specialist), and the process is resumed from one of the previous

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[56] The "biological metaphor" refers to the particular point of view which states that organizations are open systems of a biological type, that they go through (or can go through) "the cycle of organizational life" and that their main features are a.recognition of the environment; b. feedback; c. negative enthropy; d. the ability to reach a state of equilibrium; e. a tendency to grow and expand; f. the ability to maintain balance between the adjustment activities and those of support/maintenance (Robbins, P. Stephen- *Organization Theory*, second edition, 1987, Prentice Hall Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, chapter 1.)

[57] Coch, L. and French, J.R.P., jr. - Overcoming Resistance to Change, Human Relations, 1948, no. 2, p. 20-21.

steps – usually stabilization and evaluation, or diagnosis. Moreover, the end of a change plan often represents the beginning of another cycle.

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                      Recognition                        │
│   (Both agent of change and organization explore together) │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                            │
                            ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                      Penetration                        │
│             (Developing a mutual agreement)             │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                            │
                            ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                       Diagnosis                         │
│      (Identifying the objectives that can sustain changes) │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                            │
                            ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                       Planning                          │
│   (Identifying the steps and the possible resistance to change) │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                            │
                            ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                        Action                           │
│             (Implementing the action plan)              │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                            │
                            ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│              Stabilization and Evaluation               │
│     (Evaluating the success of the change and the need  │
│        to either continue, or stop the process)         │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                            │
                            ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                     Termination                         │
│                                                         │
│   (Departing from the organization, or the end of a project │
│            and the beginning of another)                │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Figure 13. THE PLANNED CHANGE MODEL[58]

The second model that is applicable in nature is the so called 'action/research' model. It is a model in stages, yet its cyclic nature is more pronounced. The priorities of this model are data collection and diagnosis, together with a careful examination of the results; it is a seven-stage model also (see graph 3). The particularity of this model is that it is designed for

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[58] French, 1999, p. 21.

both interventions in case of organizational problems, as well as exploitation of the gathered data, thus giving way to new knowledge that can be applied in other situations. We will not insist on this model any further, as we believe its description in graph 3 is self-explanatory.

Key-individuals' perception of problems	Common plan of action	New way of action
↓	↓	↓
Consulting the experts	Action	New data gathering as a result of action
↓	↓	↓
Data gathering and preliminary diagnosis made by experts	Data gathering after action	Remaking the diagnosis
↓	↓	↓
Feedback (for customers or key groups)	Feedback (for customers or key groups)	Etc.
↓	↓	
Common diagnosis of problems	Remaking the diagnosis and planning (customer and consultant)	

Figure 14. THE ACTION/RESEARCH MODEL[59]

The main issue in organizational change is the existence of too many models that are in fact nothing but variations of the same theme. As there is no theoretical framework with enough uniformity, the OD specialists' preferences have lead to a classification of the models according to personal experience and training.

All of these give a mere insight of the complexity of the social change issue and the importance of this notion for both any social framework, as well as sociology itself.

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[59] Coch, L. and French, J.R.P., jr.- *Overcoming Resistance to Change*, Human Relations, 1948, no. 2, p. 22.

3. ON ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

1. ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

One of the central concepts in dealing with organizational change is that of "organization development" (OD). It is a recently appeared (the 70s) term in organizational terminology and, like any notion belonging to social sciences, it has several definitions and meanings. Further on, we will present some of the most well-known (and accepted) definitions in the expert literature regarding this matter.

Organization development is an effort that is (1) *planned* (2) at *organization level* and (3) *starts from the top of the organizational hierarchy* in order to (4) *enhance the organization's effectiveness* through (5) *planned interventions* in organizational processes, using knowledge of behavioral sciences. (Beckhard, 1969)

Organization development is an answer to change, a complex educational strategy that is intended to modify the organization's norms, values, attitudes, and structure, so that it may adapt more easily to the new technologies, to the new market challenges, as well as to the nowadays stunning rate at which change takes place. (Bennis, 1969)

Organization development may be defined as a planned and maintained effort to apply behavioral sciences with a view to improving the system, by using reflexive and auto analysis methods. (Schmuck and Miles, 1971)

Organization development is a process of planned change – change of the culture of an organization from one that avoids the examination of social processes (especially in the area of decision making, planning and communication) to one that

institutionalizes and gives it legitimacy (Burke and Hornstein, 1972)

TABLE 1. Classic definitions of OD[60]

These definitions belong to a time when the concern with OD was in its infancy. Hereinafter we will describe a few modern definitions, as well as try to analyze them.

(The goals of OD are) … (1) improving ties and compatibility between organizational structure, processes, strategy, individuals and culture; (2) developing new and creative organizational solutions; (3) developing the organizational ability to self renew. (Beer, 1980)

Organization development is an organizational process destined for the full understanding and improvement of all substantial processes that an organization may think out in order to accomplish tasks and reach any of their objectives (…) A "process meant to improve processes" – that is what OD has been trying to represent for 25 years. (Vaill, 1989)

Organization development is a set of theories, values, strategies and techniques based on social and behavioral sciences that are made to implement a planned change of the frame of the organizational activity, with a view to improving individual development and to increasing organization performance by modifying the behavior of its members at the workplace. (Porras and Robertson, 1992)

(OD is) … a continuous putting into practice of social science knowledge on the planned development of organizational strategies, of structures and processes that are needed to enhance organizational effectiveness (Cummings and Worley, 1993)

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[60] French, Wendell and Bell, H. Cecil, jr.- Organization Development (Behavioral Science Interventions for Organization Improvement), 1999, Prantice Hall, New Jersey, p. 24.

Organization development is a planned process of change that takes place within organizational culture by using techniques, research and social science theories (Burke, 1992)

TABLE 2. CONTEMPORARY DEDINITIONS OF OD[61]

As we may infer, these definitions share both common points, as well as differences. We will insist upon the former, in the attempt to come up with our own, present-day definition of OD.

It is quite clear now that organization change and organization development are two completely different concepts. The information in tables 1 and 2 tells us that organizational change is merely an instrument of OD, a method used in reaching the ultimate goal of this process – enhancing the effectiveness of the organizational system. Such an observation leads us to think that OD is a process that needs a longer time span than a simple organizational change, and also that it is a complex, multidimensional process that gathers many organizational changes in a coherent totality[62].

One other aspect that must be kept in mind is revealed by Beckhard: OD needs top-management involvement; it is an effort that starts from the top of the organizational pyramid. The case we are referring to is changing the entire organization, modifying the way in which it relates to the environment, the way in which it functions and the way in which it is structured. Such a process cannot take place except with the collaboration of the organization's leaders, and more often than not, it must be an initiative of the leaders themselves.

If we try to compare the type of factors and the type of discourse used in the two sets, we may infer that table 1 places an emphasis on enhancing organizational effectiveness, its

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[61] ibidem, p. 24-25.
[62] In itself organizational change is a multidimensional process, that evolves along several axes and directions, as will be described in the chapter assigned for this very subject.

action strategies and its adjustment to the environment, thus making it clear that we are dealing with planned change. As for the definitions in table 2, they emphasize what expert literature calls "organizational learning", that is, the creation of an entirely new organizational model, based on the principle of proactivity instead of reactivity; an organization that is able to anticipate the environment (through its modular structure and a culture that is open to change), as well as to manage on its own organizational resources. This difference (in a context in which, once again, there are many similarities between the two sets of definitions) is nothing more than a reflection of the most recent changes related to organization theory. The "learning organization" concept is widely spread among and accepted by the theorists of organizational space. In table 3, we will describe another organizational model – with the sole purpose of exemplifying – in order to give an even better outlook on the contemporary view of the expert literature on organization structure and functioning.

Metanoic Organizations

"Metanoia" = "a fundamental change" (gr.). Term used by the first Christians for the revival of intuition and vision.

The metanoic organization operates with the conviction that it is able to mould/shape/determine its own destiny.

Metanoic organizations = concept/term used to describe a large basis of contemporary organizational innovations.

The philosophy of metanoic organizations is conceived upon 5 fundamental dimensions:

a) A profound awareness of the vision or of the aim

b) Alignment/grouping/focusing on that vision

c) Empowering people

d) Structural integrity

e) Balance between reason/rationality and intuition.

a) Both a profound awareness of the finality, as well as a vision for the future must lay

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at the basis of the metanoic organization. While values (e.g.: excellence, creativity) may very well be abstract, vision must represent a clear image of the future that individuals are striving to create.

There are multiple dimensions of vision in an organization, some of which refer to the final product, like freedom and personal responsibility.

The nature of the vision (how it is) is of no importance, but its effects (what it produces) are! By promoting something that really matters to people, the organization creates an environment in which involvement/commitment becomes the norm, and in which people always have a standard to which they can relate their own actions.

b) It is a clear and adequate vision that activates the alignment. Alignment – condition according to which individuals act as a whole, or integrated in a whole (e.g. sports teams, symphonic orchestras). When the highest degree of alignment is reached in a group, both perceptions about self, as well as relations with others are subject to change. Abraham Maslow: *"the task is no longer separate from the self, something…outside the individual or different from it, but rather the latter identifies with the task in such a powerful way that it can no longer define its own self without including that in it"* (Maslow, 1965, p.122).

Alignment is crucial for 2 reasons:

1. it transforms a group of individuals in a whole in which everyone feels that their contribution matters
2. teams with a high degree of involvement/alignment/commitment can attain results that, according to most, are impossible to achieve.

c) While most organizations go for their members' individual development, they have limited access to such a goal. In the absence of alignment (grouping around/focusing on the vision), individual empowerment may lead to the loss of harmony and to conflict. Being the leader of several empowered individuals that are aiming at different goals may be greater of a task than that of being the leader of individuals with limited knowledge of their own possibilities/skills.

By contrast, in a metanoic organization in which individual interests "*highly align*" with the organization's interests, the increase of individual power becomes a key to the increase of organization power.

d) In the metanoic organization, the attention is constantly focused on the design, in the broadest sense of the word – roles, policies, information flux, etc –, a design that must concord with the organization's goal/objective. In this respect, metanoic organizations have already implemented the main innovation regarding organizational design: most are strongly decentralized, some completely renouncing their traditional hierarchic structure. They have all developed systems of stimuli that encourage individual initiative, responsibility and sense of propriety. Moreover, they are all in constant evolvement from the point of view of design and policy, so that they can always move close to their vision.

e) The balance between reason/rationality and intuition crosses all the other 4 dimensions of the metanoic organization.

The attempt to continuously improve organization structure/design is mellowed down by accepting the fact that there is no "complete" organization model. Consequently, intuition supplements planning and sensible analysis with a view to understanding both the interior dynamics of the organization, as well as its intersection with the environment.

TABLE 3. METANOIC ORGANIZATIONS[63]

In brief, the change of perspective is similar to the one belonging to the field of social assistance, regarding reintegration and assistance of people with physical or mental disabilities. "Instead of offering them fish, we teach them how to fish". The same goes for organizational space: it is no longer enough having organizations with low resistance to change, that are pro-change (in structure and culture); we need organizations that are able to

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[63] Kiefer, Charles and Senge, M. Peter – *Metanoic Organizations* in **Transforming Work,** 1984, edited by John D. Adams, Miles River Press p. 69-84.

resist as autonomous entities, to both make themselves aware of, as well as solve, their own problems, to easily adjust to new situations, and to learn from their own mistakes.

Getting back to our attempt to offer a definition for OD, we must mention that any effort of change has to do with organization culture. Modifying activities of production (in what concerns either material or symbolic goods), communication, management etc. has to do with the cultural dimension of the organization, with the norms and values that direct and structure its members' activities. According to Leavitt's[64] theory, a change in any field of the organization affects all dimensions of that social system, thus any change whatsoever can affect (in a different manner obviously) organizational culture. More than that, for the phase of refreezing [65] to be successful, the new organizational reality has to be absorbed by organizational culture, and its values and norms synchronized with the organization's post-change state. At this level of exposure, an explanation is necessary: although organization culture is important, it is yet not the most significant element in the case of an organizational change. No doubt, without the internalization of the new state, without it finding its place in the organization's value system, we certainly cannot speak of successful organizational changes. However, the most important aspect, both for OD and, implicitly, for any planned change effort, is the correct and rigorous blending of actions on different levels of the organization. As stated before, OD is a multidimensional and highly complex endeavor. That is why we must emphasize once again that what matters is the global strategy, the way in which problems, sources of resistance to change, and the ways to overcome such resistance are identified. The main issue is designing a unifying plan that may concord with the specifics of every organization (and of every organizational situation), and that may give each organizational dimension, in the economy of its unfolding, the importance it is due.

Continuing this discussion, we believe that a hypothesis can be formulated here (we call it hypothesis because we are not currently in possession of empirical evidence that might support it). It is obvious that any organizational culture is more or less influenced by the culture of the social environment, of the society in which the organization in question unfolds

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[64] Described in detail in the chapter on organizational change.
[65] According to Kurt Lewin, described in the same chapter as the one mentioned above.

its activity, and whose set of values, norms and attitudes we may refer to as the "host culture". In certain cases, when we are dealing with strong and viable organizations, the difference between organizational culture and host culture can be pretty big, yet there will always be influences, especially at the informal level of the organization. In some societies, the host culture is not extremely favorable to processes like those implied by OD. Involvement, team work, responsibility for one's own actions, the tendency to outdo oneself professionally etc. may not be some of the 'strong' points of the host culture in question. In this case, organizational culture is no longer a driving force for change, a pillar for the OD effort, but it becomes the main source of resistance to change. Its importance within the process of change does not modify (any such type of effort must take into account the resistance and counteraction factors), at least not in magnitude; yet the sign, the way and the direction of the influence of organizational culture on the change process are completely altered.

One other important aspect in the discussion about OD is the emphasis placed on organizational processes. Unlike the first efforts of approaching organizational change, that tried to solve problems by modifying the structure of an organization, modern and contemporary theories (and practical intervention models, too) place stress upon the dynamic component of the organization, upon the activities and processes that develop within it.

A natural follow-up of this change of perspective is emphasizing team-work. OD is not an individual effort; it is initiated and put into practice by *a* management *team,* and it is implemented on other *teams* of employees. The foundation of any organization nowadays is no longer the individual, but the work group. We are talking about group effort, group values and norms, and group accomplishments. In the present environment, an organization that wants to survive must build its entire structure and activity upon work groups, teams. Of course, from here emerge a series of problems related to the smooth running of a group, to what is called 'group thinking', to the accordance between group culture and organizational culture, to motivation of group members etc. All these issues must be acknowledged and addressed in a satisfactory manner within OD, if we are aiming for a successful change.

In the conclusion of this analysis, we would like to present a blueprint of a possible OD definition. Organization Development is a long term process initiated and unfolded by leadership, which emphasizes 'organizational learning' and problem solving, and which integrates all organizational dimensions and uses group efforts of the organization members as 'engine'.

To wrap up this introductory chapter, we would like to present a model that tries to list the main characteristics of any OD process. The model belongs to Wendell L. French, and is described in table 4.

The defining characteristics of OD are the following:

1. OD places stress upon culture and organizational processes;

2. OD encourages collaboration between leaders and organization members within the activity of shaping culture and processes;

3. Groups (teams) of any kind are utterly important to the fulfillment of tasks and are targets of OD;

4. OD focuses on the social and human aspect of the organization and, along this process, also intervenes in its social and structural dimensions;

5. Participation and involvement at all organizational levels in the problem-solving and decision-making activities is specific to OD;

6. OD is based on total system change and perceives the organization as a complex social system;

7. Those who practice OD are facilitators, mediators, collaborators and colleagues, in the learning process, with the client-system;

8. The ultimate goal of OD is that of rendering the client-system able to solve its own problems, by conveying skills and knowledge necessary to the continuous learning process. OD sees organization progress as a continuous process in the context of a constantly changing environment;

9. OD's position on organization progress emphasizes both individual development, as well as that of the organization as a whole. OD programs

always try to create 'win-win' situations.

