



MP-402

Vardhaman Mahaveer Open University, Kota

Organisational Development and Training

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Unit - 1 OD-Concept and Evolution

Structure of Unit

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- 1.8 Key Characteristics of OD
- 1.9 Summary
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1.0 Objectives

After completing this unit, you would be able to:

- Understand the concept Organizational Development
- Learn the values of Organizational Development
- Point out the importance of Organizational Development
- Know about various assumptions of OD
- Learn and appreciate the significance of OD in a an organization
- Understand the role of OD in increasing Organizational Effectiveness

1.1 Introduction

Organizations everywhere are striving to get better. Rapid technological, process changes are ensuring that it becomes a reality but one crucial aspect which can make or mar the development of an organization is the people working for it. Slowly the organizations are realizing the relative worth of employees in the organizational growth. One tool which focuses on how people and organizations function and how to make them work together for organizational success is organizational development. Every organization is a system comprising of four sub systems:

Structure: formal interactions within the organization reflected in organizational chart.

Technology: means the level of sophistication determining the work flow and performance of jobs in an organization.

People: refers to the employee or human capital

Task: refers to the set of activities to be performed

These subsystems constantly interact among each other to ascertain the success of an organization. Every organization strives to attain its set goals to survive in the dynamic business environment. The goals may vary from organization to organization but they can be broadly classified as survival, stability, profitability, growth, and service to society. Only those organizations who respond to changes posed in internal and external environment adequately will be able to achieve their goals. The external environment comprises of social, political, economic and cultural factors whereas internal environment comprises of existing structure, technology needs and expectations of its people.

OD is a systematic process for applying behavioral science principles and practices in organizations to increase individual and organizational effectiveness. Organizational Development has taken a lot of input from behavioral sciences disciplines such as psychology, social psychology, sociology, anthropology, systems theory, organization behavior, organization theory and management. Organizational Development tries to solve the business problems through people perspective, understanding individual and group dynamics, inter and intra personal conflicts, inadequacies in organizational structure, task design, coordination problems, organization's culture, climate and their implication on continuous learning process of people within the organization. It focuses on identification of the problem by the manager and then hiring an OD expert to solve it who helps in bringing the required change more smoothly without any infrastructural hiccups and non acceptance by the employees as they ensure proper adaptation of the OD interventions for the required personal, group, and organizational effectiveness.

1.2 Definitions

OD is still in its growth stage. Commonly it is said, “*Organization development* is the process through which an organization develops the internal capacity to most efficiently and effectively provide its mission work and to sustain itself over the long term. This definition highlights the explicit connection between organizational development work and the achievement of organizational mission”. This connection is the rationale for doing OD work. This definition tries to explain the importance of collective efforts of people and the organizational structure to attain the organizational objectives with the help of continuous improvement through constant learning with the help of various OD interventions.

Organization development, according to Richard Beckhard, is defined as: “A planned effort, organization-wide, managed from the top, to increase organization effectiveness and health, through planned interventions in the organization's 'processes', using behavioral science knowledge.” This definition focuses on the importance of OD being a long term joint effort instead of confining it to HR department.

According to Warren Bennis, *organization development* (OD) is a complex strategy intended to change the beliefs, attitudes, values, and structure of organizations so that they can better adapt to new technologies, markets, and challenges. Bennis focuses on the

psychological barriers i.e. non acceptance to change by the employees, breaking it down constructively and aligning their individual goals with organizational goals.

Warner Burke emphasizes that OD is not just "anything done to better an organization"; it is a particular kind of change process designed to bring about a particular kind of end result. OD involves organizational reflection, system improvement, planning, and self-analysis. The term "Organization Development" is often used interchangeably with Organizational effectiveness, especially when used as the name of a department or a part of the Human Resources function within an organization.

OD effects change chiefly, though not exclusively, through education. OD expands people's ideas, beliefs and behaviors so that they can apply new approaches to old problems. But even more importantly, OD change efforts go beyond employee training interventions and concentrate on the workgroup or organization in which new ideas, beliefs or behaviors are to be applied (French, Bell & Zawacki, 1994).

1.3 Evolution of Organization Development

Organization Development gained prominence as an established field in 1960s although nobody can clearly identify how and who was behind its origin sequentially with absolute certainty. But it is said to have been coined to compile the works of behavioral scientists such as Robert Blake and Jane Mouton, Herbert Shepard, Douglas McGregor and Richard Beckhard who were working in different organizations around the same period on the behavioral aspects of employees and the effect of organizational structure on them leading to personal and organizational effectiveness. The name was propounded to distinguish the relative importance of OD from other contemporary approaches.

However Organizational Development has taken a lot from the various principles of Fredrick W Taylor who in 1911 gave 'Principles of Scientific Management' which are considered as the backbone of modern management field. He emphasized on the adoption of scientific methods to improve work efficiency and employee productivity and started the process of streamlining the production process. He proposed "time and motion studies" and "focused on specialization and standardization of work", to correct the problems related to the employees everyday work among the employees and develop the best methods of doing every job leading to optimum results. Its application illustrated the positive impact of examination and deliberate intervention by external experts in the work processes of organizations on human efficiency and productivity.

In the next stage, the behavioral scientists advanced the field by studying the social and psychological aspects of the work context. The findings of Hawthorne experiments around 1930 focused on the emotional aspect of employees the study suggested that simple yet repetitive tasks left employees demotivated and they tend to loose interest in work due to it. They found that work had lost much of its intrinsic meaning due to mechanization, thus leading to more emphasis on social relationships on the job rather than work relationship. Hence employees were more responsive to the peer pressure rather than the incentives offered by the management for motivation or constant supervision by the management. This opened up the possibility of focusing on group and

social dynamics of the employees and emphasized that the organizations HR policies should revolve around employee's needs for belonging, acceptance and a sense of identity instead of focusing fully on monetary incentives.

Gradually employee well being, social relationships at workplace and organization culture gained prominence with the realization that change in organization culture implies permanent change. (McLean 2006). According to Schien's cultural iceberg (1998), culture has been identified as the most intractable element in organizational change. The problem arose because the behaviors are implicit and unapproachable to the supervisors thus cannot be altered easily for the benefits of the organization. Therefore, the challenge facing OD consultants was to understand the underlying assumptions, beliefs and values in order to bring a permanent change in the client's system with the help of OD interventions.

The entire continuum of developments in OD interventions till date can be classified into three generations. The primary targets and impetus for change act as the distinguishing characteristics across generations. First generation's area of focus has been individual and small groups whereas second and third generations focus on the entire organization. First generation seeks to fulfill internal needs whereas second and third generations emphasize fulfillment of external needs. Despite the common thrust on transforming the total organization, second and third generations differ in their perspectives on organization's past. Second generation endorses the view that the past has to be discarded to ensure organizations success in future. But, third generation advocates that past can play an instrumental role in organizations present and success of future initiatives. Participation also lends a distinctive hue to every generation. Participation in first generation was oriented toward open-ended exploration and greater acceptance of decisions among employees. In the second and third generation, the participation was intended at incorporating the knowledge of organizational members and disseminating learning within the organization.

- **First Generation OD:** It deals with the adaptive, incremental change in the organizations. The primary focus of this generation was on the micro aspects of the organizations like an individual or a small team. It strove to improve the functioning of the organizational groups within a preexisting framework for action without paying attention to the organization's past.
- **Second Generation OD:** It deals with macro-aspects of organizations to help them respond effectively to the external needs in terms of competitors, technology, stakeholders etc. it pays explicit attention to the organizations environment and organization's alignment with it. This generation took cognizance of the impact of leadership on organizational change.
- **Third Generation OD:** It focuses on large scale changes and transformation in organizations. However, its distinction lies in the emphasis it places on the past as opposed to the other organizational transformation approaches which advocate discarding the past. The interventions of this generation build on the ideas and successful interventions from previous generations.

1.4 Values, Assumptions and Beliefs

A set of values, assumptions and beliefs constitutes an integral part of organizational development. They are the three pillars on which the whole field of Organizational Development is standing. Thus identifying and developing the goals and methods for organizational effectiveness help in distinguishing Organizational Development from other improvement strategies. A belief is a proposition about how the world works that the individual accepts as true; it is a cognitive fact for the person. Values are also beliefs and are defined as: “Beliefs about what is desirable or ‘good’ (e.g. free speech) and what is an undesirable or a ‘bad’ (e.g. dishonesty).” Assumptions are beliefs that are regarded as so valuable and obviously correct that they are taken for granted and rarely examined or questioned.

OD values are humanistic, optimistic and democratic by nature. Humanistic values main focus is on the importance of the individual: it focuses on respecting the whole person instead of dividing him/her into compartments as done till now by the management, stresses on treating people with respect and dignity, is built on the fundamental that everyone has intrinsic worth, and views all people as having the probability for growth and development if provided the right environment and opportunities in the organization. Optimistic values stresses that people are basically good by nature who believe in personal growth thus progress is possible and desirable in human affairs and that rationality; reason and goodwill are the tools for making progress. Basically it believes in Theory Y of Motivation. Democratic values asserts that the integrity of the individual, the right of people to be free from submission and arbitrary misuse of power by them and their bosses, the importance of fair and equitable treatment internally and externally for all and the need for justice through the rule of proper grievance handling machinery, employee empowerment, sound industrial relations.

1.4.1 Early Work on OD Values and Assumptions

Values have always been an integral part of OD. According to Bennis and Beckhard OD practitioners (change agents) share a set of normative goals based on their humanistic/democratic philosophy. Bennis listed following normative goals in 1960:

1. Improvement in interpersonal competence
2. A shift in values so that human factors and feelings come to be considered legitimate.
3. Development of increased understanding between and within working groups in order to reduce tensions.
4. Development of more effective team management that is the capacity for functional groups to work more competently.
5. Development of better methods of conflict resolution. Rather than the usual bureaucratic methods which rely mainly on suppression, compromise and unprincipled power, more rational and open methods of conflict resolution are sought

6. Development of organic rather than mechanical systems. This is a strong reaction against the idea of organizations as mechanisms which managers “work on”, like pushing buttons.

Bennis clarified some of the salient differences between mechanical; systems. (The earlier work by Tom Burns and G M Stalker used the term “mechanistic” in contrast to “mechanical.”) For example mechanical systems rely on “authority-obedience relationships” while organic systems rely on mutual confidence and trust.” Mechanical systems insist on “strict division of labor and hierarchical supervision” while organic systems foster “multi group membership and responsibility.” Mechanical systems encourage “centralized decision making” while organic systems encourage “wide sharing of responsibility and control.”

He further explains that the basic value underlying all organizations development theory and practice is that of choice. Through focused attention and through the collection and feedback of relevant data to relevant people, more choices become available and hence better decisions are made.

Richard Beckhard in his book, “Several Assumptions about the Nature and Functioning of Organizations” has described OD:

1. The basic building blocks of organizations are groups (teams). Therefore the basic units of change are groups, not individuals
2. An always relevant change goal is the reduction of inappropriate competition between parts of the organization and the development of a more collaborative condition.
3. Decision making in a healthy organizations is located where the information sources are rather than in a particular role or level of hierarchy.
4. Organizations subunits of organizations and individuals continuously manage their affairs against goals. Controls are interim measurements not the basis of managerial strategy
5. One goal of a healthy organization is to develop generally open communication, mutual trust and confidence between and across levels
6. “People support what they help create.” People affected by a change must be allowed active participation and a sense of ownership in the planning and conduct of the change

According to Robert Tannenbaum, Professor at UCLA and Sheldon Davis, Director of Organization Development at TRW Systems an important shift in values was occurring and that this shift signaled a more appropriate and accurate view of people in organizations. Beliefs such as trust and respect for the individual, the legitimacy of feelings, open communication, decentralized decision making, participation and contribution by all organization members, collaboration and cooperation, appropriate uses of power, authentic interpersonal relations and so forth were seldom espoused and rarely implemented in the vast majority of organizations at that time.

They thought most OD practitioners held these humanistic and democratic values with their implications for different and “better” ways to run organizations and deal with people. The democratic values prompted a critique of authoritarian, autocratic and arbitrary management practices as well as the dysfunctions of bureaucracies. The humanistic values prompted a search for better ways to run organizations and develop the people in them.

1.4.2 Objectives of OD

The objectives of Organizational Development are as follows:

1. Effective Organizational Development leads to improved organizational performance which can be indicated through profitability, market share, innovativeness etc.
2. Helps in making organization more adaptable to the dynamic environment.
3. Makes the employees more receptive to organizational changes.
4. Improvement in internal behavior patterns such as interpersonal relations, inter group relations, level of trust and support among role members.

1.5 Implications of OD Values and Assumptions

Some of the implications of OD assumptions and values for dealing with individuals, groups and organizations are as follows:

Implications for Dealing with Individuals

The two basic assumptions about dealing with individuals in organizations to execute organizations development are as follows:

The first assumption states that most individuals want to work towards personal growth and development if provided with the right environment that has both supportive management and challenging work. Most people want to fully utilize their potential and excel at their work place.

The second assumption states that most people aspire to make and are capable of making, a greater contribution towards attaining organization goals than most organizational environments permit. The organizations can gain tremendously if they work on this assumption and workout means to tap this energy constructively. The employees usually know a lot about their work and only need the right amount of push from the organizations and better working environment to excel. The implications of these two assumptions are straightforward: Ask, listen, support, challenge, encourage risk taking, permit failure, remove obstacles and barriers, give autonomy, give responsibility, set high standards and reward success.

Implications for Dealing with Groups

There are several assumptions that relate to the importance of work teams and the collaborative development and management of team culture for organizational benefit.

Firstly one of the most psychologically relevant reference groups for most employees is their immediate work group, including peers and boss. What undergoes in the work group at both the formal and informal levels greatly influences the feelings of job satisfaction and competence utilization among the employees.

Second assumption states that most people wish to be accepted by their peers and to interact constructively with at least one small reference group and usually with more than one group such as work group, the family or club group and so on.

Third assumption is based on the notion that most people are capable of making greater contributions to a group's effectiveness and development. Implications of these assumptions are several. Let teams flourish because they are often the best way to get work done and, in addition are the best way to satisfy social and emotional needs at work. Also leaders should invest in groups. Invest the time required for group development, invest training time and money to increase group members' skills, invest energy and intelligence in creating a positive climate. It is especially important that leaders adopt a team leadership style, not a one on one leadership style. To do this leader need to give important work to teams not individuals.

Fourth assumption is that it is not possible for the appointed leader to perform all the leadership and maintenance functions required for a group to optimize its effectiveness. Hence group members should also assist the leader in accomplishment of the multiple roles required to be performed optimally for group effectiveness. One implication is that group members should receive training in group effectiveness skills such as conflict resolution, group problem solving and decision making, facilitation and development of interpersonal communication dynamics in the group. And because suppressed feelings and attitudes adversely affect problem solving, personal growth and job satisfaction, group members should be encouraged to learn to deal effectively with positive and negative feelings. This skill is a trainable one. Dealing appropriately with feelings and attitudes increases the level of interpersonal trust, support and cooperation within the group.

Finally, the assumption is that many attitudinal and motivational problems in organizations require interactive and transactional solutions. Such problems have the greatest chance of constructive solution if all parties in the system alter their mutual relationships. The question becomes not how A can get B to perform better, but how A and B can work together to modify their interactions toward the goal of B becoming more effective and also A and B becoming more mutually effective. Frequently the challenge is broader, including how persons C, D, and E can support these changes. By implication, this group perspective requires a shift from viewing problems as "within the problem person" to viewing problems and solutions as transactional and as embedded in a system.

Implications for Designing and Running Organizations

Traditional hierarchical forms of organizations which are bureaucratic with fairly steep pyramid, emphasizes on top-down flow of authority, communication and power, grouping of organizational tasks according to specialized function, adherence to the rigid chain of command, formalized cross-functional communication to name a few cannot be

considered as an accepted form of management anymore they are obsolete. They cannot meet the changing demands of the marketplace, customers and work process changes as they require constant learning not possible in this style of management. Making it imperative for the organizations to constantly experiment with new organization structures and new forms of authority and customize it according to the organization. In addition a growing awareness that “win-lose are dysfunctional over the long run and highlight the need for a “win-win” policy. Creating cooperative rather than competitive organizational dynamics is a primary task of the organizational leaders.

A key assumption in organization development is that the needs and aspirations of human beings are the reasons for organized effort in society not profit generation which is only a byproduct of this process. This modern outlook suggests it is good to have a learning organization and provide opportunities in the organization where people can attain personal and professional growth. Such an orientation creates a self- fulfilling prophecy. People oriented style of management leads to better results rather than focusing on production based management. Through this an optimistic, developmental set of assumptions can be built through which people are likely to reap rewards beneficial to both the organization and its employees.

Finally it is possible to create organization that on the one hand are humane, developmental and empowering and on the other hand are focused on high performing individuals in terms of productivity, quality of output and profitability. Evidence for this assumption comes from numerous examples where “putting people first” paid off handsomely in profits and performance. The implication is that people are an organization’s most important resource; they are the source of productivity and profits and should be treated with care.

1.6 Models of Organizational Development

It is imperative for the organization to sustain itself to continuously upgrade which is not possible without bringing changes in the organization. This process is known as change management. There are various models in Organization development for bringing the change but the most prevalent are three. They are:

Kurt Lewins Change Model

Every organization in order to survive itself in the dynamic business environment has to constantly adapt and reinvent itself or it will perish. But the employees who are accustomed to old ways do not readily accept new methods because they fear whether they will be able to survive in the new work environment or not. Thus whenever any organization tries to introduce any kind of change they face a lot of resistance which can make the entire change process cumbersome and unfruitful. It is very essential for the organization to first prepare itself for change before implementing it.

Lewin’s model is based on the principle that every organization remains in a state of equilibrium and preparing the organization for change means disturbing the equilibrium

of the organization. Thus the change agents (people who introduce the change) should ensure that they are able to generate motivation among employees to learn about the change i.e. unfreezing. This stage ensures proper communication to employees regarding the benefits of new processes or systems, their role in this new set up and how can they adapt themselves to this new system through various trainings. The next stage is known as changing in which the change is introduced i.e. new or modified response to solve the organization problems. The organization reaches a new state of equilibrium.

The organization then stabilizes itself at this new position or new equilibrium this is known as refreezing. It refers to the process of stabilizing and integrating the change into behavioral patterns, interpersonal relationships, and individual personalities.

Unfreezing- Changing- Freezing model

Stage1. Unfreezing: Some trigger such as falling profitability, poor product or service performance, declining market share or an announcement of reorganization upsets the balance. In other words, some environmental change causes a degree of internal change. As a consequence the existing management recipe of what the business is all about and how it should be run is challenged. This is the first stage of organizational change and Lewin (1951) calls it **unfreezing**. This is a step where motivation for change is created and awareness for the need for change is identified. Whether it's an individual, group, or organization, there is usually some sort of gap between the current state and the ideal state. Without tapping into motivation and need for change, receptivity to change will not be present. Resistance to change must be addressed.

Stage2. Changing/ movement: At this stage diagnosis is made, solutions are identified, and new behavior is tested to make changes toward an ideal state. When the organization's balance is upset it causes confusion and people search for new management recipes. This is the second stage of organizational change, called reformulation / Changing/ movement. It comes to an end once a new management recipe has been identified, one that is believed to match the change environment.

Stage3. Re-Freezing: Stabilizing and integrating the change by reinforcing the new behaviors and integrating them into formal and interpersonal relationships and in one's personality. The third stage is **re-freezing**, in which people are converted and persuaded to accept the new recipe. The organization then returns once more to the harmony and stability characterized by people all sharing the same culture. If the organization is to survive, this new recipe must be one that is more appropriate to the changed environment. Change happens in this step with behaviors implemented and reinforced until they become habitual. Unfortunately, this step is often overlooked. Just because change is introduced does not mean that the change is permanent. To refreeze implies that the OD practitioner identifies and builds into the change management plans how change will be sustained.

Larry Griener's Model

Larry believed that change can be implemented sequentially in an organization. The change process is spearheaded through either external sources or the willingness of top management. The stages of intervention by a change agent are:

1. Diagnosis of the problem areas
2. Invention of a new solution to the problem
3. Experimentation with new solutions i.e. implementing it and obtaining the outcomes due to it
4. Reinforcement from positive results

Leavitt's model

This model is based on the principle that all the subsystems within the organization work in coordination during the change process. The subsystems of organization are:

- Task
- Structure
- People
- Technology

Since all four of them are interrelated any change in one subsystem has impact on the remaining three. Thus before introducing any change in the subsystem the change agents should study its impact on other subsystems and make provisions accordingly. The planned change may be interpersonal training of the required sort or technological change or structural modification or task modification.

1.7 Phases of Organizational Development

Organizational Development is a cyclical process working towards continuous organizational improvement. According to Burke one cycle of OD consists of seven distinct phases.

Entry: This is the preliminary stage in which the client i.e. the organization approaches a consultant i.e. a change agent because he wants to find a solution to the problem being faced. It is a decisive phase in which the client and consultant analyze the various aspects of the problems and the environmental conditions. They mutually come to a solution to rectify the problem. But if the client feels the consultant will not be a right fit for the organization they can end the contract therein and look for another consultant. The introduction of a consultant indicates that the organization has a problem and the client has perceived it and wants to solve it.

Contracting: The next phase is the signing of a contract by the client and consultant who has been drafted mutually, states the terms and conditions of the agreement. The basic objective is to make everything clear and weed out any ambiguity so that both parties know about the roles and responsibilities. The contract also states the terms and conditions of termination of the contract if required.

Diagnosis: As the name denotes this phase involves finding out the various aspects related to the problem keeping the organizations structure, policies, culture, systems and

processes into consideration. The focus is on collaboration of data mutually at the same time maintaining confidentiality of the respondents. The diagnosis process is a scientific process to provide more credibility to the process.

Feedback: This phase involves providing the client all the data and its analysis so that they get a sense of ownership and work more willingly to diffuse the problem. The consultant should present the data in a non defensive and non reactive environment. It helps the organization to absorb, scan and imbibe the information constructively.

Planning Change: This is the action phase in which the client and consultant through the alternatives, weigh all of them against the situations and then zero down on an intervention to correct the problem. They chart out suitable action plan to achieve the desired changes rather than implementing the chosen action.

Intervention: This phase involves implementation of the action plan through interventions. According to French and Bell 'Interventions are sets of structured patterns of activities in which members of the target organizations or unit engaged in activities related directly or indirectly to organizational improvement. It is the most crucial phase because this phase determines if all the diagnosis and planning was accurate or not. All the activities are done according to the pre decided action plan.

Evaluation: The last phase involves evaluation of the results to find out the gaps if any between the actual and desired changes. The entire cycle is repeated to get the desired results.

1.8 Key Characteristics of OD

Despite of various behaviorists varied theories and definition regarding OD the only aspect on which most of them are on consensus are the characteristics of OD. The key characteristics are as follows:

Applied Behavioral Science

OD has borrowed a lot of concept from psychology, sociology, anthropology, political science and organizational behavior.

Systems Context: As explained above OD follows the principle that one change in one subsystem leads to change in other subsystems. This gives emphasis to the fact that organizations are affected by their external and internal environment and cannot function in seclusion.

Humanistic Field: OD follows the basic values of humanities and democracy i.e. OCTAPACE wherein : O stands for Openness, C confrontation, T trust, A authenticity, P proactivity, A autonomy, C collaboration and E experimentation.

Participatory approach to building clients capability: The consultant knows that to ensure a long term sustainable solution to the problem it is essential that the clients are equally involved at every stage and are well equipped with the help of various interventions to ensure the changes are sustained even after he exits.

Normative- Reductive strategy: The strategy focuses on reconstruction of norms because social norms are the most important reinforces of human behavior. Thus it is essential to reconstruct them and reeducate the employees about them so that they can adopt them.

Cyclical Approach to sustainable Change: As mentioned above OD is a continuous cyclical process where the organization keeps on coming across problems new behaviors which lead to new problems leading to new solutions in the system.

Helping and Collaborative relationship with Clients: The consultant focuses on working closely with the client and helps them in developing problem solving skills so that they can execute the changes even when the consultant is not there. Thus consultant functions more as a facilitator.

Organizational Effectiveness: The main goal of OD is improving organizational effectiveness through interventions which can be individual or organizational interventions leading to individual and organizational development.

1.9 Summary

The field of organization development draws heavily from various behavioral sciences and stresses on bringing organizational change through behavioral changes in employees and organizational structure. Done with the help of various change agents known as organizational strategists it rests on a foundation of values and assumptions about people and organizations. These beliefs help to define what OD is and guide its implementation. This chapter focuses on developing an appreciation of OD values and explains where they came from and why organizations should focus on them. These OD values were considered revolutionary when they emerged in the 1950s but are widely accepted today.