TABLE 4. CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT[66]

We would like to end this brief presentation of organization development with the description of a model that incorporates what has been said in this chapter, with a special emphasis on the need for a multi-dimensional plan for implementing a successful change.

Ralph Kilmann presents a very detailed and intricate model of OD, within which he insists especially on the main critical issues regarding organization change[67]. It is a model that belongs to the total system change approach, and that has five stages: (1) initiation of program, (2) diagnosis of problem, (3) setting course of action, (4) implementing course of action and (5) evaluating results. We need to prompt that, in the context of this system, OD needs 1-5 years to be successfully implemented.

Starting the program means leadership– top management involvement. Problem diagnosis requires thorough analysis of the organization's opportunities and weaknesses. These will turn into targets for the upcoming interventions. Setting the course of action and implementing the plans emerged out of the former involve five critical points for organization change. Killman believes they are as follows: (1) cultural dimension, (2) managerial abilities, (3) team (working group) building, (4) the strategy-structure dimension and (5) the reward system. Interventions include trainings, programs for bettering problem solving abilities, critical analysis of current procedures and practices, etc.

Killman describes the five areas thusly:

"What does each area do for its organization? The cultural dimension increases trust, communication, sharing information, and availability to accept change – conditions that must precede any effort of change that is to be successful. Managerial abilities offer to the human resource management new ways of solving complex problems and of "uncovering" hidden prejudice of organization members.

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[66] French, Wendell and Bell, H. Cecil, jr.- Organization Development (Behavioral Science Interventions for Organization Improvement), 1999, Prantice Hall, New Jersey, p. 29.
[67] Kilmann, R.H. – *Managing Beyond the Quick Fix*, 1989, Jossey-Bass Publications, San Francisco.

Building working teams inserts the new culture and managerial skills and attitudes in each working group, thus insuring cooperation at the level of the whole organization – a very necessary premise for complex problem solving. The strategy-structure dimension means creating a new strategic plan for the organization (or improving the current one) and aligning the departments, offices, working groups and individual positions in support of the new strategic orientation As for the reward system, it sets a merit classification based on rewarding performances, which supports change and new methods by giving (officially) legitimacy to the new culture, to the new management practices and to the new working group system.."[68]

Killman tested his model in actual OD interventions at AT&T, Eastman Kodak, Ford, General Electric, and General Foods, TRW, Westinghouse and Xerox[69]. His model stresses gradual implementation of change, in the five given dimensions, as well as adopts a holistic vision that matches the perspective of the authors of this work.

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[68] Killman, R.H.- *Organizational Dynamics, A Completely Integrated Program for Creating and Maintaining Organizational Success*, 1989, p. 13-14.
[69] French, Wendell and Bell, H. Cecil, jr.- *Organization Development*, 1999, Pranctice Hall, New Jersey, p. 76.

2. BACKGROUND OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

OD foundation and development have had the benefit of the contribution of both scientists, as well as members of the organizations within which OD was applied. A background of OD will not list all the authors that have participated in its creation and development, but only its main stages.

OD does not have a long history, yet it has emerged from at least three directions: the first one was the innovation of applying "lab training" results in complex organizations, the second is made up of research studies and feedback. These two branches are connected to a third – the emergence of "action research". At the same time, there are also the Tavistock technical and socio-clinical approaches, which are related to them up to a certain point.

1. THE "LAB TRAINING" BRANCH

T Groups

Lab training appeared for the first time in 1946, as a less structured session in which participants would learn from their own interactions within the group; they were the result of experiments that used discussion sessions to change human behavior. The first step in developing lab training was taken in a group relations workshop, organized by the State Teachers College in New Britain, Connecticut and sponsored by the Connecticut Interracial commission and by the Research Center for Group Dynamics that was at MIT at the time and had been founded in 1945 under the leadership of Kurt Lewin. Kurt Lewin, who already had the benefit of a vast experience in interpersonal and group relations, was the first to set the foundation for OD, and had a tremendous influence on those who followed his footsteps

The T-groups, which is the name they were given later, emerged during that workshop in New Britain. The idea was to create a "learning group" in which, besides members and leader, there would also be an observer that would take notes regarding interactions between members. Observers had to present their notes at the end of each working day of the members of Lewin's staff; after three days, part of the members expressed their desire to witness the presentations. As several members disagreed with the interpretations of the observers, the discussion was a highly interesting one. Soon after, the other group members joined in at

these daily sessions, and the experience was for them "the most significant educational aspect of the conference"[70]. Out of these meetings emerged the National Training Laboratory for Group Development in 1947, at the initiative of Lewin's former collaborators, Kenneth Benne, Leland Bradford and Ronald Lippitt (Lewin had passed away at the beginning of 1947). During the summer of 1947, they organized a three-week session at the Gould Academy in Bethel, Maine, within which they met on a daily basis with an instructor and an observer that had basic abilities in group training (what would be later called T groups). This session led to the National Training Laboratory, later called the NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science and that is currently involved in T group training.

Next to Lewin's influence upon his collaborators, of great significance in creating the T-groups was also the latter's knowledge of acting and of „Moreno's psychodrama"[71]. Moreover, Bradford and Benne were familiar with John Dewey's philosophy of education, they knew the concepts of learning and change, and the transactional nature of people and of the environment they live in[72]. Mary Follet, who had also tackled with the management theory and thus with ideas on complementary solutions to organizational issues, also had a major influence on Benne.

In a way, the T-groups were brought about thanks to the understanding of the importance of helping groups and their leaders rely on group and leadership *processes*. This comprehension had become ever more obvious during the 1950s, especially in graduate education and group therapy.

During the later development of lab training, it became clear that behavioral abilities, as well as individuals' capacity to understand, surfacing within T-groups, are not easy to apply to organizations and complex systems.

Robert Tannenbaum

Robert Tannenbaum organized in 1952 and 1953 the first „ team building" sessions... Tannenbaum then used for the first time the term of "vertical groups", to define those groups

[70] Hirsch, Jerrold I.- *The History of the National Training Laboratories 1947- 1986*, 1987.
[71] Smith, Peter B.- *Small Groups and Personal Change*, 1980.
[72] Chin, Robert and Benne, Kenneth D.- *General Strategies for Effecting Changes in Human Systems*, 1969.

that dealt with both „personal issues (such as interpersonal relations, communication and self analysis), as well as organizational issues (such as deadlines, duties and responsibilities, rules and procedures, and especially inter-organizational and group relations)"[73] , and that included „all managers of an organizational unit"[74].

Together with Art Shedlin, Tannenbaum also organized the first OD university program – the UCLA Organization Development learning community, in 1967.[75]

Chris Argyris

The first to have held teambuilding sessions with a company president and a leadership team was Chris Argyris, among whose heavyweight clients were the large companies IBM and Exxon. These experiences are described in his book, „Interpersonal competence and Organizational Effectiveness", published in 1962.

Argyris greatly contributed to theories on lab training, OD and organizational learning, as well as to research in these areas. His book „Intervention Theory and Method", published in 1970, became one of the most highly esteemed handbooks on organization development.

Douglas McGregor

Both the systematic approach of the issue of implementing abilities learned in T-groups, as well as their transfer to complex organizations have been possible owing to Douglas McGregor. In collaboration with John Paul Jones, who dealt with industrial relations in the same company as McGregor, he put together a small inside consultancy group that helped the company's managers and employees to become more effective, using behavioral sciences. Although McGregor was the underlying force of the group, Jones was the one who later named his organization „the organization development group"[76].

McGregor was, of course, influenced by Lewin's group, but, as clearly shown in his most significant work "The Human Side of Enterprise", which had a great impact on managers ever since its publication in 1960, among those who inspired him are sociologists, psychologists, and management theorists, such as Peter Drucker.

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[73] From Tannenbaum,'s correspondence, memo from May 1952.
[74] Tannenbaum, Robert, Kallajan, Verne and Weschler, Irving R.- *Training Managers for Liderandp*, 1954.
[75] From Tannenbaum,'s correspondence.
[76] Burck, Gilbert- *Union Carbide's Patient Schemers*, Fortune, 1965.

Herbert Shepard

Owing to McGregor, Herbert Shepard, who was to have a huge impact upon OD, became an employee of the Esso Standard Oil (currently Exxon) company in 1957, in the staff relations department. Even though his work at Esso is of great importance to this background, let us not forget that he also founded the first PhD program for OD experts.

An enthusiast of Kurt Lewin's work, much as McGregor, Shepard was also inspired by Farrel Toombs, who had been councilor at the famous Hawthorne factory and a trainee of Carl Rogers.

In 1958 and 1959, Shepard organized three OD experiments at some of the most important Esso refineries – in that of Bayonne, Louisiana, he used a study based on interviews and methods of diagnosis that were afterwards discussed with leadership at the highest level, after which labs were held for all management members[77].

Blake and **Shepard**

In one other of the Esso experiments Shepard was joined by Robert Blake to hold a series of labs in the time span of two weeks, for all 'middle' management members. The lab method was combined, in the beginning, with case studies, after which they passed on to T-groups, organizational exercises and lectures. The innovation consisted of the importance given to group relations, besides interpersonal relations. Solving problems that appeared between groups was of high importance to the subsequent progress of OD.

Given the fact that the attempt to involve top management was unsuccessful in this second experiment, the two discovered the significance of active involvement of the management of an organization in directing programs, as well as the need to adapt OD for the needs of every client.

During the last experiment, Shepard and Blake made a few innovations. The first was the use of what would later be called „Managerial Grid Approach"[78] (created by Blake and Jane Mouton for social psychology and that relies on feedback given through scales and

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[77] From correspondence of and interviews with Herbert Shepard and Robert Blake.
[78] ibidem.

measures of both individual and group behavior during sessions)[79]. The second was using several resources for team development, consultancy, and group conflicts, in lab training the 'cousins', that is the members of different departments of the same organization. According to Robert Blake „It was a way of learning to *reject* stranger kinds of T-groups that had allowed OD to become better known" and the intergroup projects were the ones that actually led to "the real OD"[80].

Robert Blake

Blake's accomplishments were influenced mostly by the works of Korzybski and of theorists of general semantics, which made him realize that "seeing discrete things as representative for a continuous series is much more stimulating and interesting than just seeing things as opposite". Among other authors with an influence on Blake's research on the "all or nothing" group dynamics were both Muzafer Sherif with his research, essential for group dynamics[81] and Jane Mouton, whose university degree in mathematics and physics gave her a particular understanding of "measures, experimental models and of approaching phenomena from a scientific perspective"[82]. Last but not least, Blake was also inspired by John Bowlby, one of the members of the Tavistock clinic in London, who used family therapy. It was from him that Blake learned that

„treating an individual's mental illness outside its context was an…ineffective way of helping a person…patients must be seen in relation with the environment provided by their family. John treated the entire family: mother, father, brothers and sisters…I am certain you understand that by replacing 'family' with 'organization', and 'therapy' with 'development', the next thing that crossed my mind was organization development".[83]

Richard Beckhard

One other main character in OD emergence and evolution – Richard Beckhard – had built himself a career in theater. He became part of NTL as a consequence of several

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[79] Blake, Robert and Mouton Srygley, Jane- *The Instrumented Training Laboratory*, 1962.
[80] From Robert Blake's correspondence.
[81] ibidem.
[82] From Mouton's correspondence.
[83] From Robert Blake's correspondence.

discussions with Lee Bradford and Ronald Lippitt, and his responsibility was to lead the general session program.[84] Once he became interested in OD and decided to switch carriers, he worked with McGregor for General Mills in 1959 or 1960, in order to facilitate „a program of changing organization culture, which would nowadays be called 'quality of life at the workplace or OD.'"[85]

Beckhard was the one who organized the most important OD training program, the NLT for experts in organization development and training (EODT), the first session of which lasted four weeks and took place in 1967. Beckhard also founded the NLT Conferences for work management, lab training of 'middle' managers. As an extension to this program, Beckhard also participated at the NLT conferences for top management and company executives[86].

The term „ Organization Development"

Although it is not clear to whom it belongs, the term „Organization Development" is present in the works of Robert Blake, Herbert Shepard, Jane Mouton, Douglas McGregor and Richard Beckhard. The phrase „development group" had already been used by Blake and Mouton regarding inter-human relationships in a document published in 1956. The program that Blake had developed for Esso was named „Organization Development", in order to be able to also make use of other programs of management development that were taking place at the same time. The term appeared because:

„we did not want to name our program either 'management development', as it applied to the whole organization, or 'inter-human relations training', even though that is what it was, in a way. We did not want to name it organizational improvement, because the term is too static, so we named it 'Organization Development', meaning an effort of change all throughout the system"[87]

2. THE BRANCH OF RESEARCH AND FEEDBACK

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[84] From Richard Beckhard's correspondence.
[85] Ibidem.
[86] From Beckhard's correspondence and other sources.
[87] From Beckhard's correspondence.

Research and feedback, a specialized form of „action research", make up the second significant branch in OD history. Its background is connected to the techniques of a group of researchers of the Michigan University Research Center.

Rensis Lickert

The Michigan University Research Center was founded in 1946, when the former executive of the research Division of the programs in the Federal Bureau of Agrarian Economy, Rensis Lickert, moved to Michigan. Lickert had a PhD in psychology, granted by the Columbia University; on the basis of his PhD thesis – "A Technique for Measuring Attitudes" – the „ Lickert scale" was developed, and it is still in use today.

After founding the Michigan University Research Center, Lickert became, in 1948, the head of the Social Research Institute, which also included the Michigan Center and the Research Center for Group Dynamics that moved from MIT, where it had been founded, to Michigan

Floyd Mann, Rensis Lickert, and others

The branch of research and feedback emerged as a consequence of changing both the research, as well as the feedback methodology, a change operated by the members of the Michigan University Research Center. The main focus was "a discussion, regarding the results of a study, between managers and subordinates, followed by their joint planning, a fact which led to significant results in management and performance."[88] One of the other innovations was sharing the data of a study with the departments that had participated in it, in a „series of related conferences"[89]; the results of this technique were that:

„an intensive discussion procedure that involves the whole group, and within which data collected from a questionnaire applied to employees are shared, is effective for introducing change in an organization. […] because it deals with the human relations system

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[88] Adaptation of Lickert's correspondence.
[89] Mann- *Studying and Creating Change*.

as a whole (superiors and subordinates are interchangeable), as well as with each manager, supervisor, and employee in the context of their job, problems and personal work relations."[90]

There certainly also were connections between members and theorists of the lab research branch and the sympathizers of the OD branch that was second in importance, connections that were nothing if not consolidated during the evolution of OD.

3. THE ACTION RESEARCH BRANCH

Action research has been described as "a collaborative research between client and consultant, consisting of a preliminary diagnosis, data gathering from the client group, feedback on data from client group, exploring data and planning course of action by client group and, finally, taking action."[91] There are at least four variants of action research, among which "participatory action research"[92] is the most commonly used in OD. Action research has something in common with all the other OD branches and is essential in the evolution of OD.