1.12 Self Assessment Questions

1. What do you understand by values in an organization?
2. Discuss the various stages OD has crossed to develop in a field as we see it today
3. Discuss the three generations of OD in your own words
4. Discuss the relevance and importance of OD in today's organizations?
5. According to you of the various definitions given of OD given above which one is most apt for your organization and why?

1.13 Reference Books

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Unit - 2 : OD Process and Interventions

Unit Structure:

- 2.0 Objectives
- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Process of OD
- 2.3 OD Interventions
- 2.4 Summary
- 2.5 Self Assessment Questions
- 2.6 Reference Books

2.0 Objectives

After reading this unit you will be able to understand:

- The meaning of Organizational Development Process & Its Importance
- The Process of OD
- Lewin's Model of Change
- Six Box Model of OD
- The interventions of OD with its purpose, elements and barriers

2.1 Introduction

The process of OD refers to the way it works for achieving its objectives. It takes times from identification of the problem to the level of implementation of the complete strategy to bring planned change. OD Process is based on the action research model which begins with an identified problem or need for change. The process proceeds through assessment, planning of an intervention, implementing the intervention, gathering data to evaluate the intervention, and determining if satisfactory progress has been made or if there is need for further intervention. The process is cyclical and ends when the desired developmental result is obtained. A systematic way where a company defines organizes and implements its operations through the stages of the product life cycle. The stages includes: Diagnosis, Intervention and Evaluation.

How one undertakes a project, how one plans for it, and how the people affected are engaged by it are as important as the outcome. The process is critical to the long-term success of the project and the long-term health of the organization. Each project leaves an organizational legacy in its wake. OD process will provide better impact in achievement towards an organization's goals, increasing trend to maximize an organization's investment in its employees. Organizations need to work smarter and apply creative ideas. Employees expect more from a day's work customers demand continually improving quality.

2.3 Process of OD

OD process starts with the perception of the problem at the top level which compels to feel a need for a change. This situation calls for the help of facilitator to be reckoned with internal source or external source. This source known as a change agent calls for intervention. The change agent involves data collection related to the problem. Data may be collected by interview method, questionnaire method or observation. Generally a mix of them is used for data collection. The following process of OD is followed for OD activity in an organization:

The process of Organizational Development comprises of follows steps and they are:-

1. **Initial Diagnosis:** In view of inadequacies being felt competent professionals are handed over the task of OD who chalks out the OD programme. The services of outside change agents/consultants are preferred to get away from personal prejudices. Internal records of the organization, direct observations and discussion with people help to diagnose the problem. Before appropriate action can be taken, the problem is defined and all its aspects are examined. To diagnose the problem: identify the problem; determine what must be changed to resolve it; and determine what objectives are expected from the change (and how they can be measured). The initial diagnosis refers to finding the inadequacies within the organization that can be corrected by OD activities then it is necessary to find out the professionally competent persons within organization to plan and execute OD activities. The outside consultants can be also employed to help in diagnosing the problems and diagnosing OD activities. The consultants adopt various methods and that primarily includes interviews, questionnaires, direct observation, analysis of documents and reports for diagnosing the problem.

2. **Data Collection:** Data pertaining to the problem area of an organization are collected through survey method. Data may be related to organizational climate and individual's behavioral aspects. These data forms the basis of diagnosis of the problem. Top executives are consulted by the consultant for subsequent action. Any standardized diagnostic procedure may cover the following aspects of data:

- Background variables related to structural factors (design, technology etc.), process factors like Managerial practices and employee factors (attitude, perception etc.).
- Organisational variables
- Consequential variables.

The survey method is employed to collect the data for determining organizational climate. It also helps in identifying the behavioral problems that are rising in the organization.

3. **Data Feedback:** The collected data are analyzed and reviewed by various work groups that are formed for this purpose. It is done in order to intervene in the areas of disagreement or confrontation of ideas or opinions.

4. **Selection of Interventions and feedback:** The next stage in the process is to propose to the organization for developmental activities and identify appropriate intervention

activities. Interventions are the planned activities which are introduced into the system to accomplish desired changes and improvements. At this stage suitable interventions are to be selected and designed interventions are to be implemented steadily as the process is not a one shot activity the interventions can be described as the planned activities that are introduced into the system to achieve desired changes and improvements. The suitable interventions are to be selected and designed at this stage. The intervention is the procedure the OD consultant uses, after diagnosing an organizational situation and providing feedback to management, to address an organization problem or positive future. Feedback is supplied to a large number of executives for their comments. Planned action is continued to a given sub-system level and greater participation of the members at that level is obtained. Once the data are discussed, problem identified, alternative courses of action evaluated and specific interventions suggested the consultant lays a supportive role to help the client to be fully geared to the development process.

5. Implementation of Interventions: The selected intervention should be implemented progressively as the process is not a one shot, quick cure for organizational problems. Consequently, it achieves real and lasting change in the attitudes and behavior of employees.

6. Action Planning and Problem Solving: Groups prepare recommendations and specific action planning to solve the specific and identified problems by using the collected data. The consultants encourage the employees throughout the process to form into groups and teams by explaining the advantages of the team building. The consultants also encourage the inter-group meetings, interaction etc. in the team members.

7. Team Building: The consultants explain the advantages of the teams in OD process and encourage the employees throughout the process to form into groups and teams.

8. Inter-group Development

After the formation of groups/teams, the consultants encourage the inter-group meetings, interaction etc.

9. Evaluation and follow up: After the intervention has been carried out it is necessary to evaluate its effectiveness. This entails gathering data, discussing the obtained information with the client, checking against the target outcomes and planning for corrective actions, if necessary. The organization should evaluate the OD programmes and should find out their utility, and develop the programmes further for correcting the deviations. The consultants make great significance to the organization in this respect. The entire steps in the OD processes should be followed by the organization in order to derive full range of OD benefits. OD work must include a high degree of accountability for results. Processes, results, successes and failures should be measured and documented. Progress of implementation as reflected in data associated with indicators should be monitored and adjustments should be made as needed. Careful monitoring and evaluation of the results of OD programmes provide feedback regarding what is going on. When any discrepancy appears between what is intended and what is happening, the change agent goes back almost to the first step that is problem identification and diagnosis.

2.3 OD Interventions

An OD intervention can be defined as the set of structured activities in which selected organizational units (target groups or individuals) engage with a task or sequence of tasks that are directly or indirectly related to organizational development. The OD strategy can be defined as an overall plan for integrating different organizational improvement activities over a period of time to accomplish objectives.

2.3.1 Purposes of OD Interventions

Organizations apply interventions for many purposes. The following key points have been recognized--

- Performance and Productivity Improvement
- Improving Employee and Organizational Effectiveness
- To foster open communication, trust and confidence in intra group and inter-group relationships. This may involve changing mindsets and perceptions that would come into play as group influences.
- To encourage participative management by increasing employee involvement and participation in the management process. (Likert, 1967 proposed frameworks for organizational effectiveness based on which he recognized these four management systems: 1. Exploitative Authoritative, 2. Benevolent Authoritative, 3. Consultative, and 4. Participative).

1. External Forces for Change

The following external factors are known to trigger significant changes and corresponding OD interventions- Globalization, Economic and Market conditions, Technology changes, Competition, Government policies, Industry practices, Rules and regulations.

2. Internal Causes for OD Intervention

Internally, there are positive or negative factors that can lead to Change Intervention as listed below.

- i. ***Crisis***: An organization facing a crisis has to take firm action to manage it in a short time frame. Thus crises act as a powerful though undesirable change driver.
- ii. ***Reduction in Performance and Productivity***: A decrease in these factors including reduced revenue that adversely impact profitability can alert the management to various problems. It can force the management to take initiatives for example- cost-cutting measures, identifying new revenue streams, improving sales and marketing operations or diagnosing and correcting other internal problem sources.
- iii. ***Discoveries and Innovation***: discovery can also trigger intervention, as one would expect to standardize and market the innovation.
- iv. ***Human Resource and Workforce factors***: Employee related changes may be initiated to curb attrition, retain talented employees and develop employee relations.

3. Other Causes for OD Intervention

These are also regarded in this paper as internal causal factors, though not as high impact as those listed above; and in some cases they are ineffective as the change may not happen.

I. Abnormal Environmental Dynamics

Consider highly dysfunctional work environments characterized by- Low performance, friction and negativity, with uncontrollable or disruptive processes. In a dynamic work environment, conditions approaching the above state would be observed, assessed and corrected promptly.

II. Legitimate Change Coalitions in the Organization

Modern business environments are more encouraging of employees who want to “speak out” about problems. Rather than enforcing a culture of fear they want to improve communication. In progressive cases, Management may even work in parallel to evolve solutions to employee problems and institutionalize them. In spite of these growing positive trends, it is not uncommon to find instances of problems getting ignored completely; or attempts for change encountering negative reactions.

In cases where change resistance is high and change is not allowed, groups and individuals may be forced to fall back on other unplanned options. A contemporary situation considered here, is when they form coalitions or informal groups, and agitate or push for the changes they want through legitimate political tactics. This refers to political actions as well as work tasks, all of which may be regarded as relevant criteria toward getting the organization to make the required change.

An individual may push for change (i) alone; alternatively, resort to (ii) radical or illegitimate behavior. In the (i) individual case unless a coalition is formed in due course, the individual may give up the change attempt or continue alone. The individual tends to be an ineffective change trigger, with exceptions while the (ii) radical variation would be actively discouraged and hence short-lived.

It is mainly the legitimate change coalitions that are allowed to survive in the organization. But there may not be much organizational support for the changes they seek. Since it is not regarded as an official or formal change mechanism, and usually has no direct involvement from Management, the view held in this paper is that it may not lead to any tangible change, especially in cases where the support is low.

The difference between types of change coalitions should be clarified. In general, coalitions are known as informal and temporary groups that may get formed for different purposes. They may work on change projects including initiatives driven and supported by top Management. They are expected to work toward the change while overcoming resistance.

In contrast, the change coalitions considered in this situation are groups with less power and influence; who start with no direct support for their initiatives; making it necessary for them to agitate for change, constructively.

The above situation can be found in a variety of environments ranging from dysfunctional to those having moderate-to-highly efficient management processes and controls.

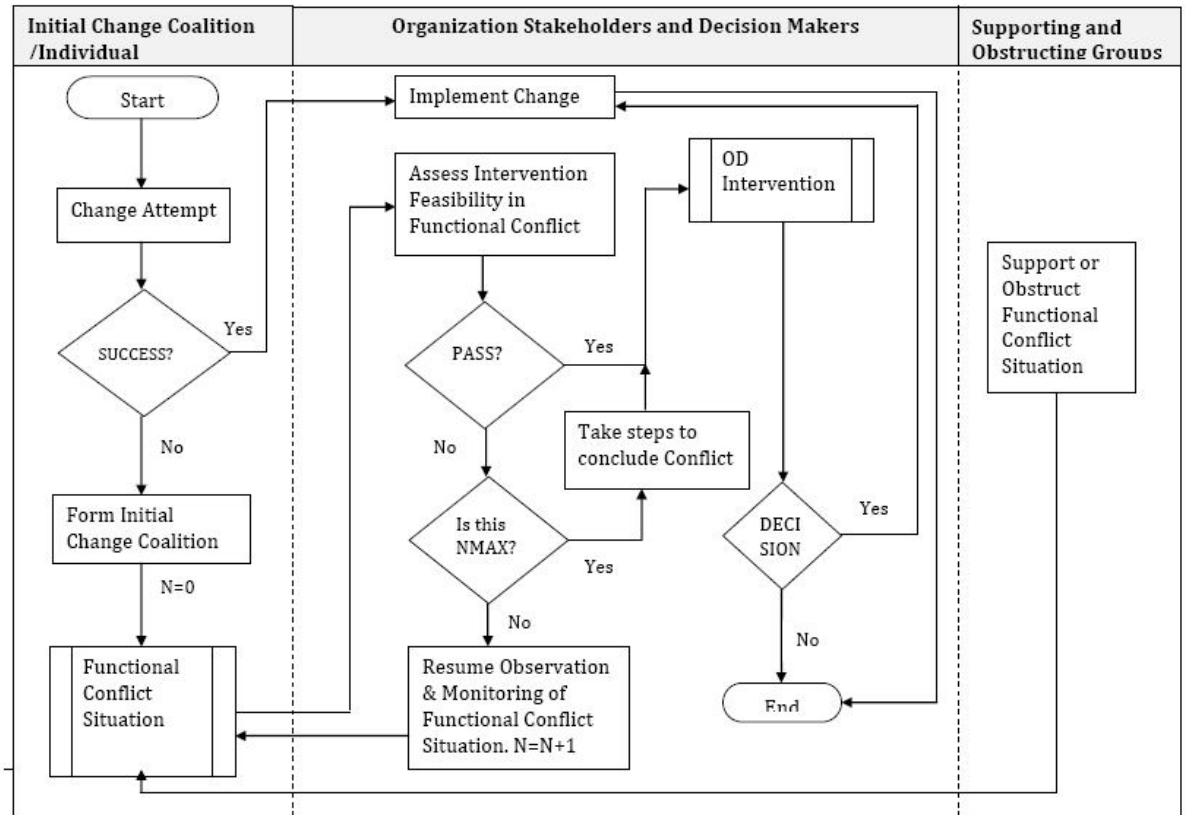


Figure 2.1 OD Intervention Process

2.3.2 Elements of OD Intervention

The following elements can be found in a typical Intervention Process-

- 1. Change Agent(s)** - the Change Agent is the *Intervener*. This resource may initiate the change program. Or can be introduced at any point to assess the effects of a change program or to implement parts of a planned change exercise. In case Internal or External Consultants are involved, they may act as Change Agents in the process.
- 2. Change or Intervention Target(s)** - “Who does it seek to change?”
- 3. Organization stakeholder(s)** - the organization leader(s) and sponsor(s) involved in this OD technique as initiators and decision makers.
- 4. Client System-** Depending on the scope of intervention this can refer to the organization hosting the intervention and more specifically, the environment in which it is held. “Where does it take place?”
- 5. Intervention Goal(s)** - “What does it achieve or accomplish?”

6. Intervention Participant(s) - At the group level, this would include participants in the process such as individual(s) and work teams; and the organization Management who play an active part in the process.

7. Units of Change- This would answer the question, “At what level does the Change intervention work?” For example, the change can be aimed at the work team as a unit.

2.4.3 Intervention of OD: Techniques and Types

1) Robert Blake & Mouton the pioneers of Grid OD, classify OD interventions in the following categories.

Theory Interventions: Theory and concepts especially in the area of Applied Behavioral Science are used to explain the behavior and the underlying assumptions. This provides a suitable background for understanding some of the behavioral processes emerging during the interventions.

Discrepancy Interventions: Many a times a contradiction, discrepancy or gap is observed in the behavior and / or attitude of the people in the organization. In such situations, discrepancy interventions are used to focus attention and exhibit the matter.

Procedural Interventions: Such interventions focus on the critical appraisal of systems and procedures indicating how something is being done. This is aimed at examining whether the best methods / systems have been used.

Relationship Interventions: Inter-personal relationships are crucial in the organizational processes. Such interventions focus on analyzing the relationships and evolving ways and means to create conducive relationships.

Experimentation: Before taking a final decision, the proposed changes are tested for knowing their consequences in a small area. The decisions may be modified or retained after reviewing the results/ outcomes.

Dilemma Interventions: In dilemma interventions, an imposed or emergent dilemma is used to enable close examination of the possible alternatives involved and the assumptions underlying them.

Perspective Interventions: These are aimed at drawing attention away from immediate actions and demands, and allow a look at the historical background, context and future objectives in order to assess whether or not the actions are still functional.

Organizational Structure Interventions: By examination and evaluation, structural causes for organizational ineffectiveness are identified and suitable interventions made under such interventions.

Cultural Interventions: Such interventions help in examining the traditions, precedents and practices existing in the organization’s culture and appropriate efforts are made to bring desired changes.

2) Blake & Mouton further developed a typology called Consulcube, a 100- cell cube depicting all consultation situations.

The three dimensions of the cube are —

- **What the consultant does:**— the type of interventions consultants use:
 - Interventions used to give client a sense of worth, value, acceptance and support - acceptant.
 - Interventions for helping the client generate data and information in order to restructure the client's perceptions - catalytic.
 - Interventions for pointing out the value / attitudinal discrepancies in the client's beliefs and actions - confrontation.
 - The interventions telling the client what to do to solve the problem - prescription.
 - Interventions used for teaching the client relevant behavioral science theory so that the client can learn to diagnose and solve his or her own problems.
- **The focal issues causing the client's problems.**
 - Power - authority
 - Morale / cohesion
 - Norms / Standards of conduct
 - Goals and objectives etc.
- **The targets of change**
 - Individual
 - Group
 - Inter group
 - Organization and larger social systems.

The OD interventions are interrelated and overlapping in nature. No two interventions are alike and there is no single OD method capable of serving all the possible objectives of an organization. Primarily the OD Interventions can be classified in the context of components of our organization like structure related, task-technology related and people related interventions. (Fig 2.2 and Table 2.1)

Major Interventions Techniques

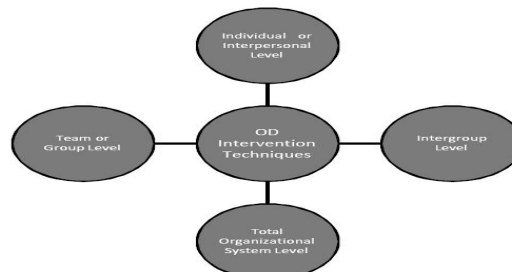


Figure 2.2 Levels of Interventions

Types of OD Interventions

Category	Individual	Team	Intergroup	Total Organizational System
Behavioral	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Laboratory Planning 2. Career Planning 3. Stress Management 4. Managerial Grid 5. MBO 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Team Building 2. Process Consultation 3. Quality Control 4. Role Negotiation 5. Role Analysis 6. Third Party Interventions 7. Goal Setting 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Intergroup Dev 2. Third Party Intervention 3. Organization Mirror 4. Third Party Consultation 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Goal Setting 2. Survey Research & Feedback 3. Action Research 4. Total Quality Management 5. Reengineering
Structural	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Job Enrichment 2. Stress Management 3. MBO 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Job Enrichment 2. Team building 3. Role Negotiation 4. Self Managed Work Teams 5. Role Analysis 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Job Enrichment 2. Goal Setting 3. TQM 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Survey Research & Feedback 2. Action Research 3. TQM 4. High Performing Systems 5. Reengineering
Technical	Job Design	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Job Design 2. Quality Control 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Job Design 2. TQM 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Survey Research & Feedback 2. Action Research 3. TQM 4. High Performing Systems 5. Reengineering

Table 2.1 OD Interventions and their applicability

Three Basic Approach to OD

Behavioral Approach

- Better Utilization of Human Resources
- Improving the Level of Morale, Motivation & Commitment of Members

Structural Approach

- Relates the element of the Organization to one another.
- Includes Downsizing, Decentralization & Centralization

Technical Approach

- Changes in Machinery, Methods, Automation, Job Design
- Change have helped companies to be more Productive

According to French and Bell the interventions can be clubbed as under:

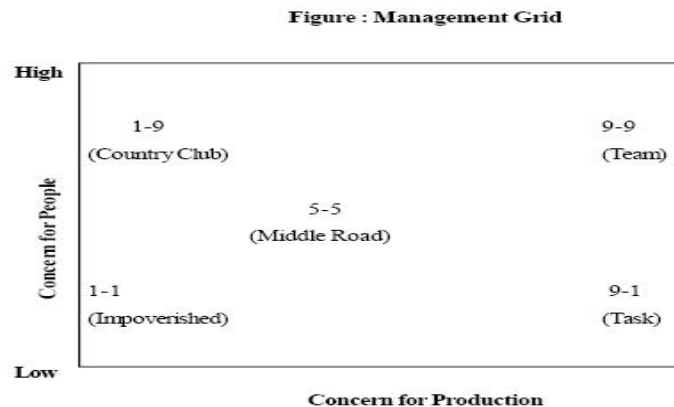
- Diagnostic
- Team building
- Inter group Activities
- Survey Feedback Methods
- Education and Training Programmes
- Techno-structural Activities
- Process Consultation
- The Management Grid
- Mediation and Negotiation Activities
- Coaching and Counseling
- Career Planning,
- Planning and Goal setting Activities

OD interventions are used according to the nature of units of change (targets) in the client organization. The targets of change are the individual, group, inter group and the organization in the specific context of task, structure and technology, Following Table clearly explains the nature or target areas (problems) and the type of OD interventions suitable in the given situation. Based on the above description important interventions focusing upon different aspects can be discussed in the following paragraphs:

1) Survey Feedback: It consists of an attitude survey through well designed questionnaires or interviews or observations and giving feedback to the client organization. It has much appeal and application in real life situation. The attitude survey may have an objective of measuring the process; for instance, communication, decision making and leadership at different levels. The data generated are perceptual and attitudinal in nature. Generally feedback or results are given to the group which generated the data. Subsequently devices are designed to resolution of organizational problems. Thus, the process of survey feed back includes: collection of data, feedback, development of action plan and follow-up for authentic results. It should be ensured that the questionnaire is valid and reliable, employees support investigators and people have mutual trust.

2) Management Grid: The most publicized technique developed by Robert Blake and Jane S. Mouton is a step by step approach. The grid connotes an intellectual framework of how do people manage. This approach uses a Grid OD programme which identified

the five basic managerial styles in numerical combinations which are 1-9, 9-1, 5-5, 9-9; and 1-1. It is depicted in Figure 2.3.



1-1 (Impoverished style) = Minimal concern for people and production.

1-9 (Country Club style) = Maximum concern for people but minimal for production.

9-1 (Task style) = Maximum concern for production but minimal for people.

9-9 (Team style) = Maximum concern for people and production.

5-5 (Middle Road style) = Middle of the road status for production people.

Figure 2.3 Managerial Grid and Implications

Development of leadership skills through grid programme involves wide variety of integrated and instrumented activities which are conducted in experimental and structured conditions. The participants are assisted to understand the approaches for integrating people and production. The programme covers three to five years. The first two phases cover management development so that the remaining phases can help managers towards excellence in organization performance (9-9Style). The six phase OD programme consists of laboratory, team development, inter-group development, organizational goal setting, goal achievement and stabilization.

3) Team Building: Team building is an attempt to assist the work group to identify, diagnose and solve its own problems. In fact, groups develop their own norms of behavior which influence individual and group behavior. Organization is perceived as a system of interlocking groups. Team building attempts to effect improvements in various teams operating in an organization like permanent work teams, task forces, committees etc. Team building activities focus on diagnosis, task achievement, task relationship and organizational process. The constituent parties in team building activity are: the external consultant, the group leader and members of the group. In team building activity, members gather and discuss problems relating to their task performance. It takes frank and fearless discussion. In the team building exercises, the members contribute information concerning their individual perception for overcoming these problems. Normally the goal of the meeting is to transform the team into a better and effective team.

4) Sensitivity Training: It is also called laboratory training as it is conducted by creating an experimental laboratory situation in which employees are brought together to interact in an unstructured environment. Sensitivity training helps to understand people better, to develop an understanding of others, to develop specific behavioral skills and to gain insights into the group processes. It also aims on reducing interpersonal friction. The primary objective of sensitivity training is to break through the barrier of silence and facilitate verbalization of participant to emphasize on the process of manipulation process but aims at brain washing of individuals.

This Training is carried out by unstructured groups without an agenda, leader and predetermined goals. The group is given complete autonomy in developing their own devices, interactions and on going process for interaction. Sometimes some planned activities may also be introduced in the Training Group (T-Group). Laboratory training may involve role playing, inter group competitive exercises, self-insight questionnaires, lectures and audiovisual aids. Sensitivity training provides a mechanism for personal learning and development.

5) Four Systems Management: Rensis Likert's Four Systems Management is a four level model of organizational effectiveness incorporating the basic categories of task orientation and people orientation. According to Likert management philosophy can be classified into four convenient systems such as:

- i) Exploitative-Autocratic System,
- ii) Benevolent- Autocratic System,
- iii) Consultative- Democratic System and
- iv) Participative - Democratic System.

This theory propounds that three basic concepts of system will make the organization effective. These are:

- a) Use of the principle of supportive relationship in the organization,
- b) Use of group decision making and group methods of supervision in the organization,
- c) High performance goals.

Under system four management, the causal variables like supportive relationships, groups decision making and high performance influence the end result variables (such as high productivity and low absenteeism) through the intervening variables (such as favorable attitudes towards superiors, high confidence and excellent communication). It is realized that system four is the ideal management where goals are set by the group members and not by the superiors. This system motivates subordinates.

6) Management by Objectives (MBO): MBO is yet another popular tool of OD MBO process involves the process of educating the concerned people about MBO, agreement upon clear cut quantifiable objectives, evaluation of objectives and feedback for deviation and corrective action. It is a comprehensive overall managerial philosophy which focuses upon joint goal setting. It synthesizes the individual goals to organizational goals. Since all levels of an organization are involved in goal setting, the entire organization will have feeling of unity. MBO programmes can be effective if properly implemented. It needs support of top management.

7) Process Consultation: Process consultation is the set of activities on the part of consultant which help the client to perceive, understand and act upon the process events which occur in the client's environment. It concentrates on the analysis of process of some activities like communication, leadership etc. It attempts to develop initial contacts, define relationships, and select the method of work, collection of data and diagnosis. Process consultation is designed to change attitudes, values, interpersonal skills, group norms, and cohesiveness and other process variables. Basically it is a method of intervening in an on going system.

8) Contingency Approach: Propounded by P. Lawrence and J. Lorsch this approach is based on the premise that an organization is a complex social system. Its activities must be integrated into a unified effort to enable it to cope with the environment. Conceptually people in different departments have different orientations related to the tasks they perform. In actual practice, the organizational units in their routine operations are differentiated along their orientation. It appears that with the task differentiation coordination is not possible. According to contingency approach both differentiation and integration are possible for total organization's effectiveness with the help of integrative devices.

9) Role Analysis: In the performance of their respective roles individuals manifest certain behavior which may thwart team effectiveness. Many a times it is found that the individuals are not clear about their own expected behavior from the view point of other members of the team. In such situation the role analysis technique is used for clarifying the role expectations and obligations of the members of a team. The resultant role requirements and the expected behavioral components of each other help the members enjoy a mutually satisfactory behavior in the work team. In the role analysis technique, the respective role players analyze the focal role of the individuals.

These are discussed openly in a classroom situation by the entire team. Finally, a role profile is prepared as a written summary on the basis of role clarifications and expected behavior. This paves the way for collaborative efforts without any confusion about the respective roles.

10) Inter-group Activity: Poor interpersonal relationships are not uncommon features in organizational functioning. In these situations inter-group activity focuses on improving the relationships between groups. It facilitates interaction and communication between the work groups which ultimately avoids dysfunctional competitiveness among them. Inter-group team building involves the process of differentiation and integration.

11) Organization Mirroring: It involves activities where one group of members gets feedback from the members of several other groups about how it is being perceived. Organization mirroring is used when there is difficulty with other department in the organization. A meeting is called and feedback is sought from other department. During the meeting the exact picture emerges which will resolve misunderstanding between two groups of people.

12) Third Party Peace Making Intervention: This intervention is based on the thoughts on understanding conflicts and their resolution at the interpersonal levels between two

parties who are aware of the existence of the conflicts and want to confront the issues. The consultant as a third party must be skilled in the art of diagnosing the conflicts and use confrontation as technique. This process focuses on four basic elements of conflicts namely:

- (i) the conflict issues,
- (ii) the contributory circumstances,
- (iii) the conflict related behavior, and
- (iv) the results of the conflict.

13) Job Design/redesign: It is task-technology related approach aiming at making changes in the work process of the groups of employees. Job design involves a well planned reorganization of a job. Basically it focuses to improve employee motivation, commitment, performance, job satisfaction etc.

There are different approaches to job design which are discussed below:

(i) Job Enrichment: It is termed as vertical enrichment or addition of tasks to make the job richer. It includes giving additional responsibilities and expecting more accountability from the employees.

(ii) Job Engineering: It relates to the tasks, methods, performance standards, inter dependence of man and machine, work flows etc. It may also include replacement of human workers for computers.

(iii) Job Rotation: It involves shifting of a person from one job to another for variety of tasks to be done. It reduces boredom and monotony.

(iv) Job Enlargement: It includes expansion of tasks to be carried out. It focuses on horizontal expansion of related tasks without additional responsibility and accountability.

(v) Socio-technical System: It aims to strike a balance between the technical and social aspects of an organization with the aim to optimize the relationships and augment organizational effectiveness. The socio-technical system normally involves a major redesign of the whole gamut of the way the jobs are being carried out involving technological and social issues.

14) Quality Circles: Quality Circles are semi-autonomous work groups having about six persons who volunteer to discuss and solve quality related problems in duty hours. It has impact on working conditions, employee's commitment and self development of employees.

15) Counseling: Counseling is the process of help extended by a Manager to his subordinate to enhance his potential. It aims to sympathize and empathize with the employees. It helps to bring about self awareness in the employee about own competence. The manager as counselor assists the employees in setting new goals and evaluates his own performance in a non threatening manner. It helps towards self realization of one's own strengths and weaknesses.

Table : Problem Areas and Types of OD interventions

Problems Identified	Possible Interventions
• Alienation of Employees	Work redesign, Job-enrichment, Role efficacy labs
• Non-collaboration among Functionaries	Team building workshops
• Erosion of Authority	Leadership, Sensitivity Training, Role efficacy labs
• Negative attitude of staff towards customer service	Survey feedback, task forces
• Productivity loss of workers and management	Personal growth labs, Goal setting, Team building
• Restrictive Practices	Union management interface
• Under-utilization of man power, Executives' rivalry	MBO, Work-redesign, Power labs
• Low opinion about subordinates	Transactional Analysis, Team Building
• Policy of appeasement	Conflict Management
• Failure of participation	Union management interface, Sensitivity Training
• Distrust between Union and Management	Union management interface
• Planning Operations	Interface labs
• Linkage Problems	Role negotiations
• Outdated systems and Procedures	Brainstorming, Creative Problem Solving, Task force
• Team related Problems	Team building exercise, Role analysis, Role negotiation technique, Organizational mirroring
• Structural Problems	Job design, MBO, Socio-technical system
• Educational Training	Coaching and Counselling activities

Level/Types of OD interventions

1. Individual level
2. Team/Group
3. Process
4. Global
5. Organization-wide
6. Community and National

Individual interventions	Team/ Work Group interventions	Process interventions	Organizational interventions	Global interventions
<input type="checkbox"/> Laboratory Training Group (T-Groups) <input type="checkbox"/> Coaching <input type="checkbox"/> Mentoring <input type="checkbox"/> Self-Awareness Tools <input type="checkbox"/> Reflection <input type="checkbox"/> Training, Education and Development <input type="checkbox"/> Leadership Development <input type="checkbox"/> Multirater (360-Degree) Feedback <input type="checkbox"/> Job Design <input type="checkbox"/> Job Descriptions <input type="checkbox"/> Responsibility Charting <input type="checkbox"/> Policies Manual <input type="checkbox"/> Values Clarification and Value Integration <input type="checkbox"/> Conflict Management <input type="checkbox"/> Action Learning	<input type="checkbox"/> Dialogue Sessions <input type="checkbox"/> Team Building <input type="checkbox"/> Team Development / Effectiveness <input type="checkbox"/> Meeting Facilitation <input type="checkbox"/> Conflict Management / Confrontation Meeting <input type="checkbox"/> Fishbowls <input type="checkbox"/> Strategic Alignment Assessment	<input type="checkbox"/> Six Sigma <input type="checkbox"/> Continuous Process Improvement / TQM <input type="checkbox"/> Process Reengineering <input type="checkbox"/> Benchmarking <input type="checkbox"/> Socio technical Systems (STS)	<input type="checkbox"/> Learning Organization/Organizational Learning <input type="checkbox"/> Culture Change <input type="checkbox"/> Accountability and Reward Systems <input type="checkbox"/> Succession Planning <input type="checkbox"/> Valuing Differences/Diversity <input type="checkbox"/> Strategic Planning, including Environmental Scanning and Scenario Planning <input type="checkbox"/> Mission, Vision, and Values Development <input type="checkbox"/> Large-Scale Interactive Events (LSIEs) <input type="checkbox"/> Open Systems Mapping <input type="checkbox"/> Future Search <input type="checkbox"/> Open Space Technology Meetings	<input type="checkbox"/> Virtual teams and Virtual Teams Building <input type="checkbox"/> Cross –cultural Teams and Cross-cultural Team Building <input type="checkbox"/> Cultural Self-Awareness <input type="checkbox"/> Cross-cultural Training <input type="checkbox"/> Storytelling / Sharing <input type="checkbox"/> Joint ventures <input type="checkbox"/> International Diversity <input type="checkbox"/> Job Assignments <input type="checkbox"/> Blending

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Theory Interventions

Theory and concepts especially in the area of Applied Behavioral Science are used to explain the behavior and the underlying assumptions. This provides a suitable background for understanding some of the behavioral processes emerging during the interventions.

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Such interventions focus on the critical appraisal of systems and procedures indicating how something is being done. This is aimed at examining whether the best methods / systems have been used.

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Before taking a final decision, the proposed changes are tested for knowing their consequences in a small area. The decisions may be modified or retained after reviewing the results/ outcomes.

Dilemma Interventions

In dilemma interventions, an imposed or emergent dilemma is used to enable close examination of the possible alternatives involved and the assumptions underlying them.

Perspective Interventions

These are aimed at drawing attention away from immediate actions and demands, and allow a look at the historical background, context and future objectives in order to assess whether or not the actions are still functional.

Organizational Structure Interventions

By examination and evaluation, structural causes for organizational ineffectiveness are identified and suitable interventions made under such interventions.

Cultural Interventions

Such interventions help in examining the traditions, precedents and practices existing in the organization's culture and appropriate efforts are made to bring desired changes.

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- **What the consultant does:**— the type of interventions consultants use:
 - Interventions used to give client a sense of worth, value, acceptance and support - acceptant.
 - Interventions for helping the client generate data and information in order to restructure the client's perceptions - catalytic.
 - Interventions for pointing out the value / attitudinal discrepancies in the client's beliefs and actions - confrontation.

- The interventions telling the client what to do to solve the problem - prescription.
- Interventions used for teaching the client relevant behavioral science theory so that the client can learn to diagnose and solve his or her own problems.
- **The focal issues causing the client's problems.**
 - Power - authority
 - Morale / cohesion
 - Norms / Standards of conduct
 - Goals and objectives etc.
- **The targets of change**
 - Individual
 - Group
 - Inter group
 - Organization and larger social systems.

3) Another simple approach to classification is based on the focus on

i) Individual – group: the interventions are aimed at individual learning, insight and skill building and

ii) Task process: The interventions focus on task, what is being done or Process – How it is accomplished? How people relate to each other and what processes and dynamics are occurring?

4) Another way of classification is HR based interventions, Techno- structural Interventions and Socio-technical interventions. In the table given below all the interventions except those in italics are HR based interventions.

5) If all the approaches are combined together, OD interventions can be classified into the following typology may be with some overlapping.

2.3.4 Barriers to OD Intervention

The following factors are indicative of the Resistance to OD Interventions. In order to plan a successful intervention the nature and strength of these barriers should be assessed.

Resistance to Change: Just as change can happen at the individual, group and organization level, the resistance to it can be felt at these levels and must be dealt with. Refer Figure 2.6. Potential Sources of Change Resistance

The other dimension is the internal vs. external forces generally identified for causing change. For example, restrictive Government policies and trade practices can delay or obstruct change; or, government policy and regulation changes can at times lead to change. Intervention resistance can be gauged from the same factors that enter an impending change scenario.



Figure 2.4 Potential Sources of Change Resistance

2.4 Summary

The process or methodology of ODs is unique and differs from the typical management development program in that it is a continuing activity, rather than a short-term activity, and involves the whole organization, rather than a single individual. It is intended to improve both the traditional product output of an organization and the social and psychological climate of the organization. This organizational transformation is accomplished through the use of an internal or external behavioral scientist consultant, who prescribes intervention techniques for the organization to employ to help itself. These techniques are prescribed following a data gathering phase and a diagnostic phase which provide information for the consultant to use in judging where the organizational problems lie and which intervention techniques are most appropriate to solve those problems. By recognizing the three distinct stages of change, plan to implement the change can be done. The process start by creating the motivation to change (unfreeze). Then moving through the change process by promoting effective communications and empowering people to embrace new ways of working (change) the process ends at re-establishing a new place of stability (refreeze), which is so necessary for creating the confidence from which to embark on the next, inevitable change. The OD interventions are interrelated and overlapping in nature. No two interventions are alike and there is no single OD method capable of serving all the possible objectives of an organization.

2.5 Self Assessment Questions

1. Discuss the importance of OD process in an organization.
2. Write a note on: Three Stage model
3. Write the steps involved in the process of OD.
4. Elaborate the Socio-technical system in OD.
5. Identify the organizational problems and suggest suitable OD intervention to resolve them.
6. Explain OD interventions. Why OD interventions are designed?
7. Explain in brief various kinds of organization structure interventions.

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Unit - 3 : Individual Interventions

Structure of Units

- 3.0 Objectives
 - 3.1 Introduction
 - 3.2 Categories of OD Interventions
 - 3.3 Types of Individual Interventions
 - 3.4 Other Important Interventions
 - 3.5 Summary
 - 3.6 Self Assessment Questions
 - 3.7 Reference Books
-

3.0 Objectives

- To explain the meaning of OD interventions.
 - To explain the broader perspective of change process in the organisation through OD interventions.
 - To explain the various categories of OD interventions.
 - To clarify the concept of Individual Intervention in an organisation.
 - To understand the various types of individual interventions.
-

3.1 Introduction

OD interventions are plans or programs comprising of specific activities designed to effect change in some facet of an organization. Various interventions have been developed over the years by OD experts and change agents to cater different problems and situations producing varied outcomes. Though, they all are oriented towards the goal of improving the entire organization through change. But organizations that wish to achieve a supreme level of organizational change need to employ overall range of interventions, including those designed to transform individual and group behavior and attitudes in an overall manner. Whereas organisations aiming at minor changes will stop short of such objectives by applying interventions which merely target at the primarily level that is towards operating policies, management structures, worker skills, and personnel policies. Hence, organization development programs usually integrate more than one intervention at times in an organisation while change is being incorporated.

Individual interventions in an organisation are of great importance. These OD program are designed to enhance the skills, knowledge and effectiveness of an individual in the organisation. This type of OD intervention utilizes the group dynamics by gathering all the individuals together in loosely structured meetings. Subject matter and the concerned information are determined by the group, related to the basic goals stipulated to them by the facilitator. As the group members try to exert the structure on each other they mutually gain a higher awareness of their own self and of other employees' feelings, motivations, and behaviors. Apart from this there are other types of interpersonal interventions also which include those which are designed to improve the performance review method in an organisation ,create enhanced training programs and help the

employees to identify their true wants and set complementary career goals for them and further resolve conflict.

3.2 Categories of OD Interventions

There are four basic categories of OD interventions which are not distinct or exclusive methods in OD as they are usually used in conjunction with each other instead of just one tool or technique being implemented to bring in change in the organisation. The following mentioned are four categories of OD interventions in any organisation:

1. **Human Processes:** In this tool the change is brought in by using techniques like: team building, conflict resolution, personal growth workshops, interpersonal skills and communications training, emotional intelligence training, coaching skills training etc.
2. **Techno-structural:** Here techniques like TQM (total quality management), work process redesigning/ reengineering is used to inculcate change.
3. **Human Resource Management:** this tool of OD uses techniques like job design, hiring and selection, performance management, reward systems, multicultural/diversity/cross culture training, coaching, mentoring etc.
4. **Strategic:** This OD tool uses strategic planning/management, conferences, seminars aiming at futuristic goals and prospects that help large diverse groups discover common values, purposes, and projects; corporate culture change, building a "learning organization" in which people at all levels are continuously learning, Open Space and other large group meeting methodologies etc are utilized.

These tools of OD are not the only tools and ways of OD interventions as OD consultants are always in logical R & D mode in search of new ways of OD implementation. And new presentation and combination keeps on developing as per time and situation in any organisation. Hence, the above mentioned categories are the popularly known and seen categories stated by OD practitioners but not the only categories in OD as the field of OD is too vast and has immense space for new ways always.

3.3 Types of Individual Interventions

The individual interventions include various ways in which an employee is groomed multi dimensionally:

- | | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Laboratory Training Group (T-Groups) | <input type="checkbox"/> Coaching |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Mentoring | <input type="checkbox"/> Self-Awareness Tools |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Training, Education and Development | <input type="checkbox"/> Reflection |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Leadership Development | <input type="checkbox"/> Multi rater (360-Degree) Feedback |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Job Design | <input type="checkbox"/> Job Descriptions |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Responsibility Charting | <input type="checkbox"/> Policies Manual |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Values Clarification and Value Integration | <input type="checkbox"/> Conflict Management |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Action Learning | |

3.3.1 Leadership Skills Development

Organizations cannot succeed long term without well-trained leaders until and unless the leadership skill is properly injected among the employees in any organization one cannot expect a very positive change. Here, OD contributes by ensuring that the development criterion and area should fully emphasize on practical, current situations that need attention within the organization and to monitor the degree to which training delivery is sufficiently participative as to promise adequate transfer of learning's to the job is done or not under well trained leaders. For example, we will never let our car be serviced by any untrained mechanic. So is the case when we seek any doctoral help. In the same way Many a times individuals are put into leadership positions without a training them how to lead or how to help the people they are leading to deliver productive results.

In any organization it is a proven fact that its people that make any organization successful. There could be best processes, product and services in the world but if proper leadership fails to be thereto in that organization then it will be beaten by inferior competitors who get the people bit right. Organizations succeed and fails on the quality of the employees and the ability of the leaders to create the environment where people can be the best they could become. Under this technique of individual intervention emphasis is on grooming leaders by enhancing goal-orientation in him to keep the team on track. By promoting a secure environment wherein members can openly discuss issues by mentoring the leader on building confidence amongst members by building and maintaining trust and offering the members their due responsibilities. A leader is guided to be technically competent in matters relating to team tasks and goals and keeping the team focused and communicating his team about performance expectations and providing them timely feedback.

3.3.2 Coaching

It is a teaching, training or development process through which an individual is taught to achieve some specific professional result or goal. The individual who receives coaching may be referred to as the client or coaches. In this technique there are two individuals where one has greater experience and expertise than the other and he/she supports by offering advice and guidance to the other one through a learning process. This form of coaching is similar to mentoring. There are varied number of structures, models and methodologies of coaching which are designed in order to facilitate learning of new behavior for personal growth as well as professional growth. The basic skills while coaching are often developed by managers within organizations specifically to improve their managing and leadership abilities. Organizations these days plan career coaching which focuses on work and career related issues of employees. Apart from career coaching, executive coaching is also one of the ways which helps in facilitating professional and personal development to the point of individual growth, improved performance and contentment. Personal coaching is a process which is designed to strengthen the relationship agreement between a client and a coach. It is based on the client's desired interests, goals and objectives.

3.3.3 Mentoring

It is a personal developmental relationship in which a more experienced or more knowledgeable person helps to guide a less experienced or less knowledgeable person. However, true mentoring is more than just answering occasional questions or providing ad hoc help. It is about an ongoing relationship of learning, dialogue, and challenge. Moreover it always involves proper communication and is relationship based, it is a process involving informal transmission of knowledge, social capital, and the psychosocial support perceived by the recipient as relevant to work, career, or professional development. "Mentoring entails informal communication, usually face-to-face and during a sustained period of time, between a people who is perceived to have greater relevant knowledge, wisdom, or experience (the mentor) and a person who is perceived to have less (the protégé)". There are various techniques which could be used by mentors as per the situation and the requirement of the understanding level of the mentee, and the diverse techniques which are being applied in modern organizations today can be found written in ancient education systems, or realize the potentialities of the people in the organizations they lead and underline that personal credibility is as essential to quality mentoring as skill.

There are different options for the measurement of mentoring and coaching interventions:

1. ***Mentoring/coach skills assessment:*** You can use pre and post measurement to identify whether mentors and coaches have the skills they need to be good mentors or coaches. This can be done before and after the intervention, to determine whether any improvement has been made.
2. ***Mentee / coachee talent assessment:*** Another option is to assess mentees or coaches before and after the intervention, to determine whether an improvement in performance is observed.
3. ***Organization readiness evaluation:*** You may want to determine whether the organization is ready for the intervention by evaluating the current level of readiness. This could result in a refocusing of your strategy, or in major change management interventions to support mentoring or coaching.
4. ***Multi-rater feedback systems (360 degree):*** Another option is a 360 degree assessment if you want to determine how different people see the mentoring or coaching skills of identified managers or mentors. It is very useful to also get inputs from their staff, because they are on the receiving end of the leadership and coaching practices and styles.
5. ***Performance management:*** Your everyday performance management method that is already in place can be adapted to include elements relevant to mentoring and coaching relationships.
6. ***The four level evaluation framework:*** If there is a strong human resource development (HRD) focus in the organization and want to align you're your mentoring and coaching to the international evaluation standard of the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD), you will be inclined to use the four level evaluation

framework will also help you to convert the benefits of the mentoring and coaching intervention to an ROI measurement.

7. *Integrated evaluation and measurement framework*: Fusing all six the above options into an integrated evaluation and measurement framework that combines the “hard” and “soft” elements of evaluation that appeal to management, psychologists and HRD practitioners, is postulated in this book

3.3.4 Succession Planning

This is a major task in manpower planning of an organisation wherein the development of high potentials employees is done who can eventually and effectively take over the current leadership positions in the organisation. This technique is in a way development of leadership which requires an extensive and overall transfer of an individual between departments. In many multinationals, it may be in the form of international transfer and experience to build a future leader who can lead the organization to his fullest capacity. Succession planning demands a sharp focus and an insight to organization's future and vision. To align leadership development with the future the firm aspires to create future managers through training and development programmes conducted at regular intervals. And identification of a successor is done while the process of performance appraisal and at times through critical situation handling or crisis management done by some employee. Thus successive leadership development is based not only on knowledge and history but also on a dreamed well- thought process. Further, for success of such a plan to be successful, a screening of future leadership should be based not only on "what we know and have" but also on "what we aspire to become". Persons involved in succession planning should be current leadership representing the vision and HR executives having to translate it all into a program.

Currently, your organization may utilize one of three approaches to succession planning:

- ***Simple Replacement planning*** - a process that indicates possible internal replacement for critical Positions.
- ***Developmental succession planning*** – a process that indicates not only possible internal replacement for critical positions but also provides for developing individuals to meet the challenges for future organizational change by grooming them for advancement possibilities and for exercising increasing technical proficiency.
- ***Talent pool planning*** – a process that indicates a group of possible internal replacement for critical positions and also provides for developing groups of people to meet them.

Why is succession planning important?

The benefits of good succession planning include:

- A means of ensuring the organization is prepared with a plan to support service continuity when the executive director, senior managers or key people leave

- A continuing supply of qualified, motivated people (or a process to identify them), who are prepared to take over when current senior staff and other key employees leave the organization
- An alignment between your organization's vision and your human resources that demonstrates an understanding of the need to have appropriate staffing to achieve strategic plans
- A commitment to developing career paths for employees which will facilitate your organization's ability to recruit and retain top-performing employees and volunteers
- An external reputation as an employer that invests in its people and provides opportunities and support for advancement
- A message to your employees that they are valuable
- The absence of a succession plan can undermine an organization's effectiveness and its sustainability. Without a succession planning process, an organization may not have a means of ensuring that the programs and services that are crucial to its operation are sustained beyond the tenure of the individual currently responsible for them.

Who is responsible for succession planning?

Both the board and the executive director have pivotal roles to play in succession planning. The board is responsible for succession planning for the executive director position. The board hires the executive director to ensure it has a skilled manager at the helm to implement the organization's mission and vision. It is therefore very important for boards to spend some time reflecting on what they would do if, or when, the executive director leaves. All too often, boards find that they are unprepared for such an occurrence and are left scrambling to quickly replace that person. There are many examples of an executive director leaving only to have the organization fall into disarray, funders withdraw resources, and other key staff members leave due to lack of effective leadership. Even when provided with adequate notice, boards sometimes find themselves in the position of having to scramble to find an interim solution. The executive director is responsible for ensuring a succession plan is in place for other key positions in the organization. These will likely be developed with help from the management team with input from implicated employees.