4. SOCIO-TECHNICAL AND SOCIO-CLINICAL PARALLELS

Throughout this part, we will work on the evolution of the Tavistock clinic in London, which evolved simultaneously with the above mentioned institutions. The clinic had been founded in 1920 and specialized in psychotherapy based on the psychoanalysis theory as well as using the type of treatment applied to Second World War veterans. Another of the clinic's interests, as mentioned above, was family therapy, within which both parent and child were treated simultaneously.[93] Besides this, the clinic also used the action research model to offer families and organizations further practical assistance.

W. R. Bion, John Rickman and others

The Tavistock clinic benefited from the innovations of employing social psychology in psychiatrics, which evolved after the Second World War, from the works of W. R. Bion,

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[90] Baumgartel, Howard- *Using Employee Questionnaire Results for Improving Organizations: The Survey (Feedback) Experiment*, Kansas Business Review, 1959.
[91] French, Wendell and Bell, H. Cecil, jr.- *Organization Development*, 1999, Pranctice Hall, New Jersey.
[92] Ibidem.
[93] Dicks, H.V.- *Fifty Years of the Tavistock Clinic*, 1970.

John Rickman and others on group therapy, as well as from Lewin's theories. Bion and Rickman took part in the „ Northfield Experiment" from during the war, in which soldiers were asked to spend six weeks in a group in which they would fulfill different easy tasks and talk about their feelings, their relations with others, and their management and administrative problems. Bion later used this experiment in his theory on group behavior...[94]

Eric Trist

The socio-technical approach that the clinic used for on restructuring work evolved after Eric Trist's visit to a mine, and as a result the influences that Bion and Lewin exercised on him. Trist's experiments regarding restructuring work and using semi-autonomous working teams in the mines were the forerunners of other restructuring experiments in all fields, in Europe, the United States and India.

The Tavistock clinic leadership maintained strong relations with OD theorist from the US and, although the socio-technical approach was based on the employees in an organization, with disregard for the systematic approach of OD, many other aspects, among which the interest for action research and participation, are still used in OD.

Applying OD branches in other fields

Next to the US, many other countries (including Great Britain, Japan, Norway, Canada, Sweden, Finland, Australia, New Zeeland, Philippine Islands, Venezuela and the Netherlands) practice applying the OD branches described above. Among the companies that use them are Union Carbide and Exxon (the first companies to ever have used them), Connecticut General Insurance Company, Hewlett-Packard, Tektronics, Graphic Controls, Equitable Life Assurance Company, Digital Equipment Corporation, Procter & Gamble, Microelectronics and Computer Technology Corporation (MCC), Mountain Bell Telephone, General Motors, Bankers trust, Ford Motor Company, Heinz Foods, IBM, Polaroid, Sun Oil and TRW Inc..

The ways in which OD is applied in all these countries is different − from using other names for OD techniques, to the existence of programs with little exposure, yet the results of

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[94] Dicks, H.V.- *Fifty Years of the Tavistock Clinic* and DeBoard, Robert- *The Psychoanalysis of Organizations*, 1978.

a study conducted in 71 companies show that 33 of them had a program based on OD techniques, under this name or another.

Industrial and commercial organizations are not the only ones to use OD. In the United States, OD techniques are applied in education, in social assistance agencies, in police departments, in professional associations, in government units both at local as well as at national level, in hospitals, churches, even in Indian tribes, and even in the US Army. The US Army made only occasional use of OD programs, especially due to the lack of systematic measures of results. The American Marine accepted to organize a one-year program, but considered that even though the program had "clear value, it would be better if its structure suffered a major change"[95], without referring to a specific area that might want it.

Besides the participation of several types of organizations, another important aspect of applying OD is that it has enabled a broader focus than that on top management, as it also takes into consideration as many types of crafts as possible – soldiers, officers, miners, scientists and engineers, priests, psychologists, geologists, lawyers, accountants, medical nurses, doctors, professors, IT experts, secretaries, etc.

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[95] Spehn, Mel R.- *Reflections on the Organizational Effectiveness Center and School*, 1985.

3. THE FUTURE OF ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

Organization development (OD) represents the zenith of applied social sciences at the present time. A large amount of time and organization staff is employed for OD, and as for specialists and groups who apply it, they are ever more increased in number, as much in the USA as in Europe.

However, the question that arises is whether organization development can be maintained at the same level in the future too. The fundaments of OD and some of its practices are extremely valuable to any organization, but same as in any field, there are problems here also.[96]

The first problem is that OD might be merely a fad trend - „a practice or an interest pursued with too much zeal for a while"[97]. In order to get a clear idea regarding this statement, we will have to examine the qualities and weaknesses of OD.

OD is not a clear technique, but rather a mixture of several theories, models and procedures which have been proven functional in the field of improving the individual, group and organization functionality. Because of this, OD is the result of a combination of the best ideas in behavioral sciences, and it works in theory, practice, as well as in research. The „action research" model, a systematic approach on organizational dynamics, is, together with the strategy of change that focuses on the culture of work groups and of the organization, the most important quality of OD. When they are applied in a planned, systematic way, based on a strategy of improving the organization as a whole, OD is used at full capacity and the results are amazing.

The „action research" model is looking to trace possible problems, so as not to digress from the aim and use alternatives that are ineffective except in theory. Within this model, setting goals, gathering data and planning actions are done by the organization members themselves, a fact which leads to a real improvement. Furthermore, the model is effective for OD also, because it helps maintain flexibility and openness to new requirements and needs.

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[96] French, Wendell and Bell**,** H. Cecil**,** jr.- *Organization Development*, 1999, Pranctice Hall, New Jersey.
[97] Webster's Dictionary

As a matter of a fact, putting this model into practice is actually advised in order for OD not to become irrelevant for the needs of individuals and organizations.[98]

Organization culture is also important for OD, since individual behavior and values are largely due to it. Therefore, an attempt to change the individual (by changing his/her personality or work environment) will be a complete failure, or will have very little chance of success, while changing organization culture will have a maximum impact on all the individuals who are a part of it. OD not only acknowledges this fact, but it also uses methods to analyze and change the culture of an organization, thus applying the concept of mastering a culture and not being subdued by it.

It is the general belief that change is easier within an intact group rather than on one individual at a time, a fact probably connected to the importance of organization culture in determining individual behavior. „Lab training" used precisely this feature, encouraging the participation of key players to "sensitivity sessions", but the successful outcomes of this type of training have been limited. On the other hand, enforcing change on real groups, including some that perform several types of functions, is extremely useful for increasing the effectiveness both of the individual as well as the groups.

Maintaining and building teams is one of the OD notions that is most often applied (especially in the United States), and the idea of using effective teams is present in the works of most authors. These teams, however, are not the expression of „domination of committees over individuals, subduing the individual to the group or the individual being absorbed by the team, but rather the mechanism necessary for a larger number of people from all organization levels to take part in the action."[99] A very good example in this field are airline companies; United Air Lines considers the quality of team work during the flight a determining factor for passengers' safety, a fact which runs against the old types of civil and military management, where the hierarchy was followed by the book. In the field of team work, OD is thus to the point.

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[98] French, Wendell and Bell**,** H. Cecil**,** jr.- *Organization Development*, 1999, Pranctice Hall, New Jersey
[99] Kanter, Rosabeth Moss- *The Change Masters; Innovation for Productivity in the American Corporation*, 1983

Paradoxically, OD is also a stability and continuity factor, especially because it means applying scientific problem solving methods to human, social and organizational issues. The change consists, in fact, of the passing from a traditional method or lack of it to the scientific method. Stability sets in once the individuals, groups or organizations learn to apply this method to any type of event. Finally, change sets in when the traditional relationships between groups – competition and relationships which automatically imply a winner and a loser – are replaced by OD, and the effectiveness of the organization as well as the relationships between members become even stronger. „Success depends on the active support of people, and for the people to get involved in the change process, the latter has to contain familiar elements which can ensure continuity."[100] Therefore, OD has to prove that it includes aspects connected to continuity and stability in order to survive.

These are but a few of the advantages of OD and the reasons for which it could survive as a technique in the future. There are, nevertheless, a series of problems which have to be mentioned. Part of the techniques used by OD are used in various professions and fields of activity – from staff administrators to psychologists – but the name of OD is either altered or completely replaced. It seems like, even though integrated in a large number of programs, the name of OD is used extremely seldom, even in expert literature. This fact is not in itself a problem, since it cannot but lead to systems and organizations oriented towards increased effectiveness and inter human relations; the problem appears when the attention of the specialists is drawn exclusively by the programs themselves and when dynamics and the types of evolution of change are ignored.

The situation presented above is, ironically, caused almost exclusively by semantics and definitions. Aside from OD techniques being used without naming their affiliation, the opposite phenomenon also occurs, meaning techniques and programs which do not have anything in common with OD are attributed to it. Semantics and definitions can lead to an extreme where "OD, in the attempt to become everything, has become nothing,– at least nothing clear and intelligible which can offer a distinct identity, clear purposes for future

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[100] O'Toole, James- *Vanguard Management: Redesigning the Corporate Future*, 1985.

development or criteria for measuring it".[101] Also, the term of Organizational Transformation (OT) has become evermore widely used. Its theory is basically identical to that of OD.[102] The difference lies in the fact that the changes described by OT are clearly future-oriented and/or try to change the culture of an organization by using OD methods. The methods of OD can be applied in an extremely wide range – from maintaining effective practices within an organization, to operating major changes in its culture and mission. That is why the terms of OD and OT do not mutually exclude one another, and the terminology itself means little compared to the comprehension of the processes used.[103]

Another important factor in the „survival" of OD is the management philosophy which will prevail in the future. There are at least four factors which determine the creation of a management philosophy:[104]

1. practices that are deemed as the most effective by research or procedures;

2. expectations and influences of the members of the organization;

3. the way in which management considers that people should be led;

4. stimuli enforced by the external environment.

As for participatory practices, it is obvious both from practice as well as research that they are effective and can be applied in various fields. The expectations of people concerning participation, the autonomy of each of their jobs, and especially the importance of the work, are generally oriented towards the values of OD. These expectations and influences can be translated into a definition of leadership behavior. The leader of the future will have to possess: „the ability to listen to others, imagination and acceptance of the limited nature of leadership in the new world. A leader will no longer be everything to everybody. Leadership could become temporary, comradely and consensual."[105] The management of the future will not be focused on authoritarianism, but on „creating bonds, it will be a management focused

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[101] Miles, Raymond E.- *Organization Development: Can It Survive- And Should It*, **Organization Development Practitioner**, January 1977.
[102] French, Wendell and Bell**,** H. Cecil**,** jr.- *Organization Development*, 1999, Pranctice Hall, New Jersey.
[103] Ibidem.
[104] Ibidem
[105] Toffler, Alvin- *The Third Wave*, 1980.

on people"[106], and an organization's culture will be determined especially by the treatment which leaders consider they should apply to their employees. If the managers in question will show more interest in frightening and humiliating their employees rather than in working as a team, then any OD related approach will fail.

The financial crises of an organization, whether they be temporary or not, can change the leadership's perspective on OD, especially if some of the members were not convinced from the beginning or were not entirely in agreement with OD practices. This fact can prove that OD has not been well understood and applied, because the correct execution of its principles would lead to the reformation of managers, commissions and organization members with respect to the uncertainties of the future and especially to crisis situations.

Probably the greatest shortcoming of OD, from its very beginnings, has been excessive preoccupation with social and human dynamics of organizations, to the disadvantage of technology, work tasks, finances and structural aspects. As Bennis has observed, „we have not yet found an organization with a development program based on a strategy of intervention other than the interpersonal one, which is a critical matter, given that the major change strategies in our society are political, judicial and technological. We entitle ourselves „agents of change", but the true changes in our society have been made by the contraceptive pill, the atomic bomb, the automobile, industrialization, the media and other forces of modernity."[107] Even though in the meantime the efforts of OD were redirected also towards the fields mentioned above, what Bennis wrote is still worth keeping in mind. For OD to continue to exist, goal setting, strategic planning and structural changes will have to be taken into consideration in the future; at the same time, a connection with other fields must be established – with human resources management, with work conflicts, compensations, clinical psychology, with informatics systems in management and industrial engineering.

The viability of OD is also threatened by the conceptual foundation at the very basis of its strategies. OD tends to limit itself to the planned change it uses. OD is the top of behavioral sciences, but it continues with the lab training approach, based on the concept of

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[106] Naissbit, John and Aburdene, Patricia- *Reinventing the Corporation*, 1985
[107] Bennis, W.G. - *Organization Development: Its Nature, Origins and Prospects*, 1969.

„love-trust", and it refuses to approach and use other concepts just as important, like power and competition. The model of collaboration suggested by lab training is not necessarily a problem; however, there should be other models too.

Research in OD is another important element for the survival of this technique. At present, research is focused more on „rigor and vigor, because more and more pertinent studies on the processes and results of OD are coming forth."[108] However, what remains to be done in research is to create a „theory of organizational adjustment which would incorporate *all* types of interventions."[109] The methodology of this research

> „would not be that of ordinary science, which tries to give precise answers to trifling questions, but one that uses the wider longitudinal methods in creating knowledge that can be used. We are suggesting a comeback to the tradition of „action research", but a complete one regarding context, and one which is made throughout a longer period of time. OD does not have to become lax in accumulating knowledge, but the fact that its area is fundamentally different from that of ordinary science has to be acknowledged. We cannot borrow tools and techniques from other paradigms; we have to form new ones."[110]

Next to research, case studies of successful outcomes and failures of OD are also extremely useful. [111]

The cultural premises of OD are another issue worth mentioning. In some areas of the world, certain cultural aspects of OD can never be applied, because of different interpretations of the concepts of honesty, free expression of feelings, free participation, or authority. All of these are understood and accepted differently according to country and region. What's more,

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[108] Alderfer, Clayton P.- *Organization Development*, **Annual Review of Psychology**, 1977.
[109] Beer, Michael and Walton, Anna Elise- *Organization Change and Development*, **Annual Review of Psychology**, 1987.
[110] Ibidem
[111] For case studies in OD failures, see Philip H. Mirvis and David N. Berg- *Failures in Organizational Development and Change*, 1977.

the differences between organizations according to country or even region can be rather great. This is a point which has to be researched more closely into.[112]

Lab training will also be important for OD, especially in the form of T Groups, and depending on its quality, of course. The forms of OD which do not use interpersonal and group dynamics at all are not OD, but sterile forms of mechanical exercises in a type of over-sensibility. T Groups are not necessarily crucial to OD, but suppressing their qualities of experience and subjective perception would destroy OD as easily as suppressing its sensible, pragmatic and existential parts.[113]

Another important variable is the impact OD has had on managers and employees. In some cases, the efforts of OD are not carried out because managers, who are „key players in the game of organizational development"[114], cannot overcome their feelings of anxiety when facing what they perceive to be a „discussion of their competence and authority and their possibility of losing power, status and 'manager' privileges"[115]. The anxieties of employees are just as important, especially because „OD as a field runs the risk of encouraging the implementation of subtle but convincing forms of employee exploitation"[116]. Managers are more important in the issue that OD can very well also encourage the members of a group to express their negative feelings concerning exclusively the former.

Understanding and applying effective techniques used in the past is extremely important for OD. Amongst them, the design and management of conferences and the ideas borrowed from family psychotherapy do not appear at all in current literature, but they could be extremely productive. The management of conferences could improve the rate of change in large departments or in associations with representatives from several organizations.

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[112] If a beginner in the field, see L. David Brown- *Global Development and the Potentials of Organization Development*, **Organization Development Practitioner**, 1988.

[113] Frielander, Frank- *Organization Development Reaches Adolescence: An Exploration of Its Underlying Values*, **Journal of Applied Behavioral Science**, 1976.

[114] Beer, Michael and Walton, Anna Elise- *Organization Change and Development*.

[115] Miller, Eric J.- *Organizational Development and Industrial Democracy: A Current Case-Study*, 1977.

[116] Friedlander, Frank and Brown, L. Dave- *Organization Development*, **Annual Review of Psychology**, 1974.

The long term investments of OD are another possible handicap, especially because OD does not have a lot of „short term remedies". A cost-benefit analysis in the long run is always detrimental to OD.

Just as important, the outside environment of the organization is itself extremely important to OD. There has to be a connection between the internal interfaces shaped by OD and the different exterior interfaces of the organization. The more close they become in values and practices, the more successful OD becomes. In this field, there are certain tendencies which have to be taken into consideration – people are more and more preoccupied with the quality of organizational life and especially the organizations for which they work; cultures where human resources are relatively passive entities will become less and less frequent what with the change of attitudes. At the same time, the opposite phenomenon will also occur - the activities of OD within an organization will have an important impact on the community within which it operates.

Finally, let us get back to the question from which we started. Will OD be a fad trend? First of all, we do not believe that OD can disappear that easily, as we have pointed out above. Also, as the years pass by, the current technology of OD will be enriched with new practices or will be modified, either way helping it to keep up with the changing of times. Thirdly, the need for a technique similar to OD will always exist, because OD is in fact the answer to the needs of individuals and organizations to find a method of improvement which is able to unite individual aspirations with organizational objectives. Such a need can never disappear.

OD is thus not a fad trend. Organizational Development (even under a different name or names) will evolve in shapes, technologies, concepts and new models, because change is its strong point. It will remain the elite of development even when it will change and evermore organizations will use it in one way or another.

4. ORGANIZATIONAL DIAGNOSIS (DIAGNOSTIC ANALYSIS)

Defining the concept:

Organizational diagnosis is one of the stages of a program/process of organization change/development, which (most often) relies on a collaboration between (some) members of the organization and an outside consultant/team of consultants who collects and analyzes data and information relevant to a problem or to a set of problems, with a view to identifying any strong/weak points of the field of analysis, to emphasizing their causes and to planning solutions that may lead to an improvement of the organization's situation and activity.

Typology:

We shall focus on 2 more important criteria, which determine two distinct types of diagnosis:

I. The nature of the organizational change/development program conditions the following types of diagnosis:
   - a solution-oriented diagnosis, focused on eliminating dysfunctions
   - an organizational development-oriented diagnosis focused on exploiting opportunities
   - a diagnosis with mixed objectives (as a result of combining the other 2 types)

Obviously, we must also take into account the fact that the mixed aspect is almost always involved, since eliminating dysfunctions leads directly to an improvement of organizational activity, but it does not guarantee the exploitation of all opportunities.

II. The area of coverage gives way to the following types of diagnosis:
   - general diagnosis – targets the entire organization and leads to overall recommendations
   - partial diagnosis – targets a certain activity, a certain field or a particular component or unit of the organization, meaning it is more specialized and more detailed, and its recommendations have less of an effect on the ensemble
   - cascade fault diagnosis/"in fall" diagnosis – mixed form that begins with a general diagnosis which identifies the "blind spots" of the organization and continues with a specialized diagnosis or with a set of specialized diagnosis (similar to the partial diagnosis), which focus on the weak elements or fields, going deep until the level of detailing established by the organization's leadership and by experts.

The position of diagnosis in a process/program of organization change/development:

It may differ from one model to another, nevertheless prone to holding a position rather at the beginning or no further than the middle of this type of action.

In order to emphasize this characteristic we will consider 2 examples:

The first is provided by Wendell French and Cecil Bell in their work *Organization Development*[117] and shows that the process of organization development has 3 basic components (diagnosis, action/intervention, and the program management, which implies all the activities needed to guarantee the success of the program) and 4 stages or steps that must be followed in the order given below:

1. The diagnosis of the organization's state
2. The actions/interventions made on the basis of data collected through the diagnosis
3. Evaluation of the actions'/interventions' effects
4. New actions/interventions

We notice that the 4th stage is a reiteration of the 2nd, a fact which implies the emergence circuit made relying on the feedback provided by the result of evaluation in process. This leads us to think that after the 4th stage there should follow a new stage of evaluating the effects of the new actions/interventions and, based on its results, the process should either end or continue.

The most interesting thing to observe regarding the diagnosis in the French-Bell model is that they think the process of organization change in very technical terms, going directly into action (diagnosis) without taking into consideration the possible preliminary stages.

However, when these authors speak of the actual programs for organizational development, they bring into discussion a model which implies more phases, meaning the Warner Burke model.

This entails the following stages:

1. Initiation (first client-consultant encounter, when they try to realize whether they are compatible for a collaboration)
2. Contracting (when the parts sign a written agreement in which the partners' claims, contributions and responsibilities are included most often about necessary resources, deadlines of execution and expected effects)
3. Diagnosis (the phase of determining the state of fact of the organization, mainly based on collecting and analyzing data and information)

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[117] French and Bell, *Organization Development*, New Jersey, Prentice Hall, 1999.

4. Feedback (putting the client in possession of the analyzed and processed information in order to give him/her a better and clearer image of the organization's situation)

5. Planning change (involving the client in choosing/outlining alternative solutions, their critical analysis, selecting a final solution and developing an action plan)

6. Interventions (implementing the action plan)

7. Evaluation of the program's effects

It is obvious that the Warner Burke model is more detailed and that the diagnosis in this case comes closer to a central position in the program of organizational change/development.

Target-areas of the diagnosis:

According to Richard Beckhard's opinion, there are 2 areas of interest in applying the diagnosis:

1. Systemic components (the over system or the external environment, the organizational system taken as a whole, the subsystems as elements that compose the organizational system)

2. The processes (intrasystemic):

- of setting objectives

- of making decisions

- of planning

- of communication

- of collaboration between groups, teams or subunits

- of solving conflicts, etc.

The stages of diagnosis:

Since there are more points of view in the case of this problem as well, we have settled on the one issued and processed by Eugen Burduş[118] who identifies 2 main stages:

1. Preparing the diagnostic analysis (the pre-diagnosis) which comprises activities like defining the study area, building a team responsible with making the diagnosis, and selecting the most adequate methods and instruments necessary for its accomplishment.

2. The investigation and analysis – comprises the following sub stages:

2.1. Collecting and systematizing data which may refer to one or more fields of interest (financial, commercial, of production, human resources, research-development,

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[118] Burduş E., *Managementul schimbării organizaţionale*, Bucureşti, Editura Economică, 2000.

management etc.), according to the type of program, and respectively to the type of diagnosis applied. Also, the objectives influence both the methods as well as the instruments of collecting information, among which the most often used are the questionnaire, the interview, observation, and secondary analysis (consulting the documents).

2.2. Emphasizing the significant symptoms, which make up the greatest noticeable differences between performance standards (that which is expected to be accomplished), and the actual performance (that which has actually been accomplished) and which can be analyzed by using quantitative and qualitative methods.

2.3. Emphasizing both strong and weak points, as well as the causes that generate them, an analysis which, by using the same type of methods as in the case of the previous sub stage, must result in achieving the connection between the significant symptom and the primary causes.

2.4. Generating recommendations for eliminating dysfunctions or exploiting opportunities, depending on the case.

2.5. Post diagnosis – involves:

- final point in the study's elaboration

- multiplying and diffusing the study to all the members and units of the organization who are involved or are directly affected by the program of organizational change/development

- discussing the issues

- giving the recommendations a final shape

- creating the implementation program (the interventions) with clear specifications regarding competences, responsibilities and the application deadlines.

The basic model of organizational diagnosis:

Presented by Edgar Huse and Thomas Cummings[119],this model originates in the open systems model, and is designed on 3 levels, each of them counting the inputs, the components that correspond to that level, as well as the outputs (as shown in the representation below).

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[119] Huse and Cummings, *Organization Development and Change*, West Publishing Company, 1985.

	INPUTS	COMPONENTS	OUTPUTS
ORGANIZATION	Strategy Task environment	Technology Structure Measurement (and control) systems Human resources system Culture (organiz.)	Organization effectiveness
GROUP	Organizational design	Task structure Components Performance norms Interpersonal relationships	Group effectiveness
INDIVIDUAL	Organizational design Group design Personal features	Variety in aptitude Task identity Task significance Autonomy Feedback to results	Individual effectiveness

At an **organizational level** we are dealing with:

Inputs:

Strategy = action plan which defines how an organization is going to use its resources to obtain competitive advantages in the environment it activates.

Task environment = the sum of the parts/elements of the outside environment, which are relevant in achieving the goals (suppliers, clients, competition).

Components (at the organizational level):

Technology – refers to the way the organization turns resources into products and/or services; it includes methods of production, technologic/operational flux and equipment.

The structure – implies the organizational ways of dividing/distributing work according to horizontal components and to vertical hierarchic levels.

Measurement and control systems = methods of collecting, evaluating and disseminating information regarding groups and individuals in the organization; it controls and detects any digression away from the aims.

The system/systems of human resources = the whole set of activities that are specific to the field, and which aim to maximize the results with regard to the investment made by the organization in human capital (personnel planning, recruitment, selection, integration, leadership, motivation, evaluation, development, discipline etc.).

The organizational culture = the set of values and beliefs shared by the majority of the organization members, who tend to preserve and promote them.

Outputs (at the organizational level):

Organizational effectiveness (measurable, for example, through the impact it has on the environment, through the conversion of some of the results into investments etc.).

At a **group level**:

Inputs:

Organizational design – refers to the components that correspond to the organizational level which forms the framework in which groups perform their activities.

Components (corresponding to the group level):

Task structure – refers to the way in which the design of the group task is set; it varies along 2 dimensions: the settlement of task behavior (specific to the task) and coordinating the group members.

Components – refers to the group members according to several criteria of separation (for example age, professional training, experience, aptitudes etc.).

Performance rules = the beliefs of group members concerning the way the group must fulfill the tasks; it derives from the interaction of group members and serves as guide to group behavior.

Interpersonal relationships – refers to the psycho-social aspects of human relationships in a group, which may affect its activity and working capacity.

Outputs (at a group level):

The group's effectiveness (which may be measured, for example, by the quality of the decisions made, of teamwork, of group cohesion etc.).

At an **individual level**:

Organizational design – refers to the components corresponding to the organizational level which form the framework in which the individual represents the smallest unit.

Group design – refers to the group, the team, the service or the department to which the individual and his/her corresponding job position belong.

Personal features = age, education, experience, aptitudes etc.

Components (corresponding to the individual level):

Variety of aptitudes = the range of corresponding activities and habits, required by a certain job position.

(Work) task identity– measures the degree to which a job position requires/implies the unfolding of a segment of professional activity, segment which is identifiable and relatively complete.

Task significance/importance – identifies the degree to which the work performed according to a certain job position has a significant impact on the environment/on society.

Autonomy – indicates the degree to which a job's characteristics offer more freedom of work planning and establishing the methods of work.

Feedback of results – refers to the degree to which a certain type of professional activity supplies the worker with direct and clear information regarding the efficiency of his performances.

Outputs (at the individual level):

Individual effectiveness – may be measured through the quantity and the quality of the work, through professional satisfaction, absenteeism, professional development etc.

Pursuing the graphic representation of this type of diagnosis, we notice that, on each level, there is no relationship of determination (represented by an arrow)between *Inputs* and *Components,* as in the case of *Components-Outputs*, but instead there is a relationship of concordance, or tight correspondence and articulation of these elements (represented by braces).

Another important thing to keep in min, regarding this type of diagnosis is the fact that *Components* from the superior levels transfer to inferior levels, transforming into *Inputs*, thus realizing a tight connection between all sources of information relevant to the matter of organization change and leading to an articulate image if the situation.

5. COLLECTION AND ANALISYS OF INFORMATION AND DATA

These 2 activities are distinctive parts of the process of organizational diagnosis.

Edgar F. Huse and Thomas G. Cummings[120] add other 2 activities – a preliminary stage and a post-analytical stage – thus constructing a 4 stage model.

I. PRELIMINARY STAGE – DEVELOPMENT OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONSULTANT AND ORGANIZATION MEMBERS (INCLUDED IN THE PROGRAM OF ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT/CHANGE)

This is a very important relationship, as its nature has an influence over the quantity, the quality and the utility of the collected information and data. It is similar to a *diagnostic contract*.

Huse and Cummings propose a set of guidelines that consists of the following guiding questions, which guarantee to the consultant (or to the team of experts, if that be the case) high chances of having a good and an effective collaboration with the organization representatives:

1. Who is the consultant? (Introducing the person)
2. Why is the consultant in the organization, and what does he/she have to do? (defining objectives of diagnosis, explaining the role of diagnosis in the program of organization development/change)
3. Who does he/she work for? Whom does he/she represent? Who asked for him/her? (these are 3 alternative questions to which the following alternative answers can be given:
- a manager
- a group of managers
- managers + employees
- employees (represented by a strong syndicate that can persuade leadership of the usefulness of implementing such a program of organization development/change)
4. What does the consultant want from the organization's representatives and why? (quantifies the effort and time put in by the organization members; at this moment it is highly important that the emphasis be placed on the voluntary nature of the participation)
5. How can the consultant protect confidentiality? (if anonymity is guaranteed, employees are more likely to give straight answers)

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[120] Huse and Cummings, *Organization Development and Change,* West Publishing Company, 1985

6. Who will get access to the results of the data? (emphasis is placed on the fact that diagnosis relies on collaboration, that employees should identify the causes of their own problems based on the data they provided)

7. What's in it for the organization members? (giving clear explanations regarding the benefits that will lead to an improvement of the organization's status)

8. Can the consultant be trusted? (it is a general question that is based on the consultant's ability to give as good answers as possible to the questions raised up to this point; getting an affirmative final answer is also possible by having open, face-to-face discussions with everyone involved in the program, which last for a reasonable amount of time.).

II. COLLECTING INFORMATION AND DATA

In what concerns the collection activity, expert literature sometimes uses the terms 'information' and 'data' without making a clear distinction between them. They are either considered quasi-synonymous, or brought into discussion simultaneously, ergo entailing an implicit distinction between them. The difference that we might be able to make here is that the term 'data' refers to a certain type of information that is pursued and collected occasionally, systematically and on a regular basis (sorted by several relevant criteria) within the organization, without being related in any way to the organization development/change that is applied at a certain moment in time; this information is centralized and stored in different shapes into several posts used to reach certain organizational and managerial objectives. It is still in the case of simultaneous use, with reference to collection (gathering), that the term 'information' in its strictest sense refers – by way of complementarity – solely to information that is not pursued and centralized in the organization's everyday activity, but that is relevant in certain aspects of the organizational activity, such as that referring to the existence of formal leaders, to the actual means of communication within that organization (channels, behaviors, barriers, filters, etc.), or to organizational culture (values, beliefs, attitudes, tradition, etc.). This type of information is less 'visible' in an organization and, as a result, more difficult to identify and collect.

The collection methods, techniques and instruments used with a view to setting a diagnosis are the same as in the case of any other kind of research. The most common are the questionnaire, the interview, observation and consulting secondary sources (the organization's documents). We will take a quick glance at them, insisting only on a few general features (typology, advantages and disadvantages) that help with the selection of the most adequate

method(s) to what we intend to study through the diagnosis set for organizational development/change.