3.3.5 Human Performance Improvement

This technique uses a wide range of interventions which are drawn from several streams and includes total quality management, process improvement, behavioral psychology, instructional systems design, organizational development, and human resources management. It is also known as **Human Performance Improvement (HPI)** by many thinkers. In a nut shell, this technique is a culmination of science as well behavioral science subjects so it incorporates ways by which improvement in the employee overall; performance is done through methodologies such as: Six Sigma, Lean Six Sigma,

Organization Development, Motivation, Instructional technology, Human Factors learning, performance support systems, knowledge management, and training and development. HPT uses both systematic and systemic approaches to solving performance problems in other way we can see that it involves empirical and analytical ways to improve the performance and manage the performance of employees.

Human Performance Technology (HPT), a systematic approach to improving productivity and competence, uses a set of methods and procedures and a strategy for solving problems -- for realizing opportunities related to the performance of people. More specific, it is a process of selection, analysis, design; development, implementation, and evaluation of programs to most cost-effectively influence human behavior and accomplishment. It is a systematic combination of three fundamental processes: performance analysis, cause analysis, and intervention selection, and can be applied to individuals, small groups, and large organizations.

As such, it stresses a rigorous analysis of present and desired levels of performance, identifies the causes for the performance gap, offers a wide range of interventions with which to improve performance, guides the change management process, and evaluates the results. Taken one word at a time, a description of this performance improvement strategy emerges.

Human: the individuals and groups that make up our organizations

Performance: activities and measurable outcomes

Technology: a systematic and systemic approach to solve practical problems

The HPT Model

The HPT process begins with a comparison of the present and the desired levels of individual and organizational performance to identify the performance gap. A cause analysis is then done to determine what impact the work environment (information, resources, and incentives) and the people (motives, individual capacity, and skills) are having on performance. Once the performance gap and the causes have been determined, the appropriate interventions are designed and developed. These may include measurement and feedback systems, new tools and equipment, compensation and reward systems, selection and placement of employees, and training and development. The interventions are then implemented and the change process managed.

Evaluation is done after each phase of the process. Initially, formative evaluation assesses the performance analysis, cause analysis, intervention selection and design, and intervention and change phases. Then evaluation focuses on the immediate response of employees and their ability and willingness to do the desired behaviors. The final evaluations are centered on improvement of business outcomes (such as quality, productivity, sales, customer retention, profitability, and market share) as well as determining return on investment for the intervention.

HUMAN PERFORMANCE TECHNOLOGY (HPT) MODEL

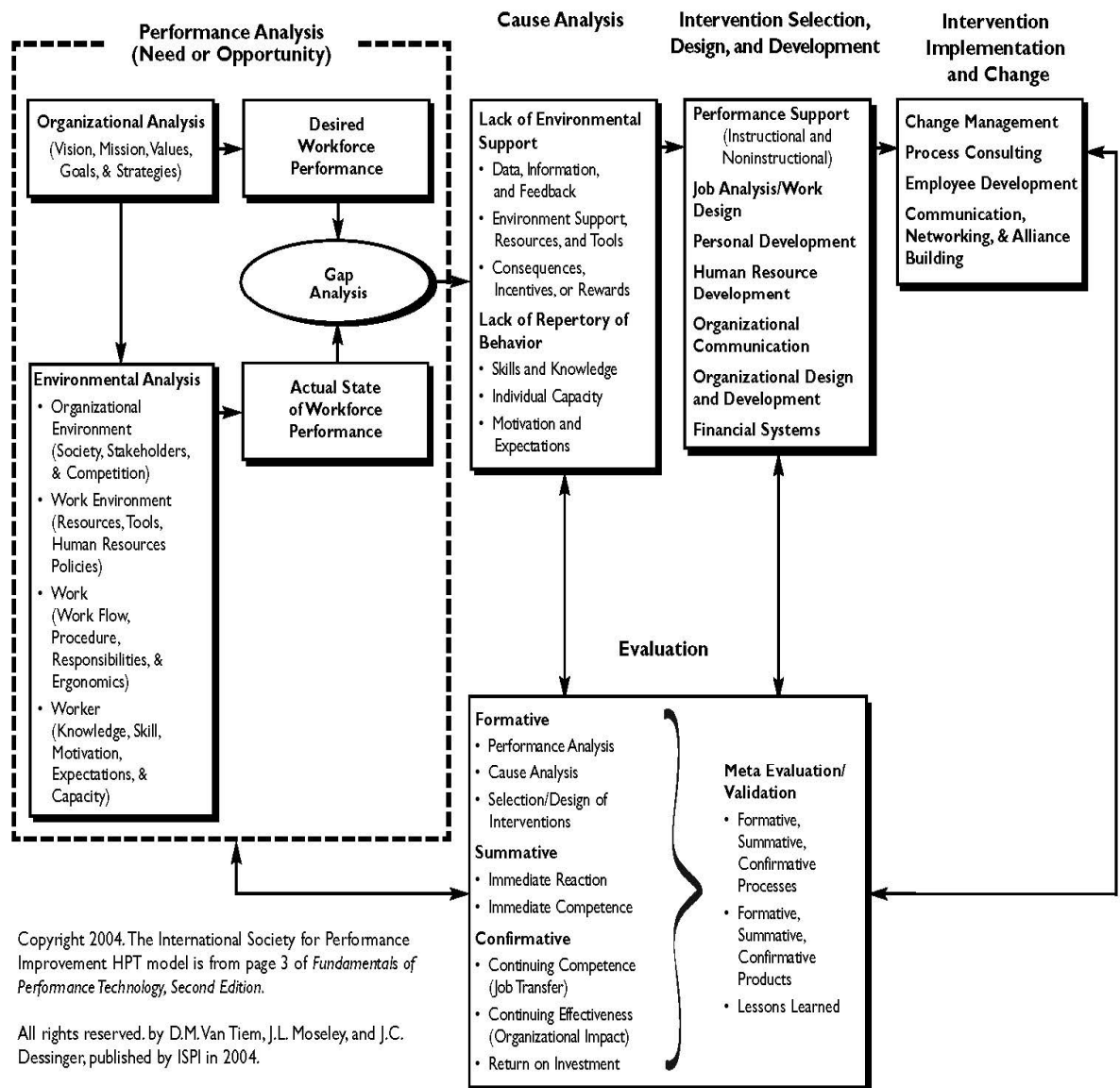


Figure 3.1 The HPT Model

3.3.6 Total quality management (TQM)

It consists of organization-wide efforts to establish and make a permanent climate in which an organization continuously improves its ability to deliver high-quality products and services to customers. As there is no widely agreed-upon approach in this field due to dynamics of external environment and as every organisation has different culture and vision and mission so there can't be one uniform protocol or formula developed for success for all organisations. But still TQM efforts at typically drawn formulas based on the previously-developed tools and techniques of quality control.

Total Quality Management (TQM) is a philosophy aimed at improving business as a whole. Some of the benefits lie in the continuous improvement of processes and products, and enhanced efficiency of people and machines leading to improved quality.

The application of Total Quality Management helps in streamlining processes, and ensures a proactive work system ready to counter deviations from the ideal state. What are some of the major benefits of Total Quality Management?

The major thrust of Total Quality Management (TQM) is to achieve productivity and process efficiency by identifying and eliminating problems in work processes and systems. TQM addresses key problem areas such as mistakes in work processes, redundant processes, unnecessary tasks, and duplicate efforts. TQM interventions also help with predicting and pre-empting such mistakes and unproductive activities. Improving process efficiency brings about many benefits to the organizations in terms of costs and time.

The major benefits of TQM in terms of cost savings include:

- elimination of non-conformance and repetitive work
- elimination of waste costs and reject products
- elimination of repairs and reworks
- reduced warranty and customer support costs
- process efficiency leading to improved profit per product or service
- fiscal discipline through elimination of unnecessary steps and wasteful expenditure

3.3.7 Management by Objectives (MBO)

It is a process in which the superior and subordinate jointly identify their common goals and then define each individual's main segment of responsibility in terms of the results expected by the employee, and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and analyzing the contribution of each of its members. It is also known as **management by results (MBR)**. Here defining of objectives of an organization also takes place. Explaining the goals is very important as it makes all answerable in the organisation which not only clarifies their target but their performance level as well and by doing so the principle of participative management also happens. An important part of the MBO is the measurement and the comparison of the employee's actual performance with the standards preset. The main motive behind MBO is that they can understand how their

activities relate to the achievement of the organization's goal. Hence, MBO acquires a place of importance in an organizations graph as well employees' work life chart.

MBO is essentially based on a very simple facts- wherever people work in an organization together there will be a wide variety of objectives. Each individual has his or her own personal goals (e.g. better working conditions, better training, better pay); each department has its own business targets (higher output, better equipment, more funding) and the top management, too has its own strategic aims (organizational success, corporate identity, corporate image). MBO is the art of getting all these varied interests to correspond to one common goal. Talks can also be conducted collectively with the departmental teams. The main object of MBO is to make the individual goals voluntarily coincide with the goals of the organization. MBO only works when management and staff agree to support mutual goals in an atmosphere of confidence and trust, commitment and motivation. The concept is based on on the assumption that employees are, by nature, willing to perform. MBO succeeds where there is a dialogue on objectives between the employees and the management founded on fairness and clarity.

3.3.8 Performance Management (PM)

It is the technique which focuses on the performance of an organization, a department, employee, or even the processes to build a product of service, as well as many other areas. It includes methods in which the focus is on ensuring that goals are consistently being achieved in an effective and efficient manner. Performance management is also known as a process by which organizations align their resources, systems and employees with strategic objectives and priorities.

3.4 Other Important Interventions

Survey feedback: The intervention provides data and information to the top level managers. Information on Attitudes of employees about wage level, and structure, hours of work, working conditions and relations are collected and the results are forwarded to the top executive teams. They analyze the data, find out the problem, evaluate the results and develop the means to correct the problems identified. The team is formed with the employees at all levels in the organization hierarchy i.e, from the rank and file to the top level.

Process Consultation: The process consultant meets the members of the department and work teams observes the interaction, problem identification skills, solving procedures etc. He feeds back the team either the information collected through observations, coaches and counsels individuals & groups in molding their behavior.

Goal setting and planning: Each division in an organization sets the goals or formulates the plans for profitability. These goals are sent to the top management which in turn sends them back to the divisions after modification. A set of organization goals emerges thereafter.

Managerial grid: This identifies a range of management behavior based on the different ways that how production/service oriented and employee oriented states interact with each other and vice versa. Managerial grid is also called as instrumental laboratory training as it is a structured version of laboratory training. It consists of individual and group exercises with a view to developing awareness of individual managerial style interpersonal competence and group effectiveness. The managerial grid focuses on the observations of behavior in exercises specifically related to work. Participants in this training are encouraged and helped to appraise their own managerial style.

3.5 Summary

Interventions are designed to improve the effectiveness of individuals through ways which are designed to deal with teams and intergroup relations, and the whole organization at large. There are various types of interventions applied in an organisation some interventions that focus on what people do and some focus on how people do their task. So it can be understood that broadly interventions can be classified according to which change mechanism they tend to emphasize: like: feedback, awareness of changing cultural norms, interaction, communication, conflict, and education.

3.6 Self Assessment Questions

1. What do you understand by OD interventions in our organisation?
2. Explain the meaning/concept of OD Interventions?
3. How they contribute in organisational change?
4. Which intervention tool for you will be the best chance of success? Why?
5. “Survey feedback can be a problematic OD technique because it permits people who are affected by organisational policies to generate data that speaks against those policies.” Comment.

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Unit -4 : Team and Team Work

Structure of Units

- 4.0 Objectives
- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Types of Teams
- 4.3 Formation of Group
- 4.4 Group Cohesiveness
- 4.5 Summary
- 4.6 Self Assessment Questions
- 4.7 Reference Books

4.0 Objectives

After completing this unit, you would be able to:

- Understand the concept of teams
- Learn the difference between Teams and Groups
- Point out the importance of Teams in organizations
- Know about various stages of team formation
- Learn about the various types of teams in an organization
- Understand the role of Teams in increasing Organizational Effectiveness

4.1 Introduction

Teams are beneficial for the organizations as they help in accomplishing complex interdependent tasks that cannot be done by an individual. They help in bringing new or creative ideas and solutions on the board. It helps in coordinating interdepartmental efforts. Teams are helpful in providing a better solution to complex problems by providing varied information and assessments. It helps in implementing complex management decisions by synergization of skills. Teams help an inductee to socialize and get affiliated in the new environment more easily. They help in developing, enhancing and confirming the individual's self esteem and sense of identity. They also provide a platform for problem-solving mechanism for personal and interpersonal problems.

A team is any group of people organized to work together interdependently and cooperatively to meet the needs of their customers by accomplishing a purpose and goals. Teams are constituted to fulfill both short term and long term goals of the organization. Some characteristics of teams are as follows:

1. Constitutes of people with complementary skills who work together to complete team goals
2. Team members are interdependent on each other for completion of task

3. They share authority and responsibility for self management of teams
4. Teams themselves are responsible and accountable for their performance
5. The members work together for a common goal and rewards.
6. Collective efforts lead to synergy generation and greater performance.

A common definition of a group is three or more individuals that interact about a common goal and have influence over one another. Although the term group and team are used interchangeably they do not mean the same. Three main components of group are its size, goal orientation and influence. In the organizations, the group members are:

- Intrinsic motivation for participation in group activities
- Group is observed as one comprising of people mutually interacting
- Members contributions in terms of efforts varies according to individual's choices
- Reaching at consensus through various forms of interactions with group members

4.2 Types of Teams

For the convenience of understanding on the basis of their composition the groups or teams have been divided into four types. They are as follows:

4.2.1 Problem Solving Teams

They are the earliest forms of teams which trace their origins in 80's. In the early 1980, the Ford Motor Company adopted TQM. The basic guidelines Ford focused on while developing Problem Solving Teams were:

1. Keep the size of team small to make team more effective and efficient.
2. The teams should comprise of members who possess the required skills through training.
3. Adequate time allotment to teams for solving the problems
4. Autonomy to teams regarding problem diagnosis and implementation of measures to resolve it.
5. Nominate a 'Champion' i.e. person who helps the team overcome various problems.

A commonly used problem-solving team is Quality circle (A small group of employees in the same work area or doing similar type of work that voluntarily meets regularly for about an hour every week to identify analyze and resolve work-related problems). They were first introduced in Japan and are behind the tremendous success seen in Japanese companies.

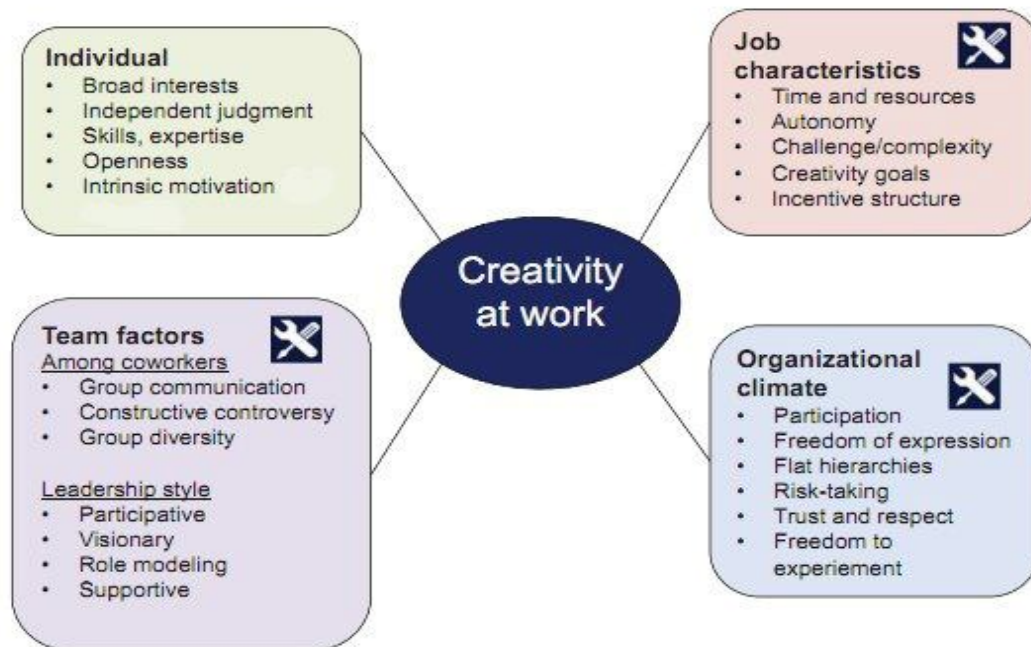


Figure 4.1 Problem Solving Teams

4.2.2 Cross Functional Teams

Employees of diverse skills and expertise who come together from various departments or functions of same hierarchical level to solve a specific business, customer or product problem. In other words specialists from different domains come together to accomplish group objectives and go back to their respective departments after the completion of group objective.

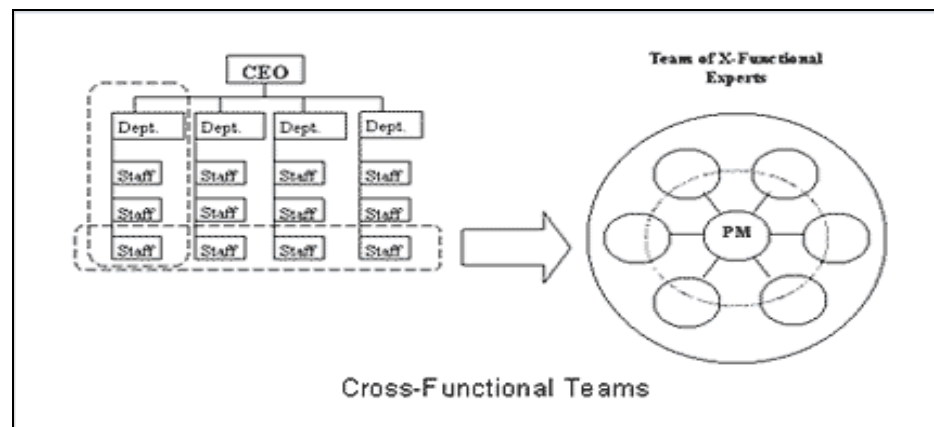


Figure 4.2 Cross Functional Teams

4.2.3 Self Managing Teams

They are the teams in which the employees are given administrative responsibility in addition to task fulfillment they carry out a lot of activities done by their earlier supervisors. Administrative responsibilities include delegation of work, planning, scheduling, maintaining and staffing, problem solving, coordinating with suppliers and customers. They are also known as autonomous work groups. Fully self managed teams work as mini organizations right from selection of team members to performance evaluation each activity is carried out by self managed teams. These teams allow the members to develop solutions to the problems, implement them and be accountable for the results obtained and resources used in the process.

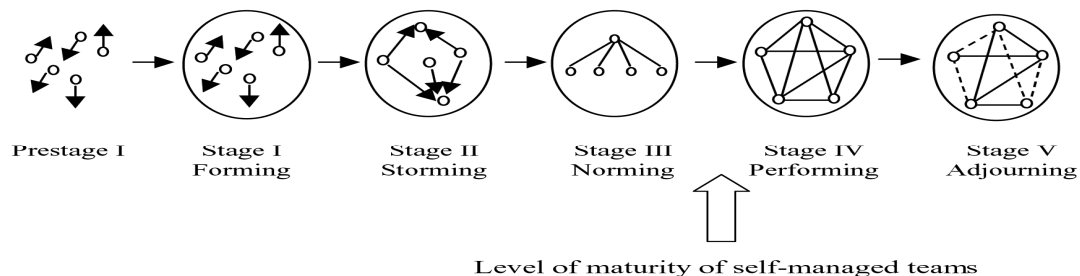


Figure 4.3 Self Managed Teams

4.2.4 Virtual teams

They are a new phenomenon which came into existence due to rapid technological changes like internet, e-mail, videoconferencing, groupware etc. which makes it possible for employees to be geographically dispersed yet working in coordination. These teams interact electronically. They are flexible and efficient as time and location do not pose as constraints and more people can be utilized regardless of where and when they actually do their work. But they lack in group cohesiveness as there is less direct interaction among members thus trust, coordination, familiarity are very low which are key inputs for longevity of any group.

4.3 Formation of Group

The typical stages in a team's evolution can be described as follows:

- **Forming**: it is the introductory stage in which the focus is more on knowing each other rather than work. The team members are little cautious as they are unaware about the other team members and trust quotient is low. Team members are uncertain and anxious about their role within the team, who is going to be the leader, what are the group goals and if the appointed leader fails to control the members a new leader emerges.
- **Storming**: this stage deals with discussion of members positions in the group, who will be leader and who will be the follower most of them strive to take the central position and establish their authority. They become assertive and this stage is marked with lot of power struggles and division of teams into groups. The members are testing everything right from leadership to group goals to roles of the members.

- **Norming:** The team now focuses on discussing about the task given to the team. They start behaving as a team instead of individuals and start discussing about team objectives instead of individual objectives as a sense of group cohesiveness starts developing among the team members and the roles become more defined leading to reduction in friction.
- **Performing:** This is the functional stage of the group which gives maximum results to the organization and role and work conflicts are handled amicably.
- **Adjourning:** this is the last stage when the team disintegrates it is maybe because of the completion of the task or because of disintegration of the team members. This break up is called adjournment. The team members return to their respective departments on their permanent assignments after the attainment of team objectives.

All groups are different some may pass through all the stages some may skip certain stages and awareness about these stages can help in guiding and counseling the team members as and when they require. Some groups may be temporarily stuck in a certain stage and others may find themselves reverting to an earlier stage from time to time. To expedite their own development team members may find it useful to know what elements help create



Figure 4.4 Formation of Group

4.4 Group Cohesiveness

Group Cohesiveness is the extent of attraction of the group members or the extent of resistance for leaving the group, the team spirit and the willingness among the team members to channelize their efforts to achieve group goals.

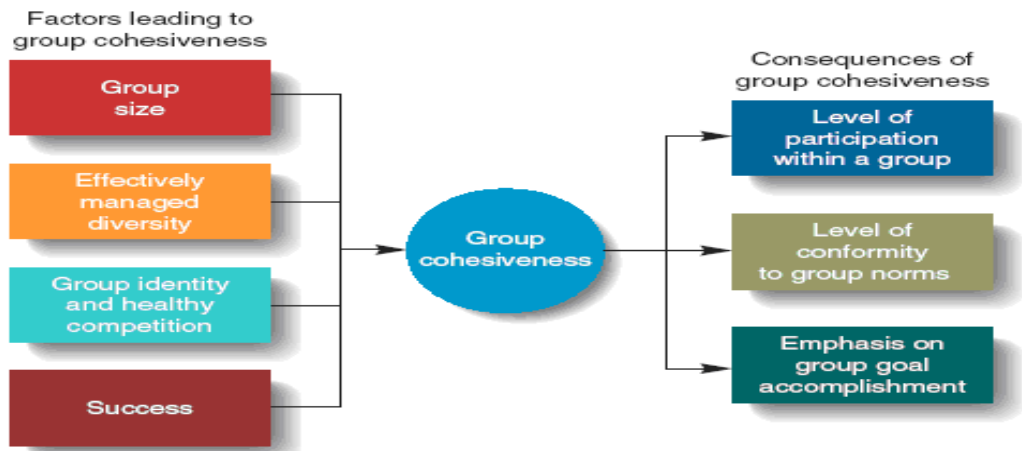


Figure 4.5 Group cohesiveness in building an effective team

4.4.1 Key factors contributing to Team Effectiveness

The key factors contributing to any teams' effectiveness can be divided into four categories: the contextual factors like resources, reward systems etc. second comprises of team composition like team size. Third factor is work design i.e. the task itself and its structure and the last one is process like team efficacy, common goals etc.

4.4.1.1 Context

There are four contextual factors which contribute maximum to team effectiveness.

Adequate resources: the organization should ensure that they have proper equipment, manpower and administrative assistance so that the team can finish their task effectively.

Leadership and structure: it will be very difficult for the teams to function properly if they do not have proper guidance regarding work to be done, how it is to be done and who will do it, from where they will source the resources, when they have to complete the work, what will be the role of team members etc. thus making the presence of a leader vital in team.

Climate of trust: For a team to be effective they have to fulfill two conditions trust between team members and trust in the abilities of the leader. Moreover if the leader commands respect it becomes easy for him to convince team members regarding group goals.