I. QUESTIONNAIRE	ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
Types (according to several criteria): a. The criterion of coverage: - general for the entire organization - focused on certain organizational aspects b. The criterion of applicability: - standardized - particularized (adapted to the organization's specifics) c. The criterion of construction: - With closed questions (with predetermined, set questions) - With open questions - mixed d. The criterion of the fill-in: - Direct fill-in (by the respondent) - indirect fill-in (by the operator)	- easy to apply and analyze - can be applied to a great number of people, even simultaneously - can be applied to all employee categories - the results can be promptly analyzed with the assistance of computers - guarantees quick feed-back to the diagnosed data	- answers are limited by the questions asked; some details and specifics are impossible to clarify - non-empathic (impersonal) - the subjectivism of 'self-confident' answers to 'inconvenient' questions - information about the organizational structure, behavior and context are difficult to obtain - tendency to over-interpret data - tendency to use standard models excessively
II. INTERVIEW	ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
Types (according to several criteria): a. Degree of structuring: - structured - semi-structured - unstructured b. Number of respondents: - individual	- a certain flexibility in asking questions, that gives way to the investigation of new issues identified along the process - the ability to adapt the initially planned questions to any situation - favors the development of	- costly (especially in what time is concerned) - respondents' subjectivism - interviewers' subjectivism - the temptation to manipulate - difficulty in quantifying and interpreting data - highly skilled specialists are

- group	empathic relations that may lead to the disclosing of valuable information - group interviews save time and allow interviewees to expand on each other's answer	needed
III. OBSERVATION	**ADVANTAGES**	**DISADVANTAGES**
Types (according to several criteria): a. The moment of the observation: - real time - retrospectively b. The observer/observed relationship: - direct - indirect	- (relatively) simple method - adaptative - exempt from the interviewees' subjectivism - collects data, not impressions, on behaviors - may generate new interesting hypotheses	- (time) costly - observer may affect the behavior of the observed (in the case of certain types) - distortions of the observer's subjectivism - requires special skills of the observer - difficulties in encoding and interpreting information and data
IV. CONSULTING SECONDARY SOURCES	**ADVANTAGES**	**DISADVANTAGES**
- uses secondary sources such as archives, sheets, files, recordings or other internal documents related to issues of absenteeism, complaints, delays, of the quality and quantity of the products created and/or services provided, and of correspondence with suppliers, clients and government agencies.	- Extremely useful in analyzing the output at all 3 levels (organizational, group, individual) - relatively objective (does not depend on the subjectivism and/or prejudice of respondents or consultant) - the information used is likely to be quantified and reported every so often, a fact which allows a statistical analysis	- validity-related issues (the change of the measurement and/or recording systems may give way to the false impression of having changed the actual status of the organization) - difficulties (at times) in accessing information - difficulties (at times) of interpretation and (re)encoding - reduced coverage of the target issues

III. DATA ANALYSIS

It is done through quantitative and qualitative methods.

III.1. The quantitative methods used in a diagnosis set with a view to accomplishing organizational change/development are the same as those used in other types of research, meaning they are based on the statistical processing of data.

III.2. Qualitative methods – next to those general in nature, which can be applied to any type of research, in this case we are also dealing with methods particular to the problem of change, such as the ***force field analysis*** that derives from the three-stage change model produced by Kurt Lewin. The essence of this method consists of 2 wide categories of forces – those favorable to change and those that tend to maintain the status-quo (the organization's current situation). Within each of the categories, an evaluation of each force (of its strength) is performed, aiming to identify the main obstacles in the way of change, as well as the main tactics of overcoming them.

E.g. Analysis of the force field regarding the issue of performance of a work team.

Pro-change forces	Status-quo preservation forces

New technology

Team/group performance norms

Better raw material

Fear of change

Competition with other

Team/group members' satisfaction

Pressure from the superviser

Well-learned skills

Actual level of per-formance

Higher level of performan

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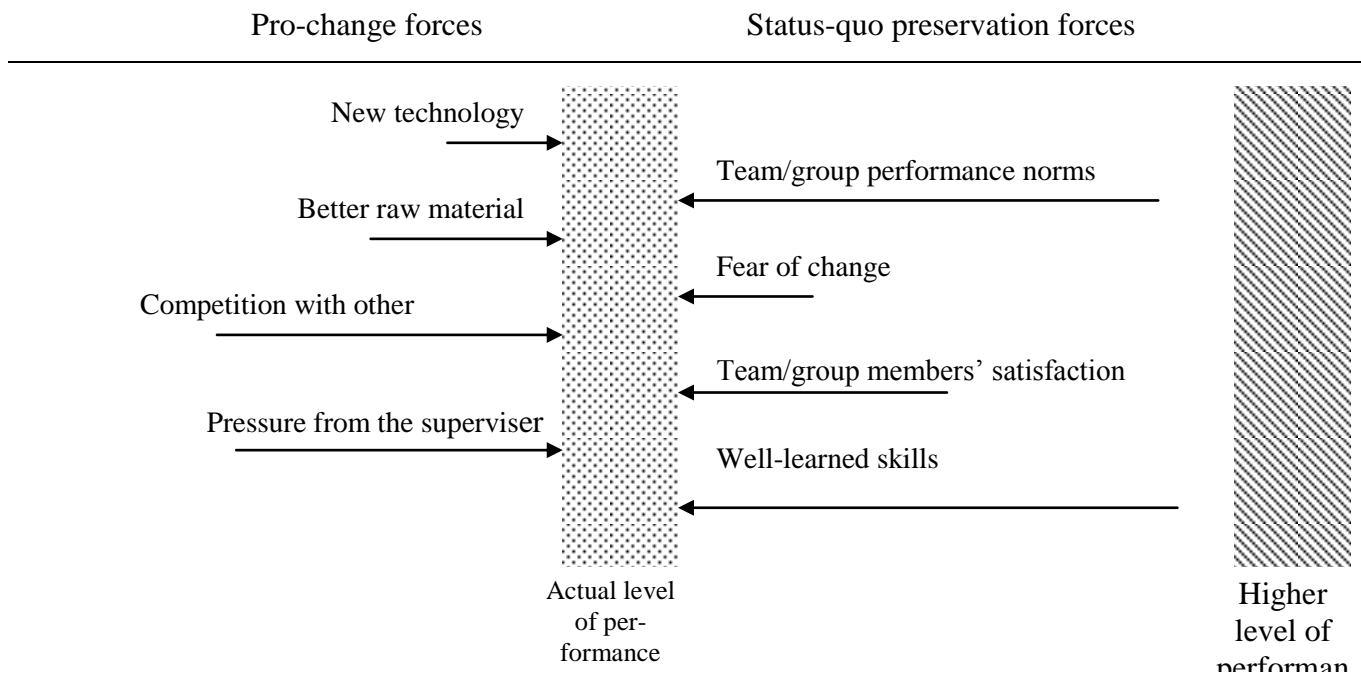
In this case, information can be collected by way of a group interview, in which the members may be asked to identify both the factors that tend to preserve the current performance level, as well as those that might determine a higher level of performance. More than that, they are to be asked to evaluate the strength of each individual factor, and the average value of the evaluation is represented in the graph above by arrows of several lengths. Thus, we have 2 powerful forces favorable to the growth of performance level (competition with other teams that perform similar activities and pressures from the supervisor) and 2 powerful forces in favor of preserving the current level of performance (team/group performance norms and well-learned skills). According to Lewin's conception, in this situation efforts should be directed towards reducing the forces of resistance to change (those of status-quo preservation), as such a strategy would lead to a decrease of the pressure and conflicts that would be likely to emerge rather if efforts were directed towards amplifying the forces favorable to change.

IV. FEEDBACK TO DATA (TO THE RESULTS OF THE DIAGNOSIS)

This last stage, related to the activities of information and data collection and analysis, is highly important: the success of interventions that aim to reach a desired change in the organization largely depend on the way this stage is performed.

As shown in the logical pattern below, giving feedback to the data obtained by the diagnostic analysis leads (or does not lead) to the desired change, involving several supplemental elements within the organization: structures, processes and energy. The first two are clear enough, so that leaves us with the clarification of the third. Energy, in the context of the issue of organization development and change management, refers to the human resource involved, which can provide – when led and managed properly – a valuable intentional or willing potential that can be capitalized with an impulse given to can direct it a certain way. The accuracy of lack of it of this direction depends on the competence and experience of those who answer for the implementation of such a program of organizational development/change, as well as on the way in which they are able to capitalize this entire feedback process.

ACHIEVING FEEDBACK

DOES FEEDBACK CREATE ENERGY?

NO CHANGE

NO

YES

WHICH IS THE DIRECTION OF ENERGY?

ENERGY REJECTS AND REACTS AGAINST DATA

ENERGY IS FAVORABLE TO DATA, TO IDENTIFYING AND SOLVING PROBLEMS

RESISTANCE, ANXIETY, NO CHANGE

ARE THERE ANY ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES AND PROCESSES THAT CAN TRANSFORM ENERGY INTO ACTION?

FRUSTRATION FAILURE, NO CHANGE

NO

YES

CHANGE

The effect of feedback depends on 2 essential factors: the informational content and the process of data communication.

A. CONTENT (of information)

According to Huse and Cummings, it must have the following 8 attributes, meaning it must be:

1. Relevant (attribute attained first of all by including managers and representative employees of the organization in the activity of information and data collection)

2. Intelligible (possible through the use of graphs and outlines as frequently as possible)

3. Descriptive (referring to the fact that the data communicated must be related to actual behaviors; in this respect, the use of examples and illustrations is recommended)

4. Verifiable (referring to accuracy and validity; for instance, involvement of the sample used or of frequency distribution)

5. Limited (Restricted) (if this condition is not met, employees can become overloaded with information, a fact that will have negative effects over subsequent actions)

6. Of Impact (data must be restricted and focused on problems that people can handle and change)

7. Comparative (whenever possible, benchmarks should be used for locating the target group in a wider context)

8. Unfinished (the data communicated are not a purpose in themselves, but rather an action stimulus, a starting point for discussions, supplementary diagnoses (if necessary) and problem solving).

B. PROCESS (of communicating the data gathered through diagnosis)

It is realized within meetings, or series/sessions of meetings.

Huse and Cummings emphasize 6 main features of this process:

1. Powerful motivation of all the organization members involved in the program to use the data communicated to them (surprisingly for compliance with this condition both stimulants as well as coercive methods are used)

2. Ensuring assistance in using the data

3. Structuring the meetings (the danger of it turning into chaos can appear otherwise)

4. Ensuring adequate composition (of the focus group; it is advised that it contain individuals with similar or common issues, may they be members of the same team, or of different teams)

5. Ensuring adequate strength (of the group members) (identifying and clarifying the distinction between issues they can change, issues they can recommend ideas for and issues that are out of their control; if strength drops towards zero, the danger of transforming the discussions into mere abstract exercises appears)

6. Ensuring the assistance of the process itself (with the help of a consultant or a competent group member).

6. INTERVENTIONS IN CHANGE MANAGEMENT PROGRAMS AND IN ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Interventions **are** "*sets of structured activities in which certain organizational components (target groups or individuals) are hired in order to fulfill one or more objectives regarding systemic improvement or personal development"*, **according to the definition placed forth by Wendell French and Cecil Bell Jr. in "*Organization Development"* (New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1999), (p.145).**

In order to implement interventions concerning organization change or development, Wendell and French suggest taking into consideration the following **essential conditions:**

I. Creating a general plan or an intervention strategy within each program regarding organization change or development, which can answer a minimum of fundamental questions, such as:

1. What do we want to accomplish?

2. Which activities bring us closer to our objectives?

3. Which is the most adequate moment, the optimum duration and the most appropriate way for interventions to unfold?

4. What has diagnosis taught us about obstacles and barriers, about the desire to change, about the necessary sources of energy, etc.?

II. Proper structuring of activities

1. for the purpose of including the relevant individuals who will be affected by the problem(s) in question;

2. for those target individuals to be oriented towards the problems or opportunities identified by consultants and/or organization members

3. for both the objectives as well as the ways of reaching them to be clear

4. to guarantee a high probability of success

5. to insure both theoretical and practical knowledge acquirement

6. for the members of the organization to be 'unfettered' rather than anxious and defensive;

7. for organization members to both learn how to solve problems as well as to 'learn how to learn';

8. for individuals to gain more knowledge regarding both the task at hand(what must be done), as well as the process (how to do it);

9. for individuals to commit themselves with full, not just partial, force of personality.

III. Proper selection and initiation of interventions:
1. in order to maximize diagnosis data:
2. to maximize effectiveness by arranging interventions in such a way as previous actions to contribute to making subsequent actions more effective
3. to maximize effectiveness by saving time, energy and money;
4. to maximize the speed at which organizational improvement is achieved
1. to maximize relevance, first off by initiating interventions with an impact on the individual and organizational culture, and then those which have an impact on task and performance;
2. to minimize psychological and organizational strain

IV. Awareness of the fact that various interventions have various dynamics, and produce different results because they rely on different causal mechanisms. Taking this into account, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton have identified the following types of interventions:
1. *Discrepancy-based interventions* (actions, attitudes etc.)
2. *Theory-based interventions* (knowledge of behavioral science applied in order to explain various types of behavior from the time of implementation of the program)
3. *Procedural interventions* (critical analysis of what has already been done, so as to determine whether the most adequate methods were employed)
4. *Relational interventions* (focused on solving interpersonal relationships indicative of negative psychological nuances)
5. *Experimental interventions* (2 action plans are tested with respect to their consequences, prior to making a final decision)
6. *Quandary interventions* (uses an imposed or emerging dilemma to place forth a more thorough examination and identification of possible solutions to the problem)
7. *Perspective interventions* (redirects attention from the problem at hand to the context, towards the historical perspective, towards future objectives, with a view to examining whether present actions have deviated from the projected target) ;
8. *Structural-organizational interventions* (requires examination and evaluation of the structural causes that led to organizational ineffectiveness);
9. *Cultural interventions* (focused on myths, legends, traditions, current practices, elements which define organizational culture).

Therefore, interventions, depending on their type and causal nature, are expected to produce the following **results:**

1. *Feedback* (referring to acquiring knowledge about oneself, about others, about group processes or organizational dynamics, to which the individual has not had access prior to that moment, information which should portray an objective image of reality).
2. *Awareness of changing current socio-cultural or dysfunctional norms* (people tend to adhere to the new 'rules of the game' or to change their behavior and attitude when they see a discrepancy between what current conditions offer them and that what they want to attain).
3. *Intensified interaction and communication* (leads to changes in individuals' and/or groups' attitudes and behaviors, since it allows them to judge the level of compatibility on a social level from the point of view of values and beliefs)
4. *Confrontation* (refers to disclosure and analysis of different norms, values, beliefs or attitudes for the purpose of eliminating obstacles which may hinder any effective interaction)
5. *Education* (in a broad sense, it promotes (theoretical) knowledge, aptitudes, (practical) skills, beliefs, etc.)
6. *Participation* (an increase in the number of individuals involved in the problem solving process, in the decision making process, new ideas will improve the decision making process, how readily decisions will be accepted, level of job satisfaction, etc)
7. *Increasing responsibility* (clearly defined responsibilities and keeping those concerned under scrutiny will lead to better performance)
8. *Improved optimism and energy* (motivational activities will induce individuals to seek a brighter future, one which at the same time is within reach)

Taxonomy of Interventions

There are a large number of types of interventions. Edgar Huse and Thomas Cummings place forth, in their paper "*Organization Development and Change*" (St. Paul, Minnesota: West Publishing Company, 1985) (p.82-370) the following four significant categories in which they include the most significant ones, depending on their primary targets which:

I.   ***Interventions regarding human interaction*** – are focused on those who work within an organization and upon their interaction with one another, such as communication, leadership, problem solving, group dynamics, etc. This particular category includes the following types of interventions:

I.1. Group T- relies on experimental knowledge; the basic group-T consists of 10-15 individuals who had not known each other prior to that moment and twill proceed, along with their instructor, to analyze their own behavior as well as that of the others, subsequent to social interaction.

I.2 Procedural consultation – focuses upon interpersonal relationships and social dynamics which are manifested within individuals who work in groups. A consultant helps group members to diagnose the way in which the group operates and to come up with adequate solutions in order to combat dysfunctional conflicts, communication breakdown or ineffective working norms. The goal is to get the individuals in question to attain the necessary competence in order to isolate their deficiencies and then to solve them.

I.3. Intervention of the third party. This method of change focuses on dysfunctional interpersonal relationships within organizations. Interpersonal conflict can result from problems of a professional nature such as disagreement over methods of operation, or it can stem from problems of a social nature, such as communication breakdown. He/she who intervenes (the third party) aids those involved in conflict resolution through negotiation and reconciliation.

I.4. Team building. This particular intervention focuses upon effectiveness growth of teams fulfilling tasks assigned to them. Similar to *procedural consultation,* it diagnoses group processes and structures problem solving, but goes beyond it by examining group tasks, the roles undertaken by various group members and the various strategies adopted in order to fulfill the various tasks. More so, he/she who intervenes can offer professional advice regarding the tasks.

In the same category of *interventions on human interaction,* but *on a broader scale,* we also include the following:

I.5. Research feedback. It entails collecting information regarding the organization in question and sending this info back to the managers and employees, so that they can

isolate their problems and initiate measures to resolve them. In order to collect the necessary data, questionnaires are usually, and the feedback is given mostly starting at the higher levels and going down the hierarchy.

I.6. Organizational confrontation meetings. Such a method is used especially when it is perceived that there is increased level of stress at the organizational level, and when management must organize its available resources in order to address certain urgent and immediate problems. The method aims to mobilize employees so that they can identify the problems, set targets and take action. It involves several groups of employees.

I.7. Intergroup relations. Similar to the intervention of the third party, it helps employees through conflict resolution, only it pertains to conflicts between two or more groups or between departments. Usually, a consultant helps those involved to identify the causes of the conflict and to choose the most appropriate solution to the problem, starting with behavioral solutions (e.g. minimizing interaction among those involved to a bare minimum) and coming to solutions concerning attitude (e.g. changing the way in which those involved perceive one another)

I.8. Normative approach. These interventions place forth the best managerial solution for an organization. They imply standard tools of measuring organizational practices, as well as specific procedures of helping employees to successfully implement the proposed solutions. Two of the best known programs regarding organization change and development are *the managerial system by Rensis Lickert* and the *organizational development grid by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton.*

II.   *Techno-structural interventions* are directed towards the relationship between employees, technology and organizational structure. *Organizational technology* refers to *work methods and the flow of technology* (in the broadest sense), while *structures* refer to *division of labor, organizational hierarchy* and *labor design.* This category includes:

II.1. Integration and differentiation. It represents one of the first contingent approaches pertaining to organizational design. Differentiation refers to departmental design within the organization, while integration refers to the methods employed to coordinate them, the departments; both are compared to the level of safety and stability within the environment in which the organization operates.

II.2. Structural design. This program refers to the division of labor within an organization, generally the result leading to three types of structure: a. functional structures which

partition the organization in departments specialized in specific tasks; b. productive structures with organizations ordered in departments or production units; c. matrix structures, which establish organizational structures by grouping the departments and production units together.

II.3. Collateral organization. This particular organization creates a parallel organization which can be used by the management team in order to supplement the initial one. Collateral organizations are relatively informal in nature and attempt to solve problems that the formal organization cannot solve.

II.4. Quality of professional life. It represents a wider category of interventions, which focus on the employee's status in the organization as well as on organizational effectiveness. First and foremost, it places emphasis on promoting employee participation in the decision making process. They could include improvements to the work design, the reward system, participation structure, to the work environment and conditions (workday schedule, physical conditions, instruments and machinery employed)

II.5. Work design. This type of program is focused upon structuring both the work performed by teams as well as the workplace of the individual. It entails a wide variety of interventions starting with approaching the problems of sociotechnic systems and ending with the design of working teams which are self adjusting, teams which can adapt unaided to their own behavioral targets with limited external control. Work design also includes attempts to develop job positions by providing the employees with a greater diversity of tasks, with a greater autonomy and improved feedback regarding work results.

III. **Intervention in the management of human resources** focuses on staff policies of the organization in question, paying close attention to the integration mechanisms for individuals within organizations. Of these we retain:

III.1. *Setting objectives.* It aims at the attainment of a better correlation between the objectives of the organization and of staff management, through managers' and employees' improved communication and through their setting common objectives, whether individually or as a group. These are to meet on a regular basis in order to plan activities, to assess accomplishments with a view to achieving objectives.

III.2 Reward systems. They are concerned with conceiving and structuring rewards in order to improve performance and the level of satisfaction among employees. They imply innovative approaches regarding issues of wage, promotion and other types of benefits, such as paid vacations, additional insurance and private pensions etc.

III.3. Career planning and development. It focuses on helping people to choose a career and organizations appropriate for them and on reaching one's objectives with respect to a professional career. Generally it is addressed to managers and to qualified personnel, and it seeks the improvement in quality of one's professional life.

III.4. Stress management. This type of program intends to help members of an organization to cope well with the dysfunctional ramifications of work related stress. It backs managers in their efforts to reduce sources of stress as well as conflicts of position (conflicting working tasks) and ambiguities (unclear working tasks). It suggests methods to reduce stress-related symptoms expressed by anxiety or hypertension.

IV.   *IV. Strategic interventions* are directed towards an organization's overall strategy, towards the way in which the organization utilizes its resources to gain an advantageous position within the environment in which it operates. This category includes the following types of interventions:

IV.1. Planning open systems. This method helps organizations and/or their subunits both to systematically evaluate their relations with the environment and to improve them.

IV.2. Corporate culture. It focuses upon support for organizations with respect to development of certain cultures (values, beliefs, norms) adequate to its own strategies as well as to the environments in which they operate. It concentrates its efforts towards the development of a strong corporate culture which will determine the members of an organization to aim their efforts in the same direction.

IV.3. Management of strategic change. This intervention entails a change within the organization as a whole, especially as an answer to the unstable environment in which it operates, or to its changing. It implies modifying 3 organizational systems: *technical*, *political* and *cultural*. Efforts are directed towards correlation of systems amongst themselves and of these with the outside environment.

7. ON RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

"Those who suffer from Down syndrome are not able to learn how to read or write. Not ever." Everybody believes (or better yet, believed) that this statement was an indisputable truth. Until one of the people suffering from this syndrome, not knowing that what he was doing was in fact unconceivable, did learn how to read and write. All by himself. And did it so well, that he even went on to writing a book. When the book appeared on the market, what do you think was the reaction of the 'medical community'? "It is not real, it is all a farce, a deceit. Everyone knows that people with Down syndrome cannot write. So the book couldn't have been written by Mr. X because he suffers from this syndrome. It is all a lie!"… It seems incredible, doesn't it? But what we have portrayed here is a real story.

Galileo Galilei has been through the dungeons of the Inquisition because he had dared to support something unheard of, that the Earth moves around the Sun and not the other way around. Well, of course everyone knew that that was a lie! "Why should we complicate our existence with all the consequences this mad Italian's uttering? We've had it good so far, there is no reason why we should accept the change only because of the words of a dreamer!"

Dl. Travis, former circus performer, presently an honorary retired person in a small British town, is an electronics enthusiast. One day he saw a broadcast about Africa and AIDS on TV, where it was said that it was extremely hard, if not impossible, to perform health education for the majority of the African population, because there is no means of media that can convey the relevant information (this case was overseen by the TV station BBC -2, 21 November, 1996). It is not only about AIDS, but any kind of contagious disease or crisis situation often encountered on the black continent. The most appropriate means for a rapid and accurate communication of information would be the radio. But there are two significant impediments: firstly, a large part of the population does not benefit form electricity; also, batteries are not very long lasting and are highly expensive, as they are – most of the time – imported. Suddenly, Mr. Travis had a revelation, a moment of inspiration. He hurried to his makeshift workshop and in an hour's work he managed to attach to a portable radio a small

generator which could be turned on by a spring system, similar to the one in a mechanical watch (we are speaking roughly about the same principle found at the basis of the generator that energizes bicycle headlights, for example). He then tried his invention and... it worked! The radio worked, with no batteries and without being connected to the main electricity line. It seemed that the problem of communication in Africa had been solved in the easiest way. A new technological hybrid had been born, „the clock-work radio". The following move was, obviously, contacting the main companies in the field (the field of radios, not clocks…). The answers came one after the other: „We are sorry but we are not interested in your invention." Why? Simple: why go through the trouble? If we were to take what you say seriously, we would have to change many things, new assembly lines, new marketing research, new delivery places and contracts, etc. Also, the idea is too new and unfamiliar - ergo, bothering. There is a certain similarity with the reaction of Galilee's contemporaries, don't you think?[121]

All these ideas or facts represent social changes or elements that have triggered change. All the reactions described above represent what is known as "resistance to change" in expert literature. We are not only referring to major changes (as the overturning of a central concept, like cosmological systems with religious implications) or new innovative ideas (such as the invention of the clock-work radio or the amazing discovery that a great part of medical theories regarding the Down syndrome are, at least partially, erroneous). Even relatively minor modifications of the status-quo can generate rejection reactions, sometimes very acute ones. The causes of these reactions, the theories regarding this subject and their categorization constitute the subject matter presented here.

First, let us see what is meant by the statement "resistance to change". The British author Andrew Leigh believes that "Any behavior that attempts to maintain the status-quo when confronted with pressures that try to modify it" (1997, p. 69) can be considered

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[121] After three years of persistence the idea of Mr. Travis was finally put into practice and currently there are hundreds of thousands of copies of clock-work radios in Africa, at a very low price (because they are not hard to manufacture; they are often the only link between an isolated community and "civilization". Furthermore, dozens of similar devices have been used during the war in former Iugoslavia, in order to keep the civilian population up to speed with mined areas from the regions where fighting had ended.

resistance to change. As we go on – a specification: the present data refers to the phenomenon of resistance to change within the organizational area.

Generally, this phenomenon is described as an irrational, counter productive behavior of a minority within an organization, with negative consequences on the entire system or even on those who practice this type of conduct. In other words – resistance to change is a bad thing. Could the situation really be like this? How do we label the attitude of doctors who oppose changing the hospital practice by arguing that patients' care would suffer, from the point of view of this statement and the examples given above? How about the refusal of the operators of a nuclear plant to accept staff reduction on account that it would affect the level of safety in the functioning of the plant in question?

As it is clearly shown, the problem is not that simple. Awarding a sign or sense of value to the resistance to change largely depends on the angle we evaluate the situation from. It is highly possible that a certain behavior be seen as extremely damaging, even destructive, by some of the organization members, while very commendable by others. We do not intend to clarify this dispute over value, but we will use it to introduce a terminological distinction which will facilitate the analysis of this phenomenon: we will call the "negative" resistance-"disruptive resistance", and the "positive" one - "constructive resistance".

A large number of the theories on resistance to change come from the field of management and focus on the ways in which resistance can be overcome, so that change can be implemented rapidly and effectively. It is obvious that within this approach, resistance to change is considered as a negative thing, which is to be fought against and which has to be completely eliminated, for the future wellbeing of the organization. This theoretical position will be described first throughout the following paragraphs.

Since the year 1940 until nowadays, a large number of studies and articles that advise managers on how to overcome resistance to change in their own organization have been published. We will present some of the most important theories, starting with the one which belongs to Coch and French[122].

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[122] Coch, L. and French, J.R.P., jr.- *Overcoming Resistance to Change*, Human Relations, 1948, no. 2.

Their theory originates in a famous study in expert literature, the first research that had a systematic approach on the issue of effectiveness from the perspective of resistance to change. It is about the study on Harwood Manufacturing Corporation, a textile (pajamas, actually…) producing company, conducted in 1948. The company headquartered in Marion, Virginia and had 600 employees, out of whom only 100 were male. The majority of workers came from the country, with no experience in the field of industrial activity. The average level of education was around what for us would be eighth grade and the average age was 23. Shortly before this study, the enterprise in question had gone through a series of changes introduced by management in order to maintain the competitiveness of the organization on the market, to increase its effectiveness. Basically, a new technology and a new division of the production activity were introduced. The problem which Harwood Corporation was confronting was a pronounced resistance of the workers to the recent changes, manifested through low effectiveness, aggressive attitude towards management, high rate of staff fluctuation, obvious ill-will in accomplishing various work duties (actually, a large number of managers today are confronted with similar problems as reactions to the changes they introduce).

The issues mentioned above were all the more surprising as the company practiced a liberal type of management, paying very much attention to human resources management issues. Salaries were satisfying (there were two types of minimum wages, one for new employees, and one 22% higher for employees with 6 months' experience), norms were high but not impossible to reach (the average norm was 60 units of product per hour; an average of 34 weeks were necessary to acquire the level of skill needed to achieve a full norm), and work was done in individual agreement. In order to lift spirits and maintain competitiveness among workers, lists with each of their performances were posted every day, focusing on the ones who had managed to accomplish or exceed the norm.

The major problems started to appear once new technologies were introduced, a fact which required the transfer of certain workers from one field of activity to another. At first, resistance to change was seen as determined by the fact that the employees could not readjust

to the new workplaces, and thus felt entitled to reject the interventions of management, irrespective of their nature. This principle was reinforced by the fact that only 38% of the transferred staff managed to re-accomplish the norm of 60 de units/hour.

Nevertheless, the authors of the study considered that resistance to change is a much more complex force and that it does not depend solely on switching workplaces, especially since even those who managed to return to the "normal" level of productivity manifested rejection behaviors towards management initiatives. Furthermore, such attitudes were also seen in those who had not been transferred. As a result, a few hypotheses were formulated. (1) There is a motivating force which drives the employee to reach the minimum amount of 60 units/hour or more; the force grows as the employee approaches his/her goal. (2) There is a resistance force conflicting with (1). [123]It hinders high productivity and it grows together with the level of the former (the faster you work the harder it becomes to increase your work speed) and (3) the force of the frustration generated by the conflict between (1) and (2) is according to the weakest of the forces in question, as long as this latter force is greater than the minimum threshold needed to produce the phenomenon of frustration[124]

Coch and French started from the hypothesis that in the case of "disruptive" resistance, group dynamics and norms are just as important as individual traits. In order to verify this hypothesis, the researchers called together a series of meetings with some of the work groups within the enterprise, during which they explained to the workers why they had introduced such changes that bothered them so much, and why their co-participation was needed in joining the effort made by management to increase the effectiveness of the enterprise. The other groups were not told anything. Coch and French observed that in the case of groups which were offered explanations about the changes occurred, resistance was significantly diminished, while the attitude of the other workers remained unchanged. Thus, the authors were able to assert that explaining the measures of management, together with benefiting from the co-participation of workers in implementing them, has a major importance

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[123] The influences of the theory of the force field of Kurt Lewin are obvious.
[124] Coch, L. and French, J.R.P. from Natemeyer, **Classics of Organizational Behavior**, 1978, p. 304.

in reducing "disruptive" resistance to change. In other words, resistance to change is a combination of individual reactions to frustration and powerful group forces.