Performance evaluation and Reward system: the most important factor which can increase the motivation level of the team members are the team rewards and their fair allocation ensures steady contribution by the team members. They have to be very cautious in determining the relative work contribution of every team member so that fair allocation is possible as unfair distribution might lead to demotivation among performers and their becoming work shirkers as accurate calculation of employees contribution is difficult in a team. Managers should ensure to curb **social loafing** (some members in the team do not work to their full potential as they know the individual performance cannot be accurately measured thus reduce their input) in the team. Social loafing may also arise if a member believes that others intend to withhold their efforts and thus he/she would be foolish not to do the same-**Sucker effect**. The organizations should in addition to traditional rewards design innovative rewards like the authority to select new team members, taking their views regarding the new supervisor, or letting them design new rules and regulations for team members.



Figure 4.6 Groups' and Teams' Contributions to Organizational Effectiveness

4.4.1.2 Team composition

The kind of members, size of team, members' diversity and their preference towards team work play a crucial role in determining the success rate of the team.

Abilities of Members: a lot of teams' performance is dependent upon the knowledge, technical- problem solving and interpersonal skills and abilities of their team members. It has been observed that high ability teams (teams comprising of mostly intelligent people) fare better in complex tasks and low ability teams do better in simple tasks. While allocating work the management should keep the ability of team into mind.

Personality of members: The individual traits determine whether the employee will mix well with other team members or he will have adjustment problem. The Big Five personality model helps in identifying the factors which can determine the team behavior of an employee. Three factors which play an important part are conscientiousness, openness to experience and agreeableness.

Allocation of Roles: The members should be assigned roles as per the needs of the team. The nine key roles in teams are *Linker, Creator, Promoter, assessor, Organizer, Producer, Controller, Maintainer, and Advisor*

Diversity of teams: People with different KSA contribute effectively to team success but these differences are the potentials for problems also.

Size of teams: Contrary to believe small teams are more successful than large teams as they are able to bind the team together and coordination problems are less when teams have large team members, cohesiveness and mutual accountability decline and social loafing increases. Thus effectively teams should not have members more than 5 to 9.

Members preferences: Since some people work more effectively when working as individuals thus before allocating employees into teams individual preferences should be considered along with the abilities required to be a part of team as some people may not be willing to working in a team.

Work Design: Autonomy to work, variance in skills of employees according to the task, employees identifying with the task given and perceived significance of task in overall team structure are vital for ensuring team effectiveness.

4.4.1.3 Team Processes

The process becomes relevant as each members' contribution in team work cannot be measured accurately resulting in decrease in efforts by members and rise in tendency of social loafing. Thus the team processes should be such that they make the efforts of members as visible as possible.

Common goals and purpose: Every team should have a common vision and goal for the team members to be achieved. The common goals should be set after much deliberation and mutual consensus of the team members.

Specific goals: Effective teams should convert their common purpose into specific, measurable and realistic goals.

Team Efficacy: The teams through small goals attained gain confidence in themselves regarding completion of goals. The confidence in teams in themselves regarding success attainment is known as team efficacy

Conflict levels: Not all conflicts are bad Dysfunctional conflicts like relationship conflicts obstruct work but Functional conflicts like task conflict can reduce the likelihood of groupthink and motivate members to approach work differently with the new ideas.

4.5 Summary

The organizations today function in a dynamic environment leading to more adoption of contingency approach. Organizations are relying more on matrix structure which has proved useful in today's turbulent time especially when task is complex in nature. Giving rise to more usage of teams as an effective method for organizational effectiveness because it helps in synergizing the skills of different employees for task accomplishment. The organizations can customize the team structure to suit their needs but recently a lot of organizations are moving towards self managed teams. Division of organizations in teams leads to new issues but they do not weigh much against the benefits of the team for an organization. Thus for a learning organization teams have become need of the hour.

4.6 Self Assessment Questions

1. Differentiate between groups and teams?
2. Discuss the role of teams in organizational effectiveness?
3. According to you which type of team is best suited for Indian organizations and why?
4. If informal groups are so effective then why do organizations create formal groups?
5. Is groupthink detrimental for teams?
6. Discuss any instance of informal groups in your organization? Mention any one work completed with the help of the informal group in the organization?

4.7 Reference Books

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Unit 5: Team Interventions

Structure of Unit

- 5.0 Objectives
- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Team Development Interventions
- 5.3 Role Analysis
- 5.4 Process Consultation
- 5.5 Job Design
- 5.6 Quality Circles
- 5.7 Summary
- 5.8 Self-Assessment Questions
- 5.9 Reference Books

5.0 Objectives

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand the meaning of an OD intervention,
- Learn the range of team interventions,
- Learn deeply a few selected team based interventions.

5.1 Introduction

During the course of an OD programme there are several occasions in the organization to collect data, initiate action, observe processes and provide feedback. All these activities are planned and carried out jointly between the change agent and client organization; and in OD language are called **interventions**. **Interventions** are the action thrust of OD and collectively comprise the OD strategy in a programme of organizational renewal. A strategy is basically aimed at developing organizational climate, ways of work and relationships that will be congruent with the future needs.

5.2 Team Development Interventions

5.2.1 Team Building

‘Team building’ is the most commonly used OD intervention. It takes different forms and emphasizes different aspects depending on the need and expertise of the Consultant and Trainer. A team is widely understood as a group of people working together to accomplish common goals. Thus there are two important aspects in the working of any team:

- **Task aspect:** What is to be achieved or carrying out and the related aspects; and the ‘Task aspects’ are covered by ‘Content’ aspects.
- **People or Relationship aspects:** How do the members feel while interacting and working with each other? How do they communicate with each other? How do

they respond? Who is trying to dominate any leadership issues? Are there conflicts? How conflicts are resolved? The 'People or Relationship aspects' are covered by 'Process' aspects.

Team building issues have wider implications and all aspects should be explored while deciding interventions. There are a variety of approaches but generally content based approaches, process based approaches and mixed approaches are used. Depending upon the diagnosis, the theme and competence of the facilitator, methodologies are chosen. Sometimes, 'Problem Solving' approach is used in team building intervention where the team / teams are facing some difficult problem.

The team or work group is the primary unit in the organization, and there is an increasing reliance on project teams, task force groups, and committee to accomplish organization goals. Work teams may be of two basic types. The first type, the natural work team, refers to people joining together because of related jobs or the structure of the organization design. The second type, the temporary task team, refers to group meeting for limited periods of time to work on a specific project or problem, and after the solution to the problem they disband. As task teams are designated to work on organizational and technological problem, there is an increasing need for collaboration of wide variety of resources that are brought together. Collaboration does not automatically happen, but it is possible with the help of team development techniques.

Probably the most important single group of interventions in OD is that of the team building activities, the goals of which are the improvement and increased effectiveness of various teams within the organization. Some interventions focus on the family group, an intact, permanent work team composed of a boss and subordinates; other interventions focus on special teams such as "start-up" teams, newly constituted teams due to mergers and organization structure changes, task forces and committees. The team building interventions are typically directed towards four major substantive areas: diagnosis, task accomplishment, team relationships, and team and organization process. Some of the major team building interventions are:

5.2.2 Family Group Diagnostic Meetings

This process, which has been described by a number of authors, is aimed at getting a general "reading" on the overall performance of the group – including current problems that should be worked on in the future (Beer, 1976; French & bell, 1978). This technique allows the work group to get away from the work itself and gather data about its current performance and to formulate plans for future action. The immediate supervisor of a work group discusses the concept with the process consultant; if both agree that there is a need for such an approach, the idea is discussed with the group to obtain member's reaction.

If reactions are favorable, the leader may ask the group, prior to the meeting, to consider areas in which performance is good and areas that need to be improved upon. The consultant may, in advance of a general meeting, interview some or all members of the work group to gather preliminary data or merely ask all members to think about these and similar problems. Then, the group assembles for a meeting that may last an entire day.

The diagnostic data is made public in this meeting. This data can be presented in a number of ways. One way is to bring the total group together for a discussion, another way is to break the group into smaller groups in which more intensive discussion can take place and has the subgroup report back to large group. A third way is to pair-up the individuals, discuss their ideas and report back to entire group. Finally, the consultant can feed back to the group his or her diagnostic data and determine whether they are correct and relevant.

After the data have been made publicly; the issues are identified and categorized; categories might include, for example, planning interdepartmental scheduling, and tight resources. Next, the group begins to develop action plans. The primary objective of the family group diagnostic meeting is to bring problems and issues that need to be worked on to the surface. Taking specific action is usually reserved for a later time.

The advantage of the family group diagnostic meeting is that it allows a group to participate in generating the data necessary to identify its own strength, weaknesses and problem areas. A key issue is making certain that the participants recognize that their primary objective is to identify problems rather than to solve them.

5.2.3 Family Group Team-Building Meetings

The family group team-building meeting takes place within an individual's "family" work group. Team Development concerns the attempt to assist the work group in learning, with the help of process consultants, to identify, diagnose, and solve its own problems. The problems may involve the task or activities the group must perform, the process by which it goes about accomplishing the tasks, or interpersonal conflict between two or more work team members.

The first intervention is to gather data through the use of questionnaires and interviews. The nature of data gathered will vary, depending upon the purpose of the team-building programme, the consultant's knowledge about the organization and its culture, and the individuals involved. The data usually includes information on leadership styles and behaviors, goals and objectives, and decision making processes; such variables of organizational culture as trust, communication patterns, and interpersonal relationships and processes; barriers to effective group functioning; and task and related technical problems.

The group meeting is held away from the organization to reduce the number of interruptions and other pressures that might inhibit the information that has been collected. This information is usually categorized by major themes. The group must establish the agenda by placing priorities on these themes. Based on his or her knowledge of the data and the group, the consultant may help in setting the agenda or may act solely as a process observer, feeding back to the group his or her observations of what the group is doing. During the meeting, the group should develop action plans for becoming more effective. Frequently, merely discussing the barriers leads to improving the effectiveness of the group. One meeting, however, is rarely enough to effect major changes. Instead, a series of meetings are usually needed to assure permanent changes.

5.2.4 Role Negotiation Technique

Role Negotiation, a technique developed by Roger Harrison is directed at the work relationship among group members. The technique basically involves a series of controlled negotiation between participants. In the course of the role negotiation, managers frankly discuss what they want from each other and explain why. The steps of the role negotiation include the followings:

- A. **Contract Setting:** Each member prepares a list for each other member with three headings: things to do more, things to do less, and things to do the same.
- B. **Issue Diagnosis:** Each member writes out a master list combining the lists written about him or her and this list is posted on the wall. Members are then asked to clarify any items that need explanation.
- C. **Role Negotiation:** After the clarification, members decide which items they want most and sit down in pairs to negotiate, usually with a third party to assist in the process.
- D. **Written Role Negotiation Agreement:** The outcome of the role negotiation is a set of written agreements spelling out the agreements and the concessions, which each party finds satisfactory.

5.2.5 Grid Organization Development Programme

This is the second phase of the Grid OD. The focus of this team is work team organization. The goal is perfecting teamwork in the organization through analysis of team culture, traditions, and the likes and also developing skills in planning, setting objectives and problem solving. Additional aspects of this phase include feedback given to each manager about his or her individual and team behavior; this critique allows the manager to understand how others see his or her strength and weaknesses in team working. Working on teamwork is done in the context of actual work problem. The problems and issues dealt with are the real ones of the team. In this process of phase 2, individuals learn how to study and manage the culture of their work team.

5.3 Role Analysis

Role analysis is a technique used for clarifying and prioritizing the expectations of significant 'role senders' from a 'role occupier/holder'. A 'role' is the pattern of behavior expected by others from a person occupying a certain position in an organizational hierarchy. A 'role holder' is a person occupying a role, and 'role senders' are those persons who have some significant expectations from the role occupier. Dr. Udai Pareek and Dr. TV Rao have clarified a few related terms. According to them, a position or 'office' becomes a 'role' when it is defined by various expectations from that position.

Thus, the role definition is different from job description, the latter is static and impersonal but role definition is dynamic and personal. Personal qualities, growth, perceptions, motivations, ambitions, values, environmental instability are some of the factors determining a role. Success of an individual in a role largely depends upon the

clarity of objectives. Role analysis helps in establishing this clarity. An approach for conducting role analysis has been given in this unit.

Decision to Carry Role Analysis: ‘Role Analysis’ is a complex exercise affecting many persons and activities, and therefore, should be initiated after ensuring the support of Top Management. Some important aspects to be divided are:

- Coverage in terms of function and level;
- Time frame for conducting the studies;
- Engagement of consultant;
- Identification and training of internal resource persons;
- Commitment for Budgets and resources; Development/updating of systems/procedures, work instructions and Changes in delegation of powers, if required; and
- The Core Task Force Coordinator.

Constitution of the Core Task Force: The role analysis exercise should always be carried out by a group of managers, as such, it is essential to constitute a Core task force. This ‘Core task force’ should bear the approval of the top management and consist of members from different functions. For multi unit organizations, the Core task force will be overall responsible for role analysis exercise through out the organization but at each unit and division, a separate core task force will be constituted. The members of the core task force should be given adequate training in role analysis by some internal or external consultants if required.

Selection of Positions / Persons for Role Analysis: Role analysis exercise preferably should be conducted for top / senior level positions in the beginning and gradually it can come down to lower levels of management. A list of positions/managers selected for role analysis exercise should be made indicating their names, staff numbers and place of posting. The job descriptions of the executives / managers (positions selected as above) will be carefully prepared. This will indicate the main work areas and responsibilities for each of the position.

Constitution of Specific Task Forces: depending upon the coverage, specific task forces should be constituted for carrying out the Role analysis activities in specific levels / positions. Task forces should be constituted with some members from the Corporate Task Force and some from the concerned area and important interfacing area.

Identification of Role Senders: For each of the positions selected for role analysis, role senders should be identified. Role senders are those persons who have some work related expectations from the position or role. A list of role senders for each of the positions selected should be prepared.

Collection of Role Expectations: A format will be prepared for each of the positions/roles to be studied. A copy of this format should be sent to all the role senders identified for that position. The role senders may be superiors, colleagues, and subordinates, customers in his own department or other departments. The role senders will be requested to send the filled up format by the specified date. For each of the

positions/roles, the formats duly filled up by the role senders will be collected and the task force members will discuss the same. A summary for each of the positions/roles will be prepared in another format after resolving the discrepancies and discussions with the role senders and their superior. Thus, the main functions/activities required to be carried out by the concerned role occupier will be outlined and prioritized in the second format.

Defining Key Performance Areas (Role Definition): Activities which are bearing highest priority will be identified from the above mentioned format and entered into format no. 03 in decreasing order of importance. These are the key performance areas for that specific role. This will be done by the task force members but the concerned manager will also be involved. These key performance areas provide the role definition for that particular role.

Identification of Competencies Required for Carrying out the Roles Effectively: Effectiveness of a person in the role depends on so many factors and one of the major factors is the competencies possessed by the person occupying that role. 'Competency' is a word which has been used by different people with different meaning. Here the term competency has been used to include all the characteristics which are related to effective and or superior performance of a person in a role and includes the necessary knowledge, skills and abilities. Abilities include qualities, attributes, sets of values and beliefs and attitudes which would lead to effective performance in that role. For managerial positions, the competencies can be identified in each of the following aspects.

- **Technical/Functional requirements:** Methods, Systems, Procedures, Techniques
- **Managerial/Administrative requirements:** – Planning, Organizing, Coordinating, Monitoring, Controlling, Supervising.
 - Strategic / Conceptual requirements.
 - Envisioning, environmental understanding, analyzing and prioritizing, resource allocation and mobilization, decision making, developing strategies.
- **Behavioral:** Personal/inter-personal effectiveness, Leadership, Team Building, Goal setting, Motivating, Counseling, Developing, Delegating.

Identifying the Gaps between the Capabilities Possessed and Required: After identification of the important competencies for a particular role, gap in competencies will be identified by comparing with the competencies possessed by the role occupier. This can be done by the self analysis by the role occupier, use of some bench marks or instruments, assessment centers or evaluation by the superior. If there is an appropriate HRD climate, this exercise will be quite easy; otherwise, people will experience various types of difficulties and differences. The HRD Department normally has experts in Personnel assessment and their contribution would be valuable in carrying out this activity. Gaps will be thus identified and prioritized for each role. An inventory of gaps for each of the roles will be prepared.

Plans and Activities for Development: After prioritizing the gaps in competencies for various roles, strategies for enhancing those competencies would be prepared jointly by the role occupier, his superior and the HRD professional. Various alternatives for

enhancing the competencies may be education, training, deputation to another activity, nominations in cross functional teams, coaching etc.

As mentioned earlier, the concept of role is dynamic. As such, periodically, the role definition should be updated. If implemented sincerely, role analysis will become a valuable tool for identifying suitable incumbents for placement on important jobs, career planning and succession planning. This will also prove to be one of the most effective methods of identifying the training and development needs and infusing achievement orientation in the role holders.

Role analysis can also trigger efforts for organizational restructuring, Job redesign, Process re-engineering and design, outsourcing of managerial activities, review of Personnel policies, Delegation of Powers etc. This will be most useful for other HRD activities.

5.4 Process Consultation

Process consultation represents an approach or a method for intervening in an ongoing system. A fundamental assumption underlying process consultation is that the group is the building block of the organization. Groups are the basic unit of change. The group may be either permanent or pulled together temporarily for a special purpose. Secondly, some group conflict may be appropriate at times, although at other times it may be inappropriate and need to be reduced or eliminated. Thirdly, a skilled party can help the group in joint diagnosis and problem solving so that the group will eventually become more adept at using its own resources to identify and solve problems. Such problems may involve the task, the group is to perform, the process by which it accomplishes the task, or interpersonal conflict between two or more group members.

Schein defines process consultation (PC) as “a set of activities on the part of the consultant, which help the client to perceive, understand and act upon process events, which occur in the clients’ environment”, (Schein, 1969). The process consultant does not offer expert help in the sense of giving solutions to problems as in the doctor-patient model. Rather, the process consultant observes groups in action and helps them diagnose the nature and extent of their problems and to work together by learning to solve their own problems. After reviewing a number of contributions made by Argyris, Foster (1972) suggests that Argyris uses process consultation to bring about the following types of behavioral improvement and change:

- (1) Owning up to or accepting responsibility for personal ideas and feelings,
- (2) being open to the ideas and feelings of others and to one’s own feelings;
- (3) experimenting with new ideas and feelings, and
- (4) helping others to own up – to be open to experimenting with their own ideas and feelings

The stages of process consultation follow those described for action research: entering, defining the relationship, selecting an approach, gathering data and making a diagnosis, intervening, reducing the involvement, and terminating the relationships. However, when

used in process consultation, their stages are not as clear-cut, since any one of the steps constitutes an intervention. Merely by conducting some preliminary interviewing with group members, the process consultant has intervened. By being interviewed, the members may begin to see the situation in a new light.

Since process consultation can lead to the use of other OD strategies, the consultation process could start at the highest level of the organization so that the effect can be as far reaching as possible. The **process** deals primarily with five important organizational areas.

1. **Communication:** One of the process consultant's areas of interest is the nature and style of the communication, at both overt and covert levels- who talks to whom, for how long and how often. The consultant often keeps a time log of how often and to whom people talk. He also notes as to who talks and who interrupts. These interruptions are one of the most effective ways of reducing communications and decreasing participation in a meeting. Body language and other non-verbal behaviors can often be highly informative.

2. **Functional Roles of Group Members:** The process consultant must be keenly aware of the different roles of individual members take on in a group. Both upon entering and while remaining in a group, the individual must determine a self-identity; Influence and power that will satisfy personal needs while working to accomplish group goals. Preoccupation with individual needs and power struggles can severely reduce the effectiveness of a group, and unless the individual can, to some degree, expose and share those personal needs, the group is unlikely to be productive. Therefore, the process consultant must help the group to comfort and work through these needs. Whenever an individual, usually the leader, says to the group, "Let's stick with the facts" it is usually a sign that the emotional needs of group members are not being satisfied and, indeed, are being disregarded as irrelevant.

Two other functions that need to be performed if the group is to be effective are:

(a) **Task-related activities**, such as giving and seeking information and elaborating, coordinating, and evaluating activities; and

(b) **The group-maintaining function**, which is directed toward holding the group together as a cohesive team and includes encouraging, harmonizing, compromising, setting standards and observing. Most ineffective groups do little group maintenance. This is a primary reason for bringing in a process observer.

3) **Problem Solving and Decision Making:** To be effective, a group must be able to identify problems, examine alternatives, and make decisions. Group often fail to distinguish between problems (either task related to interpersonal) and symptoms. Once the group identifies the problem, the process consultant can help the group analyze its approach, restrain the group from reacting too quickly and making a premature diagnosis, or suggest additional options. Once a problem has been identified, a decision must be made; one way of making a decision is to ignore a suggestion. A second method is to give decision making power to the person in authority. Decisions can also be made by the

majority rule consensus, or unanimous consent. The process consultant can help the group understand how it makes its decision and the consequences of each decision process, as well as have diagnose, which type of decision process may be the most effective in a given situation. Decision by unanimous consent, for example, may be ideal in some circumstances, but may be too time consuming or costly in other situation.

4) *Group Norms and Growth:* Especially if a group of people works together over a period of time, they develop group norms or standards of behavior about what is good or bad, allowed or forbidden, right or wrong. They may be explicit norms that group members are free express their ideas and feelings, whereas the implicit norm is that one does not contradict the ideas or suggestions of certain members (usually the more powerful ones) of the group. The process of consultant can be very helpful in assisting the group to understand the articulate its own norms and whether these norms are helpful or dysfunctional. By understanding its norms and recognizing which ones are helpful, the group can grow and deal realistically with its environment, make optimum use of its own resources, and learn from its own experiences.

5) *Leadership and Authority:* A process consultant can help the group understand and cope with different leadership styles and help the leader to adjust his or her style to fit the situation. Therefore, a leader must gain a better understanding of his or her own behavior and the group's reaction to that behavior. It is also important that the leader becomes aware of alternative behaviors. After, for example, gaining a better understanding of his or her assumptions about human behavior, she or he may do a better job of testing these assumptions and perhaps changing them.

For each of the five areas of process consultation activity, a variety of interventions may be used. These interventions are of following types:

(a) **Agenda setting interventions** include the following:

- Questions that direct attention to interpersonal issues.
- Process analysis periods.
- Agenda review and testing procedures.
- Meetings devoted to interpersonal processes.
- Conceptual inputs on interpersonal process topics.

Agenda setting interventions are designed to make the group sensitive to its own internal processes and to generate interest in analyzing these processes.

(b) **Feedback of data observations** include the following:

- Feedback to groups during process analysis or regular work time.
- Feedback to individuals after meetings or data-gathering sessions.

In order to give feedback to a group, the consultant must first observe relevant events, ask the proper questions, and make certain that the feedback is given to the client system in a usable manner. The process consultant's feedback must be specific, timely, and descriptive. The consultant must avoid creating resistant in the client, while , at the same

time, helping the client use the feedback to learn more about activities that reduce the group's effectiveness or inhibit individuals satisfaction.

(c) **Coaching or Counseling** of individuals or groups help them learn to observe and process their own data, accept and learn from the feedback processes, or become active in identifying and solving their own problems. Schein sees the consultant's role in coaching and counseling situations to be the following, "The consultant's role then becomes one of adding alternatives to those already brought up by the client, and helping the client to analyze the costs and benefits of various alternatives which have been mentioned (Schein, 1969)." Thus the consultant, when counseling either individuals or groups, continues to maintain the posture that real improvement and changes in behavior should be those decided upon by the client. The consultants serves to reflect or mirror accurate feedback, to listen to alternatives and suggest new ones (often through questions designed to expand the client's horizon), and to assist the client in evaluating alternatives for feasibility, relevance and appropriateness.

(d) **Structural suggestion** pertaining to the following:

- Group membership
- Communication of interaction patterns
- Allocation of work, assignment of responsibility, and lines of authority.

5.5 Job Design

Job design has been a concern for managers for many years, but it was Frederick Taylor, in 1911, who proposed the scientific design of a job. The scientific management tended to break a job down into its smallest and simplest tasks in order to reduce the human error, the training and the skill required to accomplish the task. Through time and motion studies, it was expected that productivity would increase. There was little regard for the human element other than to make sure that it was adequately controlled and supervised. More recently, organizations are discovering there is often a high price today in the form of absenteeism, turn over, apathy, poor work quality, or even sabotage, when the human element is not considered.

The current trend is to redesign jobs to improve worker satisfaction and productivity. There are, however, no easy solutions to redesigning jobs because there are too many variables: the worker, the nature of the work, the organization climate, and the manager's styles. Some of the approaches to redesign the job are:

Job Enlargement Theory: In the 1950's, there was a growing awareness of worker's reactions to their fragmented jobs. Production methods were criticized by management scholars as inconsistent with human needs. Mass production systems did not provide workers with opportunities to socialize on the job or to satisfy their needs for achievement, self-expression, creativity and control.

Such employee problems as absenteeism, turn over, low morale, and low productivity were said to be partially related to the boredom and monotony created by these

specialized and reutilized jobs. An early reaction to his situation by practicing managers and scholars was to introduce job rotation and job enlargement. Job rotation means rotating individual workers among different jobs; job enlargement is a job design strategy that increases task elements on a horizontal level. That is, the content of the job is increased, and the workers thus perform a major work unit rather than a fragmented job. The purpose of job rotation and job enlargement is to reduce the boredom and monotony that arise from performing a fragmented job repetitively.

Job Enrichment Theory: This theory holds that jobs should be redesigned to improve the motivators related to a job by permitting employees to attain increased level of responsibility and achievement. Employees can also be given appropriate recognition and advancement in their careers for a job well done. And certainly the work itself should be challenging, interesting, and meaningful. There are numerous techniques for improving those motivational factors and they will have to be tailored to fit specific situations. Several suggestions include:

- a) Give an employee or a work group a natural and complete unit of work.
- b) Add more difficult assignment to an employee's job while providing appropriate training.
- c) Give an employee additional authority. For example, an employee could be allowed to make increasingly more important or difficult decisions.
- d) Allow a peer in a work group or team to become an expert in a specialized area. Very likely, a work team could have several specialists that other employees could go to for information and help.
- e) Make information directly available to an employee instead of editing or censoring the information. This is particularly important where the information is related to employee's work.
- f) Remove controls over an employee while still holding the employee accountable.

Job Characteristics Theory: Another approach to job design is the job characteristics model provided by JR Hackman, G.R. Oldham, R. Janson and k. Purdy (1975). This model attempts and develops objective measures of job characteristics, which can directly affect employee attitudes and work behavior.

According to this model, work motivation and satisfaction are affected by five core job dimensions:

- (1) **Skill Variety:** refers to the degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities that involve the use of a number of different skills and talents. Tasks that require a person to draw upon several different skills, are changed, are usually seen as meaningful by employees.
- (2) **Task Identity:** refers to the degree to which the job requires completion of a whole or identifiable piece of work; doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome. All employees will probably feel a task to be more meaningful if it entails producing the entire product rather than a small component.

(3) **Task Significance:** refers to the degree, to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives of other people, whether in the same organization or in the external environment. Work will likely to be more meaningful when an employee perceives the results to have substantial effect on other people.

(4) **Autonomy:** refers to the degree to which the job produces substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out. Generally, employees will have greater commitment to and their jobs when they are provided with autonomy over their work.

(5) **Job Feedback:** refers to the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the individual obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance. The five core dimensions are mathematically combined to derive the score that reflects the motivational potential of a job.

High scores in skill variety, task identity, and task significant results in employee experiencing meaningfulness in the job, such as believing the work to be important, valuable and worthwhile. A high score in autonomy leads to an employee feeling personally responsible and accountable for the result of the work he or she performs. And a high score in job feedback is an indication that the employee has an understanding of how he or she is performing the job.

5.6 Quality Circles (QC)

Quality circle is basically a participative quality management technique normally applied in production line situations. QC uses the suggestion of small work groups with common interest as the vehicle for bringing about improvement in product quality.

Quality circles are voluntary groups of employees who meet together periodically (normally weekly or monthly) to discuss, analyze and propose solution s to mutually shared quality problems. There are normally 3 elements in a QC the members, group leader and a facilitator. Generally there are 3 to 15 volunteers who are either from the same work area or have similar jobs, thus having a common set of problems. A regularly scheduled meeting is generally preferred to holding a meeting only when there is a problem. The meetings are held on company time and while the number of meetings vary with organizations, it is normal to meet once a month for four hours or once a week for one hour. The members receive training in group process, communication skills, problem solving, statistical techniques and quality control.

The leader (who may be a supervisor or an informal leader of a team) acts as a moderator and direct the activities of the QC. The leader receives special training in participative leadership techniques, motivation, communications, and group process. The facilitator is employed by the company as an expert consultant and is not a member of the QC *per se*. The facilitator trains QC leaders and members, helps solve internal group problems, leads the initial meetings, acts as a liaison with upper management and other QC teams, and encourages the QC process. The facilitator may also serve as a resource person by helping in team locate information within the organization and provide special skill

training to the members. Middle and the upper management are involved by providing their support and approving and implementing the proposals made by the QC teams.

Organizations that have QC processes normally have implemented them only in selected areas. Large Corporation in product areas where there is special concern about quality control such as aerospace; and in industries plagued by productivity and quality control problems, such as the automobile and electronic industries have implemented QC programmes. The QC process normally has been implemented on the production line, with line workers and first line supervisors as members. Middle and upper management are not members as a QC team.

5.7 Summary

At the outset of the unit, we discussed the meaning and scope of OD intervention. Subsequently a selected set of such techniques like, process consultation, team building, and role analysis have been discussed which are being used by various organizations which have the requirement for transformation from within because of the various changes faced by the organizations both from inside as well as outside.

5.8 Self Assessment Questions

- 1 Explain the meaning of OD Intervention.
- 3 What is the difference between job enrichment and job enlargement?
- 4 What do you mean quality circles?
- 5 What are the 5 core job dimensions that affect motivation and satisfaction?

5.9 Reference Books

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Unit 6: Inter-Group Interventions

Unit Structure

- 6.0 Objectives
- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Confrontation Meetings
- 6.3 Organizational Mirroring
- 6.4 T-Group Training
- 6.5 Structural Interventions
- 6.6 Self Assessment Questions
- 6.7 Reference Books

6.0 Objectives

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand the meaning of an OD intervention,
- Learn the range of inter group interventions,
- Learn deeply a few selected inter group interventions.
- Understand the different range of structural Interventions

6.1 Introduction

Any team exists in environment and has interaction with several other teams within and outside the organization. Thus the teams may have different issues/ processes within the organization and focus may also be different. One intervention technique originally developed by Robert Blake, Herb Shepard, and Jane Mouton (1964) is termed inter group team building or confrontation. Key members of conflicting groups meet for the purpose of working on issues on interface. An interface is any point at which contact between groups is essential to achieve results (Blake & Mouton, 1983). The groups may be two interdependent organization elements, such as architects and engineers, purchasing and production, or accounting and other department heads.

Role- playing is a frequently used method for gaining cross-group understanding. As in all confrontation, the third party consultant must intervene to open communication, balance power, and shift from hostile to problem solving confrontation. These groups have been widely used, but there is little evidence to determine how effective they are in reducing sources of conflict. Such inter group team building meetings usually take 1 or 2 days. Members are brought together to reduce misunderstanding, to open communication, and to develop mechanisms for collaboration. The purpose of this is to clear out any team issues or “garbage” prior to getting to work on interface problems.

6.2 Confrontation Meetings

Originally developed by Beckhard, this OD intervention is used for identifying and prioritizing problems in organizations and beginning the working on the solution of the problems by involving many people. The inter group confrontation meetings usually involve the following steps:

Step 1: The two work groups separately make three lists: How do we see ourselves?; How do we think department B sees us? and How do we see department B? The lists are prepared on sheets of newsprint and are written in large legible print and then taped to the wall.

Step 2: The groups then meet together. A spokesperson for each group presents that group's list. While department A, for example, is making its presentation, department B may not defend itself or argue, or rebut; but it does have the opportunity to clarify questions.

Step 3: The groups then meet separately to discuss the discrepancies in perception and react to the feedback. The feedback allows for correcting perceptions and behaviors to a more effective mode.

Step 4: In the next phase, subgroups of five or six are formed by mixing members of groups A and B. Those cross-groups have the objectives of agreeing upon a diagnosis of interface problems and the development of conflict-reducing or problem-solving alternatives with action plans and follow-up activities. Together, the groups develop an action plan for solving problems and assigning responsibilities for the action plan.

Step 5: Usually, a follow-up meeting is scheduled for a future date to evaluate progress and to make sure that the actions have achieved their purpose.

It is apparent that such interventions do aid in lessening inter group conflicts, possibly as a result of the Hawthorne effect. The fact that a consultant and both groups are interested in resolving the issues may lead to improved relations.

Confrontation meeting can be held for Department / Function level and/or organization problems identification and solution. Different techniques may be used for problem identification, generation of alternative solutions, prioritization of alternative solutions and choice of appropriate solution etc. Generally such meetings are of 6-8 hours duration but depending upon the nature of problems, may be of longer durations having a few days gap between two meetings if one is not adequate.

The typically used steps have been indicated as given below.

- 1) Convening a meeting of representatives of all departments in the organization.
- 2) Assuring and motivating the participants to be open, free and frank in communication, and giving a brief presentation on the need and importance of problem identification and working for solution in groups.
- 3) Dividing participants in small groups (5-7) and asking them to identify problems which are inhibiting their own and organizational performance.

- 4) Convening all groups together and makes presentations of the identified problems.
- 5) Distributing copies of problems to be given to each participant and using an appropriate method. Problems are classified into different groups such as Human, Economical, Structural, Technological etc.
- 6) Prioritizing the problems involving the entire participants arranging and synthesizing the problems for more meaningful understanding.
- 7) Facilitating the participants to collectively select a few problems for solution.
- 8) Dividing participants into groups according to the classification and nature of the problems and assigning them time to bring an approach for solution (or solution) with an action plan.
- 9) Convening the groups and making presentations by each group and incorporating modification wherever required.
- 10) Getting the approaches and solutions examined by the top management and getting their decision on future course of action making a follow up and implementation plan and formal communication in this regard.
- 11) Preparing follow up plan. This intervention is very simple and needs a good internal or external facilitator. The climate building is crucial for success because conducive environment will encourage the participants to give their ideas without any fear.

6.3 Organizational Mirroring

This is an intervention, which is used by a section (department / function etc.) of an organization to collect the perception of other relevant sections of the organization with the aim of improving its performance, image and relationships with other sections.

In a large multi unit company the Corporate Personnel Department wanted to know the perception of the unit Personnel Department and a few other significant departments. For this a Consultant (in this case internal) was invited and briefed. With the help of the Consultant and senior executives of Corporate Personnel, a few significant clients (customers) of Corporate Personnel Department were identified —

- Corporate Finance
- Personnel Department of Major Units
- Personnel Department of a few sites
- Shop Floor (Production) Deptt.
- Training Department
- Trade Union representatives

Representatives (2-3 from each of these departments) were invited for a Workshop on a specified date. From Corporate Personnel, the head along with group leaders and a few others were the hosts. The Consultant had separately interviewed some representatives of

each of the client group including the host group and collected relevant information regarding expectations from host group and their perceptions about the host group.

In the beginning of the Workshop, the Head of the Corporate Personnel welcomed all representatives and explained that the Corporate Personnel wanted to bring in improvement in their performance and satisfaction of the internal customers. He assured that all the perceptions and impressions will be taken in a real positive way and requested to give free and frank opinion.

The Consultant divided the representatives in 7 groups and asked them to discuss and bring out their perceptions about functioning of the Corporate Personnel covering both the positive and negative aspects. He also emphasized that the perceptions should be data based, objective and should be prepared keeping in view the requisites of effective feedback.

The host groups were also asked to bring out their perception of their own performance.

After 40 minutes, all groups were called in the hall and the representatives of Corporate Personnel (group leaders) sat in the Centre and around them, the members of other groups were made to sit. The host group request outside groups to tell them their perception. A person was assigned the task of noting down the points on white board. By turns each group shared their perception. In case of confusion, the host group was seeking clarification. Members also interacted with each other in a controlled manner.

After completion of sharing by every group, the hosts summarized and divided the main themes of perceptions in three parts:

- a) positive perceptions (appreciation)
- b) negative perceptions and
- c) main expectations (from Corporate Personnel)

Once again, the total participants were divided into 4 groups by the Consultant and every group was asked to identify and prioritize issues / areas of improvement of the performance of Corporate Personnel. After 30 minutes, the groups were once again convened and presentations were made by the representatives of each group. Thereafter, a core group was constituted which identified key issues and presented to the whole group. Once the issues were discussed, consensus was arrived at and an action plan was prepared for implementation. The method used in this exercise is a simple example of 'Organizational Mirroring.'

'Organizational mirroring' intervention is very effective in improving performance and optimizing the inter-departmental / inter-functional relationships. The facilitator (Consultant) intervenes for creating a conducive, non-threatening climate, eliciting desired information, making process observations to make group process more effective and crystallizing the issues.

6.4 T-Group Training

T-Group (Training Group) is a small unstructured group in which the participants learn from their own inter-actions and evolving dynamics about issues pertaining to inter-personal relations, group dynamics and leadership. This is also primarily known as Sensitivity training and is a training approach based on experiential learning.

In a group, around 10-12 participants assemble together and work with a facilitator to discover something about themselves — their strengths, styles, inter-personal relationships, participation in the group, how they are perceived by others etc. The group does not have any pre-determined agenda and evolves its own agenda over the time. The participants act as a resource to each other and help in creating a climate, which is conducive to discovery through the data generated in the group. The group evolves like a laboratory where learning takes place mainly through experiencing, reflecting, hypothesizing, experimenting and conceptualizing rather than through lectures.

The individual is encouraged to express oneself and increase one's personal and inter-personal effectiveness in the group setting.

T-Group Training normally adopts two paths (directions):

- i) To gain deeper understanding about self and personal growth (inter-personal focus); and
- ii) to explore group dynamics and relationship between members. This leads to team building interventions (Interpersonal and organizational focus).

Every T-Group is organized with some objectives. The following are some of the objectives frequently set for T-Groups:

- Enhance understanding about self, gain insights into one's own behavior and its impact on others including the ways in which these are interpreted by others.
- Enhance the understanding and awareness about others' behavior (thoughts, feelings and actions).
- Enhance the understanding and awareness of group and inter-group processes; processes that facilitate and inhibit group effectiveness.
- Identify and develop greater awareness of behavioral processes associated with one's life.
- Increasing diagnostic skills in inter-personal and inter-group situations.
- Experimentation of new behaviors initiated during the lab.
- Improve one's effectiveness in inter-personal situations so as to derive greater satisfaction from them.
- Discover one's dormant potential to live more effectively and meaningfully.
- Increase ability to transform the learning into action etc.

Benefits of T-Group Training

The benefits of T-Group training may be enumerated at individual, group and organizational levels.

Individual Level

Many benefits of undergoing T-Group training have been reported and observed at the individual level. With the venting out of feelings bottled since long, the person becomes more spontaneous, tension free and is able to perceive things in more unbiased manner. The stress level decreases and thus the physical and mental health increases. He becomes more sensitive to himself, and is able to own up his feelings. This causes decrease in defensive behavior and clarity in perception. The hopefulness increases; the latent strengths and limitations become known which result in realistic and achievement oriented goal setting. One is able to look into and examine his self-concept realistically and takes appropriate steps for strengthening it. This enhances self-esteem. The capability to explore options increases and therefore the decision-making becomes more effective. The internal locus of control gets strengthened and the motivation to make efforts for achieving individual and organizational goals increases. The willingness to change and coping abilities increase.

Inter-personal Level

Due to increase in the insights to understand others, and enhanced self-esteem, communication with other persons becomes supportive resulting in productive relationships. Since the self-disclosure increases, one is able to get more feed back which keeps on increasing the arena (open) resulting in creation of a trusting and open relationship with others. Aggression and defensiveness decrease which help in developing better relationships and increased influence. People want to work together and thus the teamwork improves. The assertiveness (concern for self) and cooperativeness (concern for others) undergo enhancement resulting in collaborative behavior. Over dependence and counter dependence reduce and inter-dependence increases. It becomes easy to praise and give positive feedback to others, reduce the hostility towards others and receive feedback from others in a positive manner. All these aspects facilitate personal growth and effective inter-personal relations.

Organizational Level

T-Group training increases openness, trust realization and inter-dependence which help in creation of a conducive climate where everybody strives for realizing his potential. Hostility reduces and new and better ideas become available. The change interventions are better appreciated and if a large number of persons have undergone this training, the capability to cope with future challenges increases. Due to increase in the influencing ability, empathy and assertiveness, the leadership styles become more effective. The T-Group Training is not beneficial to Corporate Sector alone, it has been observed to be equally effective for persons engaged in the areas of Education, Health Services, Social Work and Industry. There are some Management Institute where the Postgraduate students compulsorily undergo T-Group training or Human Processes Labs or Personal

Growth Lab. It should not be misunderstood that this training is useful for Trainers/HRD Professionals only. This is one of the most effective interventions for Self Development / Personal Growth and is useful to all persons irrespective of their education or level in the organizational hierarchy. The leaders in various sectors who are instrumental in influencing and developing others will be especially benefited. Persons who are finding it painful and difficult to cope with the inter-personal, team, family, social or organizational set-up will experience this training as a unique opportunity. It is essential for those who are in the role of facilitators in various organizational efforts such as - HRDI, Organization development, Total Quality Management, Business Process Re-engineering, Quality Circle, Productivity Circles etc.

Some Basic Assumptions

T-Group functions under few assumptions:

- a) Learning is the responsibility of participants;
- b) The role of trainer is to facilitate the examination and understanding of the experiences in the group;
- c) Learning is largely a combination of experiences and conceptualization and uses the experiential learning cycle: “experiencing - publishing - processing - generalizing - applying - experiencing
- d) People’s learning is optimized when they establish authentic relationships with others; and
- e) The development of new skills (in working with people) is maximized as they examine the basic values, acquire concepts and theories, practice new behaviors and obtain feedback.

T-Group Trainer

A T-Group Trainer is called a ‘facilitator’. A facilitator is a process guide and makes a process easier or more convenient and guides the group towards a destination. It is difficult to enumerate the roles of a facilitator. One of the initial challenges in the role of the facilitator is his own leveling with the participants they should consider him a member of the group and not on a higher pedestal. He manages group by providing opportunities, alternatives, direction, setting standards and directing the communication. He ensures that the members understand the contents and processes actively and encourages them to reflect, interpret and explain what they are thinking and feeling. He helps them in processing and also occasionally in inferring and in this own way, gives meaning to their experiencing.

Members get emotionally charged, become aggressive, sad, angry, excited and in the state of emotional turbulence quite often, the facilitator may also have similar experiences. In such situations, the role of facilitator in handling his own and others’ feelings become critical. He may have to stimulate / manage the emotions by challenging and confronting; facilitate release of strong pent - up emotions and playing a catalyst for interactions. He has to design and use a variety of interventions, which would encourage

venting out of bottled feelings, dispelling apprehensions, and facilitate a free and frank sharing. In order to ensure that all these happen, a conducive group atmosphere will have to be created. Thus, relationship building is another important role of facilitator.

Developing Facilitators

Becoming a facilitator needs a lot of vigor and time. There is no academic qualification, which makes a facilitator; becoming facilitator is a tedious and time-consuming project. Indian Society for Applied Behavioral Science is the only Organization in India which develops accredited T-Group Trainers through different stages of a systematic programme.

The stages for being an accredited T-group trainer (facilitator) are:

- 1) Basic Human Process Laboratory (*One Week*)
- 2) Advances Human Process Laboratory (*One Week*)
- 3) Professional Development Programme - Phase A (*2 Weeks*)
- 4) Professional Development Programme - Phase B (*2 Weeks*)
- 5) Internship (*2 Weeks*)

A lot of inter-phase work is to be completed before progressing to the next stage right after stage No. 2. The progression to next stages is based on evaluation and recommendation.

T-Group training, in spite of its limitations is spreading fast. It is an indispensable intervention for Team Building and OD, HRD professionals with process competencies have been found to have a definite edge over others who have not acquired such competencies; and therefore T Group training has become one of the most important training outputs for them. Most of the Line Managers, who have undergone even one Laboratory (Basic Human Process Laboratory), have acquired some basic process competency and developed reasonable insights for understanding self and others have become more proactive, their relationship with others has increased and they have become better team leaders/members.

Many of the ex-participants have reported that they are facilitating HRD / OD / TQM / BPR initiatives more successfully after undergoing these laboratories. Increase in the coping skills, assertiveness, leadership effectiveness, persuasiveness, stress relieving etc., are some of the other benefits which have been reported. There are many individuals who have come out of their agonies, frustration and stagnation and are facing the challenges of life happily and successfully after undergoing process training. T-Group is the basic process training. At the organizational level - this has contributed tremendously in managing change. There are many organizations who have achieved their turn around, growth development and self renewal through process based interventions.

One of the severe limitations of T-Group training is availability of competent and Accredited Facilitators. ISABS has so far not produced more than 100 facilitators. Conducting T-Group Labs by non-accredited facilitators may not only jeopardize the effectiveness but also cause immense harm to the others.

6.5 Structural Interventions

One of the key issues facing organizations today is the way in which they respond to an environment of “World Class Competition”. OD interventions leading to improved productivity, efficiency and quality have evolved to help organizations to meet these challenges. The interventions are aimed to improving organizations’ effectiveness through changes in the task, structural and technological subsystems. This class of intervention including changes in the overall work organization is divided into units- who reports to whom, methods of control, the spatial arrangement of equipment and people, work flow and procedures, and role definitions. Some of these interventions include: job design, quality of work life, quality circle, management by objectives (MBO), socio-technical systems, collateral organizations and some interventions pertaining to ‘physical setting’. Some of these have been discussed in the previous unit.

6.5.1 Quality of Work Life (QWL)

Quality of Work Life (QWL) attempts to improve the quality of life for the worker. Industrialized life has traditionally placed its emphasis upon technological advancement, productivity and growth. The worker explicitly or implicitly, has been relegated to the role of a “factor of production,” together with land and capital. QWL is trying to meet the needs of an increasingly alienated worker.

The current view of QWL is that “it is a philosophy of managing the enterprise in general, and human resource in particular” (Zahra, 1983). Nadler and Lawler (1983) define QWL as ‘a way of thinking about people, work and organizations. Its distinctive elements are (1) a concern about the impact of work on people as well as on organizational effectiveness, and (2) the idea of participation in organizational problem solving and decision making.’ QWL is not limited to changing the context of the job; it also includes humanizing the work environment in order to improve worker dignity and self-esteem.

Richard E Walton (1973) in a paper presented to the conference on QWL has provided one of the better descriptions of an ideal QWL. He identifies eight major categories as a framework for analyzing quality of work life:

1. ***Adequate and Fair Compensation:*** Does the income from full-time employment meet society’s standard or the workers standard’s? Is the pay compatible with other types of work?
2. ***Safe and Healthy Working Conditions:*** Are the work conditions physically safe? Reasonable hours of work?
3. ***Immediate Opportunity to Use and Develop Human Capacities:*** Does the work allow the use of a wide range of skills? Does the work allow autonomy and self-control? Is relevant and meaningful information available? Does the work allow for planning?

4. ***Future Opportunity for Continued Growth and Security:*** Does the work permit growth of a person's capacity? Are there advancement opportunities to use newly acquired skills or knowledge? What is the employment or income security?
5. ***Social Information in the Work Organization:*** Is there freedom from prejudice? To what extent does the organization rely on status symbols and the hierarchy? Is there upward mobility? Is there interpersonal openness between members and support for each other?
6. ***Constitutionalism in Work Organization:*** Do the members have a right to personal privacy? Can members speak out without fear of reprisal from higher authority? Is there equitable treatment of members? Is there due process for grievances and complaints?
7. ***Work and Total Life Space:*** Does the work organization allow the members to have other life roles? What are the overtime requirements, travel demands and geographical moves?
8. ***The Social Relevance of Work Life:*** How does the worker perceive the responsibility of the organizational products, waste disposal? Marketing and selling techniques, employment practices, participation in political campaigns, attitude to laws and so on?

Walton's categories of QWL have been placed into four managerial dimensions (Zahra, 1983). The first dimension is challenging and meaningful jobs or job content. The second dimension is job context and includes enriching jobs to build motivation and commitment. The third dimension is job potential, which is the opportunity to learn new skills, opportunity for advancement in career paths and for security in the job. The fourth dimension of QWL is the social relevance of the work or the importance of an individual work to the well-being of society.

6.5.2 MBO and Appraisal

In organization goal setting and performance review, processes should have a team thrust and should be both participative and transactional. In this, the subordinates should have meaningful ways to provide inputs; and in reviewing performance, a collaborative examination of the major significant forces in the situation needs to be made, including the superior's and the team's impact in the subordinates' performance, not just an appraisal of the subordinate's performance.