This study was among the first to draw attention upon group methods of overcoming resistance to change, and has had a great influence in convincing mangers to use methods based on group participation in their attempts to introduce changes in the organizations.

Another important theory about "how to overcome resistance to change" is the "field theory", also known as the "force field analysis", created by one of the greatest analysts in the field of organizational sociology and psychology, Kurt Lewin[125].

Lewin describes organizations as systems in a stable condition, one of balance between equal and opposing forces. On the one hand, there are the "pro-change" forces, such as pressure of competition, new technology, innovation and creativity within the organization, new laws in the economic, environment protection or legal field concerning labor and the rights this context offers to individuals, etc. Counter balancing these forces we find, what Lewin calls "resistance forces", including habits, organization traditions, agreements reached in the past with syndicates, the organizational culture and climate, etc. The two sets of forces are of equal intensity and mutually revoke each other, so that the organizational system is maintained in a state of stable balance. The logical consequence of this model is that if we want to introduce a change, we have to destabilize the balance of these forces, to strengthen and increase the "pro-change" forces in order to overwhelm "the resistance forces". Once this is achieved, a new position of balance is reached, which includes the situation and the elements we wanted to introduce in the organization through the change which took place. Consequently, we are dealing with a temporary tearing of the balance of forces by a pressure that breaks off when the desired state has become part of the organizational reality.

DESIRED STATE OF BALANCE | FORCES OF RESISTANCE

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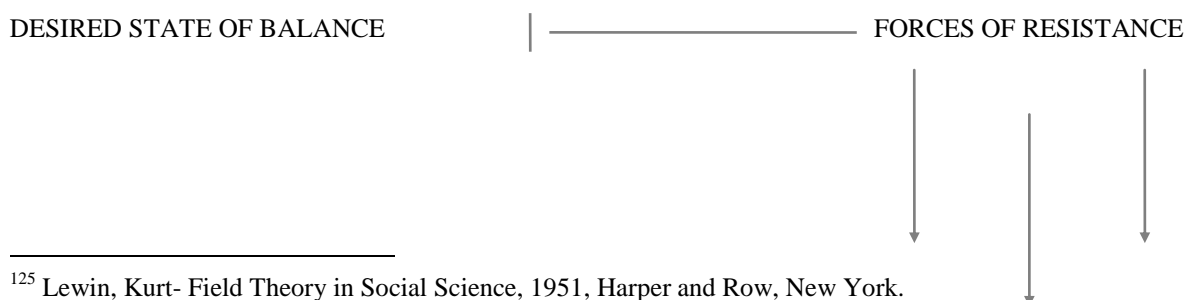
[125] Lewin, Kurt- Field Theory in Social Science, 1951, Harper and Row, New York.

PRESENT STATE OF BALANCE ———————————— THE SYSTEM IN BALANCE

"PRO-CHANGE" FORCES

STRATEGY OF CHANGE:

1. UNFREEZUNG
2. CHANGE: REDUCING FORCES OF RESISTANCE TO CHANGE, AND INCREASING FORCES FAVORABLE TO CHANGE
3. REFREEZING OF THE SYSTEM

FIGURE 1. THE MODEL OF "FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS" CREATED BY LEWIN[126]

Lewin believes that there are three stages in implementing a change - the **unfreezing phase**, the phase of **actual change** and **the final phase of refreezing.** In order to **unfreeze** an organization, a careful evaluation of the forces of "resistance" is needed; any premature, multilateral increase of the forces favorable to change will automatically lead to increasing hostility towards change. That is why the first thing to be done is minimizing the forces of "resistance", by consulting the groups of employees targeted by the change, and obtaining their co-participation. Only then can the change be implemented and the position of balance modified towards the desired state. The third phase of the process is extremely important for defining the newly introduced change, and for including it in the organization's daily routine. A series of techniques and strategies are used within the stage of **refreezing**, like rewarding the desired conduct of employees and elaborating new sets of rules and regulations to help integrate the new situation in the ordinary life of the organizations.

The main quality of the K. Lewin model is that it provides an easy way of understanding the game of forces when introducing a planned change in an organization. He

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[126] ibidem.

emphasizes the fact that whatever the type or magnitude of change, there will always exist contrary forces that have to be taken into consideration by the managers who initiate change. However, this model does not say anything about the reasons which determine different groups to resist change, and offers only a very general taxonomy of the approach on organizational change (dealt with more in detail in a different chapter).

Paul Lawrence[127] published an article in *Harvard Business Review* where he made a distinction, for the first time in this field, between the resistance generated by technical and by social aspects of change. In this paper, he gives two examples of changing the technology in use; in the first case, the structure of the social interaction between employees was not affected at all –resistance was extremely reduced, almost absent; in the second case, that of introducing an assembly line – resistance to change was extremely high. Lawrence's conclusion: resistance to change is in direct proportion with the degree to which the model, the set of social relations of the organization is affected. This statement is valid not only for the inferior levels of the organizational hierarchy, but also for top-management[128].

An extremely interesting theory is the one provided by Herbert A. Shephard. He believes there are two types of structurally different organizations: those with resistance to change as a basic feature, and those at the other end, usually favorable to promoting and incorporating new ideas in their organization and functioning. Shephard considers that the first type of organizations tends to act as follows:

"People who are familiar with the situation they are in are the most
likely to have an innovating idea regarding that situation. Consequently,
most of the ideas of this type are, with a high degree of probability,
generated at a certain distance from the organization's power poles. Since
new ideas mean problems, they are simply isolated, kept away from the

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[127] Lawrence, Paul- How to Deal with Resistance to Change, Harvard Business review, 1969.
[128] Let us consider only the reticence with which the introducing of modern means of communication in several organizations was greeted; next to the fear that by benefiting from a more flexible communication network they will lose one of the key factors of control that they held until then, a lot of managers were bothered by the way in which the new technology affected the interaction with their colleagues: less direct contacts, more information autonomy, etc.

flow of communication destined to superior hierarchical levels. However, as power is centralized at the top of the organizational pyramid, support from "high up" is a necessity in order for an idea to be transformed in an innovation."[129]

As it may be observed from the fragment above, organizations characterized by the tendency to refuse innovation base their behavior on a mix between bureaucracy and a pyramid like organizational structure, strictly hierarchical, with a limited distribution of power and a clear interest of the elite to maintain the status-quo. In this type of organization, any new idea is a threat, a potential source of problems, so much so that the employees' tendency is to "better keep my mouth shut and mind my own business like the boss wants me to". In other words, Shephard's theory reveals two interesting things:

1. elements of structure can become factors that influence directly the organization's attitude towards change; a flexible communication network through which information can flow rapidly and which is accessible to everybody; the "network" type of organizational structure; the lack of excessive power centralization, *eo ipso* a considerable degree of autonomy at the inferior and middle levels of the organizational hierarchy, etc. can collaborate in setting a favorable climate to innovation and change.

2. even top-management can be one of the major causes of resistance to change; obviously, in this case we are no longer talking about planned changes, initiated by management, but of a downward process. Resistance can appear at any level of the organization, therefore it is a mistake to focus our attention only on resistance to the changes imposed from above.

Andrew Du Brin's book - **Fundamentals of Organizational Behavior**, 1974 – is an example of the classic approach on the issue of resistance to change. The author believes that change may appear in three areas: technology or business, structure or policy, and personnel.

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[129] King, Nigel and Anderson, Neil- Innovation and Change in Organizations, 1995, Routledge, London, p. 160.

The levels of resistance will be affected (positively or negatively) by the way in which change influences employees (how many, to what extent), by the organization's activities and by the amount of resources needed for its implementation. DuBrin believes that resistance can be reduced to a minimum through many interconnected action strategies:

- selecting personnel – hiring only individuals that are flexible and open to change

- avoiding coercion tactics – using methods of persuasion, as opposed to using force or threatening with force (irrespective of its nature) to neutralize resistance to change

- minimizing social changes – reducing the *perceived* impact of change by reducing its effect on social relations within the organization to a minimum[130]

- presenting change as a reversible process – groups that are liable to be affected by change must be persuaded that, should management approve, things can always go back to the way they were, and that change is not irreversible or immutable. This manipulation technique may be used by the initiators of change in a more cynical way, when in fact, the state they are pursuing is not that created through the first change, but that attained by request of the groups involved in the process; the first one is a "false target", that counts on the reaction of the subjects in order to reach the actual objective of the process of change. Only this time, there is minimal resistance to change, as the group is convinced that the new state of affairs is in accordance with their own wishes.

- Decision-making process on a co-participatory basis – involving whoever will be affected by the change in the debates on the future course of action. It is irrelevant whether they are present at the discussions of the truly critical matters or simply at the discussions of minor details, as long as they feel as a part of the decision-making team…

- Using economic-financial means - "buying" the opposers, by way of using all the means available to the initiators and implementers of change.

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[130] The influence of Lawrence on DuBrin is rather evident.

The theoretical position of Kotter and Schlesinger represents the swan song of the theme "how-to-overcome-resistance-to-change". It describes strategies available to managers, as well as the instruction manuals of each of them and their use in particular circumstances. This theory of contingency and of its continuum is presented in figure 2.

Communication	Participation	Facilitation	Negotiation	Manipulation	Coercion

Increasing force or strength employed in the approach ⟶

POTENTIAL METHODS

• Offering information on change • Describing the rationale of the proposition • Persuading employees about advantages • addressing any erroneous or distorted interpretation of change	• involving the group of employees affected by change • participate in making (important or less so) decisions • gathering advocates for the process of change	• exploring, analyzing areas that show resistance to change • using persuasion to generate positive attitudes towards change • facilitating change of attitude and behavior	• formal and informal negotiations for overcoming resistance to change • possible use of an "arbiter" (or of a third, impartial, party that gets involved in the discussion and makes decisions)	• using power positions for getting the approval of the subjects of change (through manipulation) • combining real with potential threats; rewarding "submissive" behaviors	• using coercion, explicitly or implicitly • threatening behavior, that excludes rewards • threatening -in writing- with dismissal unless the proposed change is accepted

FIGURE 2. APPROACHING RESISTANCE TO CHANGE ACCORDING TO THE MODEL OFFERED BY KOTTER AND SCHLESINGER[131]

The six strategies identified by Kotter and Schlesinger are described; the techniques on the right are considered iron arm interventions, as the degree of coercion involved by each method increases from left to right. The authors stress the fact that managers have to decide which technique (or combination of techniques) to use, taking into account the specifics of the situation and the actual power they have. All the better if the change can be accomplished through less oppressive strategies (placed on the left side), as these approaches are less costly in the long run, having no influence over the faith of the groups affected by change. All in all,

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[131] King, Nigel and Anderson, Neil- *Innovation and Change in Organizations*, 1995, Routledge, London, p. 162.

this model is useful because it emphasizes the fact that the means used to overcome resistance to change depend highly on the situation, it emphasizes the fact that we are not dealing with the implementation of a project designed at the desk, that is solely theoretical, but with overcoming real and complex obstacles, for which action there is no recipe able to guarantee success beforehand.

All the theories presented thus far have focused on one thing: how to overcome resistance to change, how to counteract the consequences of the forces that trigger this type of behavior. Obviously, this type of behavior is quite simplistic and unilateral: besides the fact that it disregards everything except "disruptive" resistance, it fails to approach the true causes of the behavior of resistance to change. There has been little discussion of the sociological aspects of the phenomenon, and none of the psychological ones. We may compare this type of approach with behaviorism, and describe resistance to change as the "black box" of which nothing is known, as the focus is on minimizing its effects on the organization and on maximizing the effective power of the implementation of the planned change. In other words, resistance to change is a sort of side effect of the organization's structuring and functioning, a negative– yet rooted – thing, which must be eliminated, sometimes taking no notice of the means used in the process.

As part of the second half of the work presented here, we wish to talk about the organizational causes and manifestations of resistance to change, by referring to certain theoretical contemporary points of view. A specification is necessary: if the classic and modern theories have been preoccupied especially with the way in which resistance to change can be overcome (this phenomenon being considered negative *a priori*), the modern theoretical concepts start from another axiomatic principle, trying to explain and understand the emergence of resistance to change, being thus interested more in its causes than in the way in which it can be overcome. Of course, the final goal remains pragmatic – implementing change with minimum resistance –, but the emphasis is placed on avoiding the emergence of this phenomenon by learning its internal mechanisms, and not on defeating an already expressed resistance. That is why the discussions about contemporary theories regarding

resistance to change will actually be discussions centered on the causes which generate this phenomenon.

Why do individuals resist change, especially when it aims to improving effectiveness, efficiency, and productivity? A great number of explanations have been forwarded by expert literature. However, before trying to describe them in a summarized form, we deem it useful to set a reference framework for the factors that influence resistance to change at an organization, group or individual level. Table 3 suggests some of the hypothetical relations between these factors and the different levels of resistance to change. Next, we will tackle each level in turn.

Individual level. At this level, we are dealing with two types of factors that weigh the most on resistance to change: the individual's personality and previous experience. In what the latter is concerned, Kotter and Schlesinger believe that attitudes based on previous experience related to organization change may have four major causes: lack of trust and misunderstanding of the intentions of change, low tolerance to change, narrow personal interests and conflicting evaluations of the same process, according to the position within the organization. The way in which personality related factors as well as experience driven attitudes connect with resistance to change is described in table 3, so that we will insist no further upon this matter.

Factors	Power centralization vs. Levels of resistance
	decentralized ⟶ centralized

Individual factors (a)

- personality: resistance
  - ■ increased need of control low ⟶ high
  - ■ increased need of success low ⟶ high
  - ■ pronounced authoritarianism high ⟶ low

- ■ creation of dependency
  structures   low ——————————————— high

- High-priority experience in the field of
  change

  - ■ chiefly negative   high ——————————— low (d) ——→

  - ■ high percentage of residual   high ——————————— low (d) ——→
    resentment

Group factors (b)

- high cohesion   high ——————————— high (d) ——→

- pronounced participation in   low ——————————— high ——————→
  making group decisions

- pronounced autonomy   high ——————————— high (d) ——→
  self-determination

- positive social relations   high ——————————— high (d) ——→

Organizational factors (c)

- structure

  - ■ formal bureaucracy   high ——————————————— low ——→

  - ■ wide area of control   high ——————————— high (d) ——→

  - ■ decentralized   high ——————————————— low ——→

- climate and culture

  - ■ trust and openness   low ——————————————— high →

  - ■ increased participation in   low ——————————————— high →
    the decision making process

  - ■ involvement and professional   high ——————————— high (d) ——→

dedication

- strategy
    - ■ product variance   low ————————— ~~low(e)~~ ⟶
    - ■ pronounced type of   high ————————— ~~high (d)~~ ⟶

        defensive strategy
    - ■ division of manpower   low ————————— ~~low (e)~~ ⟶
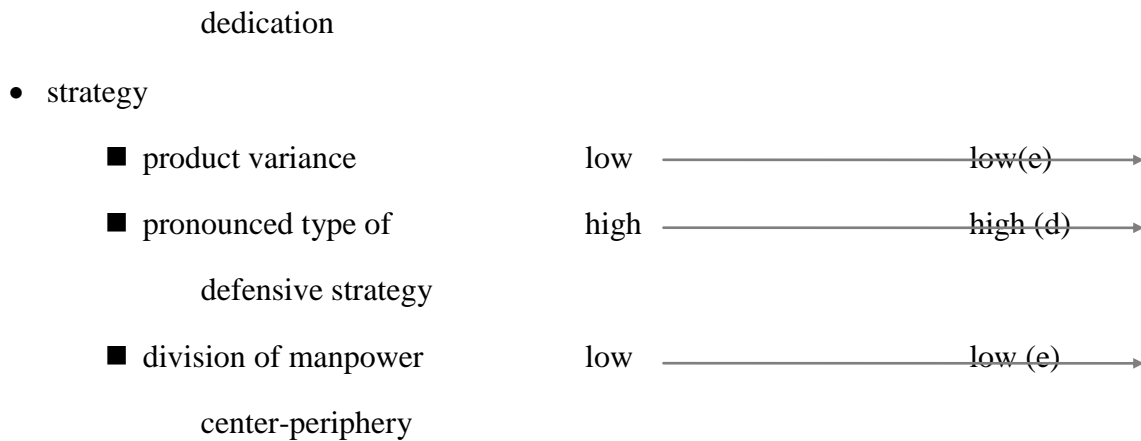
        center-periphery

FIGURE 3. HYPOTHETICAL RELATIONS BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS,
CENTRALIZATION OF POWER AND RESISTANCE TO CHANGE[132]

(a) Among the individual factors, there are the personalities of those involved in the process of change and their attitudes towards it, based on their experience in the field. The levels of resistance (high or low) imply that the change is made downward and that individuals have little to say in the process.