MBO process evolve from a collaborative organization diagnosis and are systems of joint target setting and performance review designed to increase a focus on objectives and to increase the frequency of problem solving discussions between supervisors and subordinates and within work teams. A MBO programme should include the following ingredients:

1. A collaborative diagnosis of organizational problems from which it is concluded that a collaborative MBO effort would be functional.
2. Increased skills in interpersonal communications and group processes.

3. Real subordinate participation, in team configuration and goal setting.
4. A team approach to reviewing individual and group targets and their achievement.
5. Ongoing individual and team problem solving discussions with supervisors.
6. A continuous helping relationship within teams and in supervisor-subordinates relationship.
7. Attention to personal and career goals in a real effort to make these complementary to organizational goals.

The central focus of any MBO programme is the development of agreement between supervisor and subordinate about continuing objectives and targets.

Management by objectives may be described as a process consisting of a series of interrelated steps.

Step 1: The subordinate proposes a set of goals for the upcoming time period. This proposal sets forth specific goals and performance measures.

Step 2: The subordinates and supervisor jointly develop specific goals and targets. These goals must be specific, measurable objective for each area of responsibility, and subordinates and supervisor must mutually agree upon them. These objectives should include both performance goals and personal development goals.

Step 3: A period of performance in which actual performance of the individual involved is measured against his or her individual goals.

Step 4: The feedback of results to the individuals and appropriate rewards for performance. This individual performance review involves an appraisal of accomplishments and variance of overall performance compared with targets and is discussed by subordinates and supervisor.

Step 5: The outcome of the performance review provides the basis for setting new performance goals and recycling of the goal setting process.

6.5.3 Socio-technical Systems

Organization development may be referred to as a system approach to change. An organization is viewed as a socio-technical system of coordinated human and processes are not considered isolated elements but as parts reacting to and influencing other system elements. As a result, change in anyone subsystems of the organization can have effect throughout the organization, because all subsystems are related. The organization consists of five primary components.

1. ***The Structural Subsystem:*** This includes formal designs, policies, and procedures and so on. It is usually set forth by the organization chart and includes division of work and patterns of authority.
2. ***The Technical Subsystem:*** This includes the primary function, activities, and operations, including the techniques, equipment and so on, used to produce the output of the system.

3. ***The Psycho-social Subsystem:*** This includes the network of social relationships and behavioral patterns of members, such as norms, roles and communications.
4. ***The Goal Subsystems:*** This includes the basic mission of the organization. Such goals might include profits, growth or survival and are often taken from the larger environment.
5. ***The Managerial Subsystem:*** This subsystem spans the entire organization by directing, organizing and coordinating all activities towards the basic missions. The managerial function is important in integrating the activities of the other subsystems.

One of the earliest applications of the socio-technical systems concept was in British coal mining. The traditional “short wall” method utilized small, cohesive work groups working as autonomous teams. Technological advances by engineering efficiency experts determined that the short walled method was inefficient and introduced an improved technical system, termed the “long wall” method. Unfortunately, the long wall method resulted in lower performance and higher absenteeism. Production decreased because they had failed to consider the impact of the changes on psycho-social system. Researchers found, as a result of reintroducing a team approach and providing team pay incentives, the productivity and morale improved substantially.

The socio-technical systems OD approach is considered one of the most sophisticated techniques involving large-scale effort and considerable skill on the part of the OD consultant (Sashkin, 1984).

6.5.4 The Collateral Organization

The creation of task forces, a very frequent outgrowth of team-building and inter group interventions, can be considered structural interventions because these task forces supplement the structural subsystem. Task forces temporarily complement the way the organization is structured into units, the organization’s regular communications patterns, and its usual planning procedures.

The collateral organization, as described by Dale Zand, is essentially a task force but with some differences. The ‘collateral organization’, according to Zand, “is a supplement organization coexisting with the usual, formal organization.” It is created to deal with “ill structured” (complex, non-routine, and future-oriented) problems that have high priority and that are system made, involving more than one unit. In the collateral organization, a deliberate effort is made to develop a set of norms different from those in the formal system. In particular, “careful questioning and analysis of goals, assumptions, methods, alternatives, and criteria for evaluation” are encouraged. Use is made of a change agent, data gathering, data feedback, and process consultation (Zand, 1974).

6.5.5 Physical Settings and OD

Some consultants have been active in working with clients and in conceptualizing about how to make physical settings congruent with OD assumptions and the OD processes. According to Steele, physical settings are important parts of organization culture that work group learn to diagnose and manage and about which top management needs input

in the design of plants and buildings .Steele cites many instances in which physical settings were found to interfere with effective group and organizational functioning. For example, A personnel director promoted to senior vice-president, a position inheriting the incredible mandatory practice of having a secretary share the same office (which was supposed to signal high status) with the resulting lack of privacy and typewriter noise affecting the executive's ability to hold spontaneous meetings with employees.

Many OD consultants have long given considerable attention to the physical arrangements for team-building sessions, and Steele reinforces this approach by urging facilitators to include the dimensions and physical arrangement in their "process consultation" interventions.

While architecture and interior arrangement and design are not OD per se, both the approach used by Steele, which includes a strong emphasis on participative diagnosis, and the outcomes, which tend to meet client needs (e.g., enhancing team efforts when needed and privacy when needed) are highly congruent with OD. Steele's work is a notable example of some of the creative integration that has occurred between OD and other consultancy modes.

6.6 Self Assessment Questions

- 1 Explain the importance of Inter group Intervention.
- 2 Write short notes on:
 - a) Process consultation
 - b) Collateral organization
- 3 In which situations Organizational Mirroring is useful as an intervention?
- 4 What do you mean quality of work life?
- 5 What are the structural interventions?

6.7 Reference Books

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Unit - 7 : Structural Interventions

Structure of Unit

- 7.0 Objectives
- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Restructuring
- 7.3 Re-engineering
- 7.4 Employee Involvement
- 7.5 Job Design
- 7.6 Quality Circles
- 7.7 Quality of Work Life
- 7.8 Organizational Transformation
- 7.9 Summary
- 7.10 Self Assessment Questions
- 7.11 Reference Books

7.0 Objectives

After completing this unit, you would be able to:

- Understand the different types of Structural Interventions.
- Appreciate the need and approaches to Job Design.
- Understand the concepts of MBO and Socio-technical Systems.
- Develop step-wise the implementation of Quality Circles.
- Know the rationale and types of second order change in Transformation.

7.1 Introduction

Structural Interventions refer to interventions or change efforts aimed at improving organization effectiveness through changes in the task and structural and technological subsystems. These necessitate decisions about how to deliver products or services and how to link people to tasks. These include OD activities relating to organizational design, employee involvement and work design. This class of intervention includes changes in the division of overall work of the organization into units, reporting relationships, work flow and procedures, and role definitions, methods of control, and spatial arrangements of equipment and people, etc. OD methods for dealing with these structural and technological issues are called techno-structural interventions.

These interventions deal with an organization's technology (for examples its task methods and job design) and structure (for example, division of labor and hierarchy). These methods are becoming popular in OD because of the growing problems relating to productivity and organizational effectiveness. These interventions are rooted in the disciplines of engineering, sociology, and psychology and in the applied fields of socio-technical systems and organization design. Consultants place emphasis both on productivity and human fulfillment.

Certain contingencies which influence structural design include:

- **Organizational goals**—what is the vision, mission, objectives, targets to be achieved by employees of the organization.
- **Organizational size**—is the organization small, medium, or large; accordingly the structural interventions are designed
- **Operations**—is the organization operating at local, national, or global level.
- **Environment**—what are the environmental factors affecting the organization the most, i.e. political, economic, social, technological, legal, and natural environmental (PESTLE analysis).

7.2 Restructuring

This change process concerns the organization's division of labor and determines how to specialize task performances. It moves away from more traditional ways of dividing the organization's overall work (such as functional, self-contained-unit, and matrix structures) to more integrative and flexible forms (such as process-based and network-based structures). Diagnostic guidelines are used which exist to determine which structure is appropriate for particular organizational environments, technologies, and conditions.

Restructuring is the corporate management term for the act of reorganizing the legal, ownership, operational, or other structures of a company for the purpose of making it more profitable, or better organized for its present needs. Other reasons for restructuring include a change of ownership or ownership structure, or a response to a crisis or major change in the business such as bankruptcy, repositioning, or buyout. Restructuring may also be described as corporate restructuring, debt restructuring and financial restructuring. The basic nature of restructuring is a zero sum game. Strategic restructuring reduces financial losses, simultaneously reducing tensions between debt and equity holders to facilitate a prompt resolution of a distressed situation.

7.2.1 Characteristics of Restructuring:

The major characteristics of restructuring include the following:

- Cash management and cash generation during crisis.
- Sale of underutilized assets, such as patents or brands.
- Reorganization of functions such as sales, marketing, and distribution.
- Refinancing of corporate debt to reduce interest payments
- Improving the efficiency and productivity through new investments, R&D and business engineering.

7.2.2 Principles of Successful Restructuring:

The success of such an intervention is based on the following:

- Align structure to strategy

- Reduce complexity
- Focus on core activity
- Create feasible roles
- Balance ‘own work’ and ‘supervisory load’ of managers
- Implement with clarity
- Maintain flexibility

Downsizing

This intervention reduces costs and bureaucracy by decreasing the size of the organization through personnel layoffs, organization redesign, and outsourcing. Each of these downsizing methods must be planned with a clear understanding of the organization’s strategy. (Figure 7.1). Some of the downsizing tactics used by organizations are:

Tactic	Characteristic	Example
Workforce reduction	Reduces headcount Short-term focus Fosters transition	Attrition Retirement/buyout Layoffs
Organization redesign	Changes organization Medium-term focus Fosters transition & transformation	Eliminate layers Merge units Redesign tasks
Systemic	Changes culture Long-term focus Fosters transformation	Change responsibilities Foster continuous improvement Downsizing is normal

Figure 7.1 Downsizing Tactics Used By Organizations

7.3 Re-engineering

This radically redesigns the organization’s core work processes to create tighter linkage and coordination among the different tasks. This workflow integration results in faster, more responsive task performance. Reengineering is often accomplished with a new information technology that permits employees to control and coordinate work processes more effectively. Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) is an example of re-engineering introduced in organizations streamlines the systems and processes.

This recent intervention radically redesigns the organization's core work processes to create tighter linkage and coordination among the different tasks. This work-flow integration results in faster, more responsive task performance. Reengineering is often accomplished with new information technology that permits employees to control and coordinate work processes more effectively. Reengineering often fails if it ignores basic principles and processes of OD.

7.3.1 Process of Re-engineering: The process of re-engineering involves the following steps:

- Prepare the organization for the intervention
- Specify the organization's strategy and objectives so that they are aligned with the intervention
- Fundamentally rethink the way work gets done
 - Identify and analyze core business processes
 - Define the performance objectives
 - Design new processes to achieve those objectives
- Restructure the organization around the new business processes

7.3.2 Characteristics of Re-engineered Organizations

- Work units change of such organizations shift from functional departments to process teams
- Jobs change from simple tasks to multidimensional work
- People's roles change from controlled to empowered ones
- The focus of performance measures and compensation shifts from activities to results
- Organization structures change from hierarchical to flat ones
- Managers change from supervisors to coaches; executives change from scorekeepers to leaders

7.4 Employee Involvement

Employee Involvement is a management practices and philosophies that allow employees some measure of control over their immediate work environment and some degree of participation in strategic, administrative, and operational decision making. These interventions are aimed at improving employee well-being and organizational effectiveness.

7.4.1 Elements of Employee Involvement: The essential elements present in organizations implementing EI are:

- **Power**– The extent to which influence and authority are pushed down into the organization
- **Information**– The extent to which relevant information is shared with members
- **Knowledge and Skills**– The extent to which members have relevant skills and knowledge and opportunities to gain them i.e. the skills and knowledge
- **Rewards**– The extent to which opportunities for internal and external rewards are tied to effectiveness

Application	Power	Information	Knowledge & Skills	Rewards
Parallel Structures	Low	Moderate	Moderate	Low
High Involvement Organizations	High	High	High	High
Total Quality Management	High	High	High	High

Figure 7.2 Elements of EI vis-à-vis Application of EI

7.4.2 Employee Involvement Applications

The next three interventions: Parallel Structures, High-involvement organizations and Total Quality Management (TQM), fall under the broad category of interventions called Employee Involvement (EI) interventions. These interventions are aimed at improving employee well-being and organizational effectiveness.

- **Parallel Structures**

This intervention involves members in resolving ill-defined, complex problems and builds adaptability into bureaucratic organizations. These are also known as “*collateral structures*”, “*dualistic structures*” or “*shadow structures*”. These parallel structures operate in conjunction with the formal organization. They provide members with an alternative setting in which to address problems and to propose innovative solutions free from the formal organization structure and culture. Parallel structures facilitate problem solving and change by providing time and resources for members to think, talk, and act in completely new ways. Consequently, norms and procedures for working in parallel structures are entirely different from those of the formal organization.

Parallel organizations are designed to deal with problem areas like cost saving, productivity and quality, quality of working life, organization climate, strategic decisions and similar other productivity-related issues. The new structures facilitate continuous processes of gathering data, diagnosing problems, generating alternatives, making recommendations, monitoring and implementing change in specific problem areas.

Members of parallel structures may attend periodic off-site meetings to explore ways to improve quality in their work area or they may be temporarily assigned to a special project or facility to devise new products or solutions to organizational problems. For example, Special Task Force for Re-Branding an organization.

Modus Operandi of Parallel Learning Structure

- Look for existing, informal exchanges that naturally occur among staff members.
- Have interested parties convene and develop a mission statement or list the outcomes.
- Determine what support would facilitate the information exchange and learning.
- Publicize when and where the exchanges take place.

- Establish a process for organizing and recording the corporate knowledge.

Stages of Parallel Structures

- Define the parallel structure's purpose and scope
- Form a steering committee
- Communicate with organization members
- Form employee problem-solving groups
- Address the problems and issues
- Implement and evaluate the changes

Scanlon Plans: An Example of Parallel Structure

These are an excellent management tool since they aid in the understanding, implementation, and rewards function. The Scanlon Plan describes the establishment of two-way communication to help employees and management relate to each other, to their work, and to the goals of the organization. The Scanlon plan has been successfully used by a variety of public and private companies for many decades. These plans combine leadership, total workforce education, and widespread employee participation with a reward system linked to group and/or organization performance. The Scanlon plan is a gain sharing program in which employees share in pre-established cost savings, based upon employee effort. Formal employee participation is necessary with the Scanlon Plan, as well as periodic progress reporting and an incentive formula.

High Involvement Organizations (HIO's)

These interventions are aimed at creating organizations with high involvement of employees; support high levels of employee participation. The comprehensive nature of their design process is unique unlike parallel structures that do not alter the formal organization. In HIOs almost all organization features are designed jointly by management and workers to promote high levels of involvement and performance, including structure, work design, information and control systems, physical layout, personnel policies, and reward systems.

Employees in HIO's have considerable influence over decisions. Members receive extensive training in problem-solving techniques, plant operation, and organizational policies. Information is shared widely within the organization and employees have easy access to operational and issue-oriented information. And rewards are tied closely to unit performance.

Total Quality Management (TQM)

Total Quality Management is a philosophy of organization-wide commitment to continuous improvement which originated in Japan for the car assembly plants. It has a strong focus on teamwork, increasing customer satisfaction, and lowering costs. It is also known as "*continuous process improvement*" and "*continuous quality*".

TQM grew out of a manufacturing emphasis on quality control and represents a long-term effort to orient all of an organization's activities around the concept of quality. Quality is achieved when organizational processes reliably produce products and services that meet or exceed customer expectations. Although it is possible to implement TQM without employee involvement, member participation in the change process increases the likelihood that it will become part of the organization's culture.

The Diagnostic Model is Total Quality Management methods of analysis ensures statistical control of process to eliminate variations in order to reduce product variability i.e. enhance reliability and improve customer satisfaction. Interventions are Quality Control teams to harness employee knowledge and equip employees with process improvements tools for example, Six Sigma Method.

7.5 Job Design

Job design refers to the way that set of tasks, or an entire job, is organized. Job design helps to determine:

What are the tasks done, how they are done and what is the order in which they are done, etc. It takes into account all factors, which affect the work, and organizes the content and tasks so that the whole job is less likely to be a risk to the employee. This OD intervention is aimed at creating jobs, and work groups that generate high levels of employee fulfillment and productivity. Recently, organizations have tended to combine work design with formal structure and supporting changes in goal setting, reward systems, work environment, and other performance management practices. Work design suggests that:

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

A well designed job takes into account the basic principles of ergonomics that encourage a variety of 'good' body positions, have reasonable strength requirements and reasonable amount of mental activity. A well designed job also contributes to feelings of achievement and self-esteem.

Job design principles can address problems such as:

- 1. work overload
- 2. work under load
- 3. repetitiveness
- 4. limited control over work
- 5. isolation

6. shift work
7. delays in filling vacant positions
8. excessive working hours
9. limited understanding of the whole job process
10. Job stress.

7.5.1 Approaches to Work Design

The three approaches to work design considered by organizations are:

1. The Engineering approach which focuses on efficiency and simplification, and results in traditional job and work group designs. Telephone operators and data-entry positions are examples of this job design.
2. A second approach is work enrichment and rests on motivational theories and attempts to enrich the work experience. Job enrichment involves designing jobs with high levels of meaning, discretion, and knowledge of results. A well researched model focusing on job attributes has helped clear up methodological problems with this important intervention.
3. The third approach is socio-technical approach and seeks to optimize both social and technical aspects of work systems. This method has led to a popular form of work design called “self managed teams” which are composed of multi-skilled members performing interrelated tasks. Members are given the knowledge, information, and power necessary to control their own task behaviors with relatively little external control.

Job design involves administrative areas such as:

- job rotation
- job enlargement
- task machine pacing
- work breaks and
- working hours.

7.5.2 Difference between Job Design and Work Place Design

Job design and workplace design are often used interchangeably because both contribute to keep the physical requirements of a job reasonable.

Job design refers to administrative changes that can help improve working conditions. In comparison, workplace design concentrates on dealing with the workstation, the tools, and the body position that all influence the way a person does his or her work. Good workplace design reduces static positions, repetitive motions and awkward body positions.

7.5.3 Features of Good Job Design

Good job design accommodates employees' mental and physical characteristics by paying attention to:

- Muscular energy such as work/rest schedules or pace of work, and mental energy such as boring versus extremely difficult tasks.
- Allows for employee input i.e. the option to vary activities according to personal needs, work habits, and the circumstances in the workplace.
- Gives employees a sense of accomplishment.
- Includes training so that employees know what tasks to do and how to do them properly.
- Provides good work/rest schedules.
- Allows for an adjustment period for physically demanding jobs.
- Provides feedback to the employees about their performance.
- Minimizes energy expenditure and force requirements.
- Balances static and dynamic work.

Job design is an ongoing process. The goal is to make adjustments as conditions or tasks change within the workplace. Achieving good job design involves administrative practices that determine what the employee does, for how long, where, and when as well as giving the employees choice wherever possible. In job design, you may choose to examine the various tasks of an individual job or the design of a group of jobs.

7.5.4 Approaches to Job Design

Some common approaches to job design include the following:

Job Enlargement: It is to include more and/or different tasks to provide job variety. It adds interest to the work but may or may not give employees more responsibility.

Job Rotation: It is to move employees from one task to another. It distributes the group tasks among a number of employees.

Job Enrichment: It is to provide employees more of responsibility, accountability, and independence in doing the job. It satisfies higher order needs by allowing for greater participation and new opportunities.

Work Design (Job engineering): Work design allows employees to see how the work methods, layout and handling procedures link together as well as the interaction between people and machines.

7.5.5 Goals of Job Design

Goals can be in many different areas and include the following:

Task Variety: To alleviate boredom, a good job design avoids both excessive static body positions and repetitive movements. Jobs must be designed in order to have a variety of tasks that require changes in body position, muscles used, and mental activities. Two methods which are used for a good job design are job enlargement and job rotation. For example, if an employee normally assembles parts, the job may be enlarged to include new tasks, such as work planning, inspection, quality control, or maintenance.

Alternatively, the tasks may include working in the same department, but changing tasks every hour is also recommended as it provides for a change in physical or mental expenditure.

Work Breaks/Rest Breaks: Rest breaks help alleviate the problems of unavoidable repetitive movements or body positions. More frequent but shorter breaks are sometimes preferable to fewer long breaks. During rest breaks, employees must be encouraged to change body position and to exercise. It is important that employees stretch and use different muscle groups. If the employee has been very active, a rest break should include a stationary activity or stretching.

Allowance for an Adjustment Period: When work demands physical effort it is necessary to have an adjustment period for new employees and for all employees after holidays, layoffs, or illnesses. Employees must be given some time to become accustomed to the physical demands of work to "get in shape."

Provide Training: Training in correct work procedures and equipment operation must be provided so that employees understand what is expected from them and how to work safely. Training should be organized, consistent and ongoing. It may be either a classroom training or on the job training.

Vary Mental Activities: Tasks should be coordinated so that they are balanced during the day for the individual employee as well as balanced among a group of employees. Employee must be allowed some degree of choice as to what types of mental tasks they want to do and when. This choice allows the employees to do tasks best suited to their 'alertness' patterns during the day. Some people may prefer routine tasks in the morning (such as checklists or filling in forms) and save tasks such as problem solving until the afternoon, or vice versa.

Job design can be used for teams also. In some cases, teams can be created that have an overall responsibility for larger task or set of tasks. The team will make decision as to who will do what and when and how the job will be accomplished. In most cases, team members will be multi-skilled which allow them to change jobs from time to time. As with job design for individuals, additional opportunities such as inspection, quality control, maintenance, and related tasks such as ordering supplies are often assigned to the team in addition to their regular tasks.

7.6 Quality Circles

Quality Circles have been extensively used in Japan since the introduction of quality control techniques. Quality Circles usually include a group of 7 to 10 employees from a unit (or across units) who volunteer to meet together. The group regularly analyzes and makes proposals about product quality and related problems. Recommendations are forwarded to a coordinating or steering committee once a week for an hour or so, on company time. An employee elected from the group chairs the meeting. A high degree of participation is created within the group. Prior to the formation of quality circles, the group (the supervisors and members) is trained by quality control experts and facilitators

in all matters of quality control concepts including statistical tools, participative group discussions, group dynamics and communication skills. The facilitators also help each circle in its linking with other groups and with the overall coordinating committee. Groups are also encouraged to use experts within the organization where their specialties are relevant. The QC is authorized by management to make changes without prior approval whenever feasible.

The participative, problem-solving versions of Quality Circles are based on the assumptions that since employees are willing to work collaboratively in group setting which may be natural work teams or cross-functional ones, the problems of product quality and system effectiveness would be considerably reduced or eliminated. Such organizations can successfully use both technical and process consultants provided the employees in their organizations are trained in quality control concepts and the relevant measuring techniques, group dynamics, team leadership, and interpersonal communication skills.

7.6.1 Implementation of Quality Circles

- Quality Circles consist of a group of seven to ten employees from a single unit or from cross-functional areas who have volunteered to meet regularly to analyze and make recommendations about any problems facing the organization.
- Such employees are trained by quality control experts and facilitators in matters of quality control, necessary statistical tools, participative group discussions, group dynamics and communication skills.
- Such trained employees or supervisors in turn train other subordinates who volunteer to participate in the process. The facilitators also help each circle in its linking with other groups and with the overall coordinating committee.
- Discussions are held and recommendations are forwarded to a coordinating or steering committee for which meetings are generally held once a week for an hour, chaired by an employee elected from the group of volunteers. Leaders are encouraged to create a high degree of participation within the group.
- Groups are encouraged to use experts from within the organization.
- Once or twice in a year, a member from top management meets with each group and gets an update on its working and progress.

7.7 Quality of Work Life

Quality of work life is an "attempt to restructure multiple dimensions of the organization" and to "institute a mechanism which introduces and sustains changes over time." Aspects of the change mechanism are usually an increase in participation by employees in shop floor decisions and an increase in problem-solving between the union and the management.

Some of the QWLP have had modest success; there are frequent difficulties in sustaining or expanding the process beyond a few years. Some of the reasons for failure may be change in union leadership, high expectations, efforts aimed at production and clerical levels, and little attention paid to long-term financial rewards to the participants. Major resistance from supervisors has frequently occurred when top management paid insufficient attention to issues of job security and role definition for people.