(b) Group factors refer to groups that perform different activities together on a daily basis (as opposed to groups that work together throughout a single project). There are some elements of individual and group factors that overlap.

(c) Organizational factors are the most numerous and at the same time, the most diffused. The inventory offered here is not exhaustive, but merely instances the impact that organizational structure, culture and strategy can have on resistance to change. Among other factors, we can list technology, organizing work, resources, leadership style etc.

(d) It is likely that resistance is high in the case of this indifferent factor, if power is centralized or not.

(e) It is likely that resistance is low in the case of this indifferent factor, if power is centralized or not.

        Group level. In what concerns group resistance to change, it can be determined by a series of factors inherent to structure, composition, and to the array of relations that

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[132] King, Nigel and Anderson, Neil- *Innovation and Change in Organizations*, 1995, Routledge, London, p. 165-166.

contribute to group organization and that define its status-quo. Even though this fact is not revealed by the present analysis, we must point out that, from the point of view of intensity, group resistance to change is superior to individual resistance, besides being more difficult to overcome. At this level too, the distribution of power and authority will affect the degree of resistance to change.

Organization level. At this level of analysis it all becomes much like a kaleidoscope made up of interrelated factors that contribute to resistance to change. Of these we list structure, organizational climate and culture, decision-making strategy and style, as well as leadership style. Each of these elements has a pronounced influence on the form and the level of resistance to change.

Thus, it is obvious that resistance to change is shaped by a multitude of factors. So far, we have registered the theories that attempted to describe algorithms for overcoming resistance, and that paid little attention to this phenomenon's interior mechanisms and components. By way of table 3, we tried to present a set of factors that may influence the evolution of resistance. We wish to insert a clarification: resistance to change is brought about by two sets of variables; the fist refers to the characteristics of its area of development, to its level of manifestation (meaning what has been discussed above – individual, group, organizational factors[133]); the second set refers to the endeavor to which resistance is manifested (as we are speaking of a phenomenon of reaction, not of pro-action): organization change, or better yet, its type and form. We would like to close the discussion on the contemporary phase of expert approaches on this matter, so that further on we may open the discussion on the relation between change and resistance to change.

Even though it is impossible to list all the factors that affect the evolution of resistance to change, expert literature agrees, up to a certain point, on what causes the phenomenon. We will describe three different points of view that, assembled, offer an overall and somewhat complete image on the issue.

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[133] We stress the fact that any particular expression of resistance is characterized by a configuration that consists of elements out of all three mentioned categories; there isn't such a thing as a resistance to change that is affected by the group culture, for instance, but has nothing to do with the way power is shaped within that organization.

N. King and N. Anderson[134] focus especially on the psychological aspects causing resistance to change. First of all, change represents the unknown, which is why it poses a threat for those affected by it. In other words, change spawns resistance simply because it *is* change. Such a reaction may emerge from either 'rational' or 'subjective' sources. Rational resistance is present when individuals decide that the change would be to their disadvantage (no matter if on a personal or professional level), and consciously make the decision to fight it. Subjective resistance, on the other hand, is the result of negative psychological processes that include anxiety, frustration or loss of self-esteem. Obviously, there is a very fine line between 'rational' and 'subjective' – what is rational to some may be subjective to others. The axiom that lies behind these attempts to explain resistance to change as a phenomenon is the reaction of individuals or groups against any effort to alter their status-quo. In other words, when facing an outside change, both individuals as well as groups automatically offer resistance.

The second reason at the basis of the phenomenon under examination is the fact that any change creates the possibility of becoming a threat to one's interests, may they be individual or belonging to a group. The current equilibrium is/will be altered. Those with more to lose are those that will express stronger resistance. We wish to emphasize that we are talking about the perception that the subjects of change have on the latter's effects on them. If under the impression that certain aspects that are important to "us" will be modified by the upcoming change, our resistance will most likely be more energetic.

The third element that acts as a cause for resistance to change is the fact that change often means extra work for those involved in it. West and Anderson (1992) argued by way of a study conducted on British National Health Service that resistance to change may be a reaction to what represents the burden of the additional workload given to those that constitute the subject of change. A classic example in this area is the resistance (most often manifested in the form of comments that are at least stinging and of "accidental" mistakes) generated by the introduction of new informational technology in an organization, or by

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[134] King, Nigel and Anderson, Neil- *Innovation and Change in Organizations*, 1995, Routledge, London, p. 170.

modifying "form related" feats the reaction is even more violent when the new system and the old run simultaneously, as for allowing an accommodation period.

One other typology of resistance to change is given by Arthur Bedeian[135]. This author believes that there are four major causes of the phenomenon:

1. Personal interests of a "parochial" type: individuals seek to protect their interests, which they perceived as threatened by change.

2. Misunderstanding and mistrust: resistance to change is generated by misunderstanding the reasons that the change in question is based on, or of its nature or consequences; obviously, such an attitude is produced by lack of information, which generates uncertainty, which in turn generates the perception of danger, which in turn generates a defensive reaction.

3. Incongruous evaluation: individuals "read" a message differently; it is highly probable that the same change have different meanings for the individual, as opposed to the organization.

4. Low tolerance to change: individuals are different from the point of view of their ability to accept change, to confront the unknown. According to this feature, their level of resistance to change can be established.

Finally, Andrew Leigh[136] offers the third typology of the causes of resistance to change. According to the British author, there are no less than 13 causes of the phenomenon:

1. The desire not to lose something of value

2. Historical factors – experience with other changes

3. The way in which change is presented and implemented

4. Misunderstandings regarding the nature of change and its consequences – the lack of information; there is no faith in that change may bring improvements

5. The belief that change makes no sense for the organization

6. The uncertainty regarding the freedom to do things differently

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[135] DuBrin, Andrew- Fundamentals of Organizational Behavior: An Applied Perspective, 1974, New York:Pergamon Press, p. 532-534.
[136] Leigh, Andrew- *Effective Change*, 1997, Institute of Personnel Management, Lodon, p. 72.

7. Lack of decision making abilities

8. Lack of experience in implementing change

9. Psychological and social ties to the present look and behavior of the organization; strong group norms

10. A general state of satisfaction with "the way things are now"

11. Syndicates'' attitude

12. Frustration caused by complex problems posed by change; fear of uncertainty;

13. It is the leaders who want the change, so fight it!

As is clearly visible, there is much overlapping between the three described models (and many aspects in common with most models that deal with this problem). The attempt to structure the causes of resistance to change will only bring us back to what we said before: this phenomenon is caused by different elements of construction of the three levels (individual, group, organization) that make up the space of an organization's existence. Yet resistance to change does not depend solely on the way that the subjects of change are structured and function; it also depends on the change in itself.

The typology of organization change is not a subject of this chapter. Change can be classified according to form, to the way of presenting it, to the level at which it takes place, to the rhythm or the time at which it unfolds, etc. We have chosen another criterion for analyzing its influence on resistance to change, namely that of the consequences of change.

One of the greatest issues when it comes to organization change is measuring its effects. Traditionally, it is done thusly: a set of organizational indicators (such as effectiveness, satisfaction with the workplace etc) is selected, and its components are measured both before the insertion of change, as well as after. So far, nothing out of the ordinary. However, according to the research of three American specialists (Golombiewski, Billimgsley and Yeager) things are not as simple as that. They believe we are dealing with not just one, but three types of change: alpha, beta and gamma. In the case of the alpha type, the conceptual scale used by the respondents remains constant, thus making possible an accurate and precise measurement of the way variables of interest modify. As for the beta type, this

scale modified, altered, it changes shape, and benchmarks modify too. Finally, in the case of the gamma type of change, we are talking about a redefinition or reconceptualization of key variables[137]; their very framework changes, as the way in which respondents define their variables has been modified. In other words, there are three situations in which the state of the resulting variables is different. If we name the initial set of variables $\mathbf{t}$, in the alpha change we also have $\mathbf{t}$ in the following phase of change, in the beta we will have $\mathbf{t1}$, and $\mathbf{W}$ in the gamma. It is obvious that, in the last two cases, measuring the effects of change is a problem, especially in the case of gamma[138]. Yet it is not the measurement of change effects that is of interest here. What we want to emphasize is the fact that resistance to change will be different, both in form as well as in intensity, in the case of each of the three types of change. From the point of view of this one criterion, alpha will generate the lowest level of resistance, while gamma- the highest. We have no empirical data to support this statement, so that we will resort to logic: if gamma type changes modify the respondents' reference framework, it is evident that they affect what a cognitive approach would name "schemata"[139], meaning "that part of the perception cycle that is internalized by the subject, that may be modified by experience and that is, in a way, specific to what is perceived"[140], that is the matrix that gives sense and form to the experience. We are not referring to a transcendental kind of experience, but to modifying a mundane axiom, the likes of "the definition of effectiveness in my profession". We believe it is obvious that this type of change is the most difficult to accomplish and, as we are dealing with the area of values, norms and professional axioms (professional in the least, as we are not discussing the relation between profession – conception on life…), that it generates the strongest resistance to change.

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[137] Golembiewski, T. Robert- *Approaches to Planned Change* (Orienting Perspectives and Micro-Level Interventions), 1993, Transaction Publishers, New Brunswick.

[138] This typology was not to well received by the specialist community, especially by experts in organization development, who are interested in practical aspects of implementing and evaluating organization change. Golombiewski et al. suggested a technique of measuring the effects of the gamma type of change; yet its methodology is highly complex, it uses exotic statistical techniques and it is applied only to large numbers of populations, a fact which renders it inoperative in much of organizational interventions.

[139] Bartuneck, Jean M. and Moch, Michael K.- First Order, Second Order and Third Order Change and Organization Development Interventions: A Cognitive Approach, in The Journal of Applied Behavioral Sciences, vol. 22, no. 4, p. 438- 500.

[140] ibidem, p. 484.

In conclusion, we wish to analyze one other aspect of resistance to change, one other factor that influences its form and magnitude: the direction of change. Most expert literature in this field has focused on change that was performed downwards, on change that was planned and inserted by leadership. Nevertheless, there is also "upward" change, which is the result of subordinates' suggestions (any employee that attempts to influence decision makers that are higher in the hierarchy[141]). Rino Patti thinks that in these cases resistance to change is modified by four factors:

1. Nature of the change proposition (the level of generality and deepness of change)

2. The value orientation of decision makers

3. Organizational distance (number of hierarchic levels between the author of the change proposition and the decision makers regarding it)

4. The costs of change (evaluated in terms of the organization's investments in setting and building the order that the agent of change intends to modify)

An axiom of this situation may be that resistance to this type of change will be, in average, stronger than to other "regular" types suggested by leadership. The rationale is simple: for an upward change to be successful it must first be convincing and its project accepted by management; only then will it be liable for implementation. In other words, this type of change will be subject to the reaction of all resistance-generating factors that we have mentioned above, *plus* those that are specific to the phase in which the project must be approved by leadership.

All in all, one can assert that resistance to change is not an essentially negative phenomenon, as assumed by management literature, and that it is influenced by a compilation of factors that can be divided in two wide categories: the so-called "causes" of resistance to change (factors that determine individual, group and organization levels), and the form or nature of the change that generates it.

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[141] Leigh, Andrew- *Effective Change*, 1997, Institute of Personnel Management, Lodon.

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<u>Glossary of terms</u>:

<u>A</u>

<u>B</u>

<u>C</u>

<u>D</u>

Data = a certain type of information that is pursued and collected occasionally, systematically and on a regular basis in an organization, without being related in any way to the organization development/change that is applied at a certain moment in time; this information is centralized and stored in different shapes into several posts used to reach certain organizational and managerial objectives.

Differentiation = a process that explains how systems (see under S) are homeostatic in nature (see next) and at the same time become in time more elaborate, specialized and complex. The greater the difference, the greater the need to integrate and coordinate (that is, the need for leadership and management, in the case of organizations)

Dynamic homeostasis = one of the features of an open system: the system's tendency to self-preserve, to maintain its status-quo, its state of equilibrium (see Parsons's theory), once it has been reached.

The system reaches a certain state of equilibrium and tends to maintain it, against the inner or outer forces that attempt to modify it. Otherwise said, we are dealing with

<u>E</u>

Energy = a part of an open system (see under O): a human resource that – when led and managed properly – can provide a valuable intentional or willing potential that can be capitalized with an impulse given to direct it a certain way.

Equifinality = one of the features of the open system (also see under O): it represents the fact that there is no one way of attaining a certain goal or a certain stage within a system. Any given system may reach the same position through various ways, identical from this point of view, different only in their modus operandi.

F

Feedback = information that the system receives from its environment regarding its activities. There are 2 types of feedback: positive (see also under P) and negative (see also under N)

G

H

I

Information = in its strictest sense, refers – by way of complementarity – solely to information that is not pursued and centralized in the organization's everyday activity, but that is relevant in certain aspects of the organizational activity, such as that referring to the existence of formal leaders, to the actual means of communication within that organization (channels, behaviors, barriers, filters, etc.), or to organizational culture (values, beliefs, attitudes, tradition, etc.). This type of information is less 'visible' in an organization and, as a result, more difficult to identify and collect.

J

K

L

M

N

Negative feedback = type of feedback that measures the extent to which the output corresponds to the goals and objectives set. It is also known as feedback *for correcting deviation* (according to Hanna)

O

Open system = a system (see also under S) engaged in exchanges of matter, energy and information with the environment

Organization = an open system of a biological type (it is „born", it appears at a clearly defined moment in time, and progresses/regresses later on; it is able to adapt to the environment)

Organizational culture = values, beliefs, attitudes of the organization members; its tradition

Organizational Transformation (OT) = identical in theory to Organizational Development (OD); different in the fact that the changes described by OT are clearly future-oriented and/or try to change the culture of an organization by using OD methods.

P

Positive feedback = the extent to which the organization's goals and objectives correspond to the requirements of its environment. It is sometimes found under the name of feedback *for amplifying deviation* (according to Hanna)

Q

R

S

System = a set that is constituted as a whole or an identifiable gestalt, the elements of which are interdependent, interconnected, and interrelated

T

U

V

W

X

Y

Z