7.8 Organizational Transformation

Organizational transformation or large-scale systems change is an OD intervention where the organizational change is massive in terms of the number of organizational units involved, the number of people affected, the number of organizational subsystems altered, or the depth of the cultural change involved. For example, a major restructuring with objectives including a reduction in hierarchical levels from eight to four and shifting to a more participative leadership style might involve every unit of the organization, affect the job responsibilities of every employee at every level, and would require changes in such aspects as work flow, reporting relationships, job descriptions and titles, compensation, and training programs. They usually require a multiplicity of interventions and takes place over a fairly long period of time.

7.8.1 Types of Transformational Changes

Many organizational changes such as downsizing, restructuring, and reengineering are regarded as transformational, designed to fundamentally alter the basic nature of the organization. Some other commonly occurring recommendations for major organizational change in order to cope with hypercompetitive business environments are:

- **Delivering**--reducing the number of vertical levels in the organization
- **Networks/alliances**--involving internal and external strategic collaboration
- **Outsourcing**--of activities in which the organization has no distinctive competence
- **Desegregation**--breaking up the organization into smaller business units
- **Empowerment**--introduction of mechanisms to provide employees with the authority, resources, and encouragement to take actions
- **Flexible work groups**--for specific purposes that are disbanded or reformed upon completion of the task
- **Short-term staffing**--in which people are contracted to the organization for a short period of time to work on specific issues/tasks
- **Reduction of internal and external boundaries**--to encourage communication and resource sharing.

7.9 Summary

Global competition is forcing organizations to restructure, downsize, delay and change to more flexible (organic) structures. Structural Interventions refer to interventions or change efforts aimed at improving organization effectiveness through changes in the task and structural and technological subsystems. These necessitate decisions about how to deliver products or services and how to link people to tasks. These interventions deal with an organization's technology and structure. The major structural interventions are Restructuring/ structural design, Downsizing, Re-engineering, Employee Involvement (EI) comprising Parallel Structures, High-involvement Organizations, and Total Quality Management (TQM), Work Design/ Job Redesign, Quality Circles (or) Quality Control Circle, Management by Objectives (MBO), Socio-technical Systems and Work Restructuring, Quality of Work Life Projects, and Organizational Transformation. Employee Involvement encompasses empowerment, and participative management approaches. All these approaches are human relations in focus i.e. greater EI in decision making leads to increased employee motivation through job satisfaction, commitment, effort-- which leads to improved business performance.

7.10 Self Assessment Questions

1. Examine some of the structural interventions and how could they be used.
2. What are the characteristics of techno-structural interventions of restructuring, reengineering, downsizing, and TQM?
3. What is employee involvement? How does it lead to higher productivity?
4. Describe the three major applications of Employee Involvement.
5. What are the approaches to Work Design? Mention the features of a good job design.
6. What is Management by Objectives? What are the factors responsible for its failure?
7. Enumerate the main features of Quality of Work Life Projects.
8. What steps should be followed during the implementation of Quality Circles?

7.11 Reference Books

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Unit – 8 : Organizational Restructuring

Unit Structure

- 8.0 Objectives
- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Meaning
- 8.3 Restructuring Process
- 8.4 Challenges and Opportunities in Restructuring
- 8.5 Strategies for Restructuring
- 8.6 Need to Align with Human Element
- 8.7 Summary
- 8.8 Self-Assessment Test
- 8.9 Reference Books

8.0 Objectives

After studying this unit you should be able to understand:

- The concept of organizational restructuring
- The meaning and definition of organizational restructuring
- The steps involved in restructuring
- The problems and perceived benefits in organizational restructuring
- To make an alignment between human factors with desired change in organization.

8.1 Introduction

The aim of all organization restructuring strategies is to change the organization and make it work more effectively, to be more productive and increase profits. Whether in the private sector or in government agencies restructuring is a never ending process. Restructuring strategies are also used by global organizations to improve and enhance their business's position. Decision makers worldwide are faced with taking actions to improve their organizations and organizational restructuring is one tool all them use.

Each organization's structure can be reduced into three basic components: complexity, formation and centralization (Robbins, 1990). It is within one or all of these components that an organizations tires to make changes to improve specific new goals. This unit will explains some of the positive and negative effects organizational restructuring can have on an organization in terms of manpower and financial changes. It will also be shown what performances measures are available for managers to assess the effectiveness of restructuring.

8.2 Meaning

Restructuring is a common phenomenon, undertaken by many organizations on a regular basis. Restructuring can be driven by a number of strategic considerations, such as a desire to adopt new, more flexible and modular organizational forms to respond to an increasingly dynamic business environment or the need for more globally integrated ways of working or just the need to improve business performance through cost reductions or productivity gains. For these new structures to work, the structural blueprints designed by senior managers have to be put into practice by others. Since new structures require not just a reorganization of individuals on a structure chart, but actual changes in ways of working for the design principles behind the new structure to become a reality.

Organizational restructuring examines how middle managers interpret senior manager design and actions and why and how these interpretations in turn shape the way the new structure actually operates. In other words this describes, the middle manager “sense making”: how the middle managers build an understanding of what the new structure means for them, their works, roles and responsibilities. In Order to achieve this it identifies the schemata, the mental maps or memory models individuals have about their organization and their world more generally, prior to the restructuring, and how these mental models develop and change during the restructuring. The nature of the restructuring in which new divisions are created out of an older, established division with intent for this structure to support a radically different way of working and the way the restructuring is implemented. This is to be done through the top-down imposition of a structural outline which requires those within the structure to complete the details of the design as they work within, are characteristic of many restructuring initiatives.

Organization restructuring happens when the reporting hierarchy of a company changes. After organization restructuring certain groups will report to different departments and some departments may be newly created or disappear altogether. If the organization chart has changed shape then organization restructuring has occurred.

Why is organizational restructuring necessary?

- The morale of staff is deteriorating.
- Workforce productivity is deteriorating and/or stagnant (staying the same).
- Customer satisfaction is declining and/or fewer new customers are doing business with the organization.
- Employee’s performance shows increased mistakes or gaps when trying to meet customer requests.
- New competencies (skill sets) are needed to meet organizational and customer expectations and requirements.
- There seems to be confusion in what individuals, departments, teams, etc... are responsible for and what these groups or individuals will be held accountable for.
- Deliverable results seem to be unclear.

- Departments, functional areas or parts of the organization are significantly over or understaffed and may not have sufficient resources to meet organizational requirements.
- Performance appraisals are somewhat biased.
- Communication channels within the organization are inconsistent, inefficient or entirely too cumbersome to be reliable.
- Technological changes required by the changing markets create resistance and/or barriers to the workflow.
- The turnover rate is increasing.

8.3 Restructuring Process

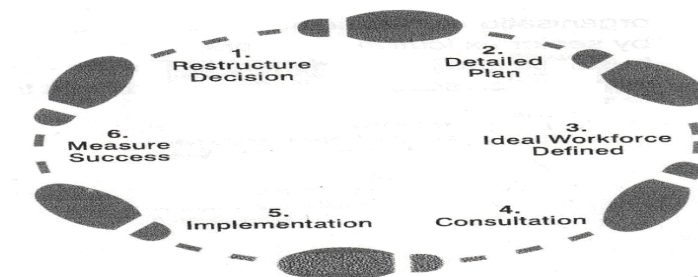
Restructuring program is not just about implementing a redundancy process but about delivering benefit and making an organization ‘recession fit’. The emphasis of restructuring should be on successful business change incorporating planning, implementation, communication and measurement. An important facet of properly implemented restructure, is that it should consider the shape of the remaining future workforce i.e. what does your new organization look like and what are the type of people that need to be a part of it ? Although restructure will have a beginning and an end, restructures should be considered as a series of lifecycles because inevitably one restructure will lead into another.

8.3.1 The Interest Groups: Restructuring will involve a lot of different people, all of which in their own ways are ‘Stakeholders of their change’. Omni has defined these into four specific stakeholder Groups, each of which has their own areas of responsibility during the restructure. They are, with their associated responsibilities.

- **Executive Management :** Strategy and Decision Making
- **HR :** Compliance and Process
- **Managers:** Management and Performance
- **Employees:** Delivery/Change/Displacement

Further description is given here in detail about the activities involved in each of the 6 steps and indicates which stakeholders have the primary roles.

8.3.2 Restructure Lifecycle: Each of the 6 steps is a detailed activity in its own right and the description below is therefore necessarily brief. For reference pictorial representation of stakeholders has been given.



The Restructure Decision: The decision to restructure will be taken by the Executive Management Team or Board of Directors of organization as a reaction to possible deterioration in business performance. They will be looking for significant productivity improvements and /or cost saving. The restructuring may involve withdrawal from some markets or of some products/services which clearly has a major organization impact. It is important to record the decision making process, which should be fully documented and evidence based with justifications provided at each stage of the process.

Detailed Plan: Once the decision to restructure has been taken by Senior Management Team or Board of Directors, they will be developing detailed implementation plan. This will make sure that all activities are covered in order to ensure that the benefits of the restructure are realized. The plan needs to consider long and short term business needs and objectives and may involve quick win activities to generate quick returns. Here return on investment targets to define the look and feel of the restructure may also be worked out.

Ideal Workforce Defined: Identifying the ideal workforce to achieve the objectives of restructuring is the next step and one often neglected by organizations which are just focusing on knee jerk headcount reductions. When managers consider their idea workforce they will need to think about both the structure of the organization, as well as the type of workforce required. This typically involves developing a knowledge, skills and competency framework matrix outlining the ideal employee. This can also be used to identify 'at risk' employees during step 4

Consultation: The consultation period is often the most anxious time for everyone involved and especially for those employees who are or think they may become, at risk. But it can also be stressful for the managers and HR who are conducting the consultations. There are lots of legalities that need to be taken into consideration during the consultation period not to mention the emotive environment that all stakeholders will find them in. It is vital at this stage that all your managers feel confident in the message they are delivering and are able to successfully manage all concerns and emotions that arise. From Step 3- Ideal workforce, if an employee asks to see the criteria against which they are being measured (which they can legally do), the manager can provide the correct and up to date information immediately. In addition it is found that high "Emotional Intelligence" is crucial during the consultation stage as managers will need to respectively manage their own emotions and those of everyone around them too.

Implementation: Our restructuring won't stop post consultation. It's what happens after the consultation that will really determine the success of the program. Fully implementing the results of the consultation and the newly defined ideal workforce is vital if the restructure is to be a success and achieve the original goals it was designed to. Managers will need to re-motivate employees to ensure that productivity and morale stay high or at least do not drop. Employees will be looking for leadership and guidance throughout the implementation period as their workloads may increase with possibly no extra training in the short term and/or no extra financial incentives in place. Workforce

will need to be fully engaged and committed to ensure that they understand their role in realizing your organization's new objectives.

Measure Success: Following restructure/change program, one should assess its success against the original success criteria and objective. The criteria by which the success of the restructure can be measured will vary from organization to organization depending on the original reasoning behind the restructure but typically, measuring criteria will include:

Turnover	Gross and Net Profit
ROI	Productivity (e.g. contribution per employee)
Attrition following restructure	Loss of any business critical individuals
Staff satisfaction	Level of motivation and altruism
Outlook/forecasts for the company.	

8.4 Challenges and Opportunities in Restructuring

When we view restructuring under the cause-effect paradigm, it can be seen as the most natural response to the various external and internal stimuli which guide business. Although these adaptations are crucial components while an organization pursues to exploit opportunities, they produce wide-spread disruptions and confusions as is common with any change. And like every change, it provokes much skepticism, and many questions. Restructuring per se is not typically an effective way to improve efficiency or performance -although there may be a short term improvement as a fall-out of the nature change curve where people are jostling to increase their sphere of influence and trying to impress, but this is usually followed by a downturn.

Several improvement efforts fail because the organization is not properly geared to support the processes being implemented. In many cases however, a restructuring simply involves publishing a new organization chart without the critical definitions of the new roles, responsibilities and interfaces. Therefore, before a firm decides to go for restructuring, it needs to first understand its own expectations and objectives through this exercise. Most importantly, make sure the internal processes accommodate the changes and the communication base is prepared to sensitize the, various stakeholders

8.4.1 Overcoming Organizational Inertia: Changes, which are introduced in an organizational restructuring, are bound to affect the socio-psychology make-up of the organization members given the kind of uncertainty that may accompany such changes. There it is a need to understand better the consequences of organizational restructuring and consider some of its likely side-effects on the work environment.

Thus, the need for strategic decision-makers to consider the social impact of organizational restructuring is critical. Senior leadership must realize that both trust and work satisfaction are important ingredients for the effective functioning of an

organization and to actively ensure that support systems are prepared accessible to alleviate the negative impact, particularly if the changes to be implemented are extensive.

Another important way to help overcome organizational inertia is to encourage collective willingness amongst peer circles to help solve job-related problems. This can be done by actively having formal or informal open discussions, brainstorming and knowledge sharing sessions. Additionally, orientation must be given to peer circles and supervisors to listen to employee problems even if there might not be an immediate remedy for it. This creates a sense of inclusivity and goodwill in the employees that they are part of the change and not simply spectators.

8.4.2 Creating the External & Internal Customer Buy-In: Communication plays an extremely critical role in creating the foundation for implementing change without creating an external and internal customer, buy-in, any change cannot take root. A frequent folly in part of the decision-makers is hastening the deployment of evolved structures coupled with phased manner of employee communication. Hastening the deployment of evolved processes and structures without adequate orientation of shared service providers and other support groups, results in seemingly haphazard implementation of change. This introduces a feeling of anxiety in the employees regarding their status quo when most of the communication during the pre-deployment and post-deployment period is done in a phased fashion to avoid creating a situation of panic and confusion; it only exacerbates this sense of anxiety.

A critical mass of employee base must be prepared, educated and communicated constantly to drive in change. This employee base is not draw from the managerial cadre but the operational cadre who are the frontline implementers. Keeping the employees in the loop will only aid in the seamless fit of objectives into practice. This, together with regular updates to clients and other significant stakeholders regarding the restructuring and how it will benefit them without upsetting their regular services and requirements, secures a complete buy-in.

8.4.3 How to make restructuring a Success?

Organizational change especially involves restructuring, realignment of components through formal appointments to positions and changes in official reporting relationships. Sometimes organizational changes, especially those involving restructuring, are aimed at decreasing the prevalence of functional fiefdoms and increasing coordination across organizational units especially when clear barriers exist between functions in the organization. Deciding what the organization needs is the key. Identifying the right medicine for the ailment plaguing the organization is a competency by itself. Doing it right has its share of benefits and examples are aplenty. To makes restructuring of organization a success, the linkage between the vision, mission, goals, values and leadership of the organization is of paramount importance. Recognizing restructuring as an exciting opportunity instead of a series of challengers itself requires an enlightened mind-set which needs to be cultivated.

8.5 Strategies for Restructuring

The important element in organizational restructuring is the strategy to be used. What is a strategy? Strategy is defined as the determination of the basic long-term goals and objectives of an enterprise, and the adoption of courses of action and allocation of resources necessary to carry out these goals''(Robbins, 1990). The discussion of restructuring strategies looks at any change an organization has made in their long-term goals or objectives and how it applies to these three base components of the organizational structure.

Bowman and his co-authors concluded, organizational restructuring strategies can be broken down to three modes, portfolio restructuring, financial restructuring and organizational restructuring (1999). The other issue in organizational restructuring is how to measure the performance following those changes. The two performance measures most widely used are market performance and accounting performance. Managers now can reduce cost, increase productivity, and enhancing shareholder wealth in their own organization using lessons learned in other organization's restructuring attempts.

8.5.1 Portfolio Restructuring Strategy: Companies involved in acquisitions, divestitures or spin-offs are using a portfolio restructuring strategy. This type of strategy includes selling off those business units that are drawing down operations or spinning off business units to raise more capital. The organization's objective is to regain its perspective on the core business. Portfolio restructuring has the best results when the firm uses the spin-off strategy and count on subsequent mergers (Bowman, et al, 1999). Research indicates more positive market response to the restructuring when shareholders receive new business from spin-offs than new cash through sell-offs.

8.5.2 Organizational Restructuring strategy: Of the three modes of restructuring strategies, the type that captures the most headlines is Organizational Restructuring. In this strategy the terms downsizing, redesign and layoffs are often used. Many times a company tries to redesign the organization for one of two major reasons: (1) either they have changed the strategic thrust of the company, or (2) the organization has drifted away from the original design of the company. Organizational restructuring will normally change the levels of management in the company, affect the span of control or shift product boundaries. There is also a change in production procedures and compensation associated with this strategy. Reduction in the work force is the main by-product that accompanies organizational restructuring and is the reason for the least positive impact on organizational performance (Bowman, et al, 1999). In both cases the elements of organizational restructuring are the prime movers. Change the design of how business is done to improve profitability. The reduction in workforce is headline grabbing by-product.

8.5.3 Financial Restructuring Strategy: The final restructuring mode Bowman discussed is the financial restructuring strategy. This type of restructuring is identified by changes are in the firm's capital structure. Changes can include debt for equity swaps, leverage buyouts, or some form of recapitalization (Bowman, et al, 1999).

In a financial restructuring that is in the form of a leverage buyout, research reveals there is an immediate influx of free cash flows, organizational efficiency is enhanced and the company refocuses on the core business. Additionally, long-term performance of the organization is significantly improved after the LBO (Bowman, et al, 1999). Leverage buyouts of divisions have greater improvement in efficiency than when the entire company is acquired.

8.5.4 Performance Measurements: So what good is organizational restructuring without seeing some results? In each of the above restructuring strategies the results can be measured by one of two performance standards: market performance or accounting performance. The market performance standard addresses the stock price of the organization following a restructuring. The changes can be directly attributed to restructuring action are short term indicators of how the restructuring has effected the organizations performance (Bowman, et al, 1999)

To determine long term performance of an organization accounting standards are used to calculate restructuring performance. A comparison is made on financial ratios ROI (Return of Investment) and ROE (Return on Equity) of pre-restructuring and post-restructuring data over several years. (Bowman'et al, 1999). The results using this method take longer to obtain but should give a clearer picture to whether the restructuring objectives have been met. Restructuring is one of the biggest decisions an organization can make and will find it much harder to undo damage done by a poorly managed restructure than it is to ensure that the restructure is a success in the first place.

It's likely that managers and HR staff will not have undergone a restructure before and therefore lack the knowledge and experience of conducting one. If they have, then their previous experience may have been focused on improving their own individual circumstances. They may have limited knowledge as to how things could or should have done better at an organizational level.

Therefore a poorly executed restructure can do more harm than good. Typical issues here are:

- De-motivation and lack of productivity from anxious employees.
- Emotional cost of a poorly managed restructure process which could leave remaining.
- Employees with fragile psychological contracts and low organizational commitment.
- Resentment by displaced employees if not supported adequately infecting remaining workers.
- Cost of losing business critical members of the team due the uncertainly they may feel towards their job.
- Cost of absenteeism due to stress and anxiety.
- The inability to recruit the necessary talent into the organization following a poorly managed restructure due to damage done to the employer brand.

Following three pronged strategies prove purposive-for ensuring restructure a success:

1. Follow 6 steps for a successful restructure
2. Use appropriate and proven tools and techniques.
3. Consider using independent, expert support.

Why independent Expert Support Can Help?

Although there may be objections to engaging external experts at a time when the idea is for costs to be reduced, using independent help will undoubtedly improve chances of getting it right first time. The question at this point should not be what value can be added by providing expert, independent support and advice on a restructure, but what will be the cost if the restructure is not a success and does not achieve its objectives.

8.6 Need to Align with Human Element

Survival is synonymous with change and evolution. Business reaction to the demands of recession is a good example.

- Contracting and outsourcing are considered as a pressure valve to reduce fixed costs in the face of declining customer activity and optimism.
- Companies cash-rich enough to afford it; look to mergers & acquisitions to capitalize on synergistic customer contact points in shrinking markets.
- Many businesses re-engineer their processes and restructure to enable leaner operation to service clients.

A common thread running all these changes is the objective of cost-cutting and the need to demonstrate a robust return on investment for every unit spent. A consistent outcome from these kinds of changes can be the need for staff redeployment and redundancy. The challenge in this process is to quickly find the 'best place' for current talent and recognize that for some, the 'best place' may be outside the organization.

The role of HR through this significant change is pivotal and HR departments tend to be competent in understanding the process of redeployment and redundancy. HR departments are typically good at:

- Ensuring high-quality stakeholder consultation and communication.
- Collating existing employee data on job performance and other relevant criteria (tenure, attendance, disciplinary information, etc.)
- Supporting line manager and employee expectation through the change.
- Ensuring all aspects of the process is within the parameters of local legislation.
- Supporting the 'business as usual' imperative during redeployment projects.

As an umbrella to these core HR activities we consider the following to be the main stages that practitioners need to undertake to ensure a successful redeployment process.

8.6.1 Aligning jobs and behaviors to the organization's strategy.

HR has a role here both to input into the development of the strategy and to implement quickly the human capital requirements that result from the new direction. When inputting to the strategy, HR has a role to play in making an explicit link between the human capital capacity of the organization and the board's strategic options. HR can feed valuable information into the likely success of this strategy by knowing the capability of

the current to execute the plan. This involves highlighting the areas of deficit and creating awareness of the time and cost implication of redeployment, re-training and external recruitment to make the strategy a success.

Then when the strategy is set, HR needs to set about the task of defining the behaviors underpinning its success and ensure that they are understood by the board and the business. In many cases, old competency models built for a different age need review, overhaul or total redesign. Once the behaviors are defined, they need to be implemented in each critical people process. Often in this context the most urgent process is to assess the workforce redeployment.

8.6.2 Designing a redeployment assessment process

Having defined the requirements for success, this about understands what information you have on your employees, identifying what you don't have and deciding how you are going to fill the gaps. This is detailed and at times complex work that requires immense attention to ensure that it is carried out equitably. It involves considering current performance data in terms of coverage, consistency and defensibility. It also includes deciding to implement processes to obtain additional information on employees' potential to succeed in the new organization.

The employee perspective also needs to be considered. This type of assessment process is different to most. The candidate knows the other applicants and assessment process will be discussed widely. Moreover the assessment outcomes are very visible and the immediate implication of failure is more impact.

8.6.3 Assessing for the new role: operational readiness

This 'ultra-high' stakes assessment process requires your HR and line management team to execute a quick, legal and painless assessment process, with minimal disruption to employees, customers and your brand. The resources required to roll-out a redeployment assessment process and manage stakeholder communication can be significant. In adding, pulling all the information together in a structured, accurate and objective way to arrive at a defensible selection decision requires a high level of attention to detail and a reasonable level of competence in data management.

8.6.4 Analytical review

The decision that you make in a redeployment project are more important than typical recruitment decisions. Consider:

- The visibility of the outcomes
- The psychological impact on employees (candidates)
- The need to meet legal obligation
- The likelihood of retribution

As such, we consider it good practice to have an 'Analytical Review' where the decision you have arrived at are audited against a set of 'fairness' criteria (such as discrimination on the basis of gender or culture) and against operational business requirements (such as geographical or territory coverage).

8.6.5 Re-engagement

After the 'surgical' business of redeployment is complete and your business comes out of the restructure phase, the importance of employee 'aftercare' cannot be overstated. It is short-sighted to talk about redeployment projects as if they finish after decisions about people's future roles have been made.

In projects of this nature, a lot of time and care is needed to focus on how to ethically and sympathetically exit people from your business. In this context it is to remember that the people who remain are more important to ensuring the organization's future success. The focus here should be on making sure you have an emergence strategy in place to re-motivate the business and minimize the impact of survivor syndrome.

Modernization is an effective approach to making existing mainframe and distributed systems more responsive to business needs. To meet the demand for business innovation and agility, organizations are looking to improve the structure, flexibility and re-usability of their business.

The points of leverage in organizations are the beliefs and world view of their leaders and decision makers. The sense of purpose, vision and commitment of an organization's leadership play a critical role in the results it can accomplish. However, it is essential to realize and accept the fact that if the organization is to survive it must change and evolve. If an organization is going to develop, it must make many significant changes in the overall strategies, practices and operational changes or the restructuring process will not be successfully.

To be quite simplistic, an organization has to be viewed as a dynamic system, and like any other system it will not work when all the involved components are not working together smoothly and efficiently. This basically means that any change to the organization must be realignment within the workforce. This is the only possible way to effect change successfully.

However, it is essential that modernization of any type has to be approached from a risk and benefits perspective. Another reason to modernize would be to reduce the overall support and operational costs. This is only justifiable if the saving from modernization exceed the cost of modernizing. Additionally, any change effected by an organization must include a carefully developed plan for enabling the human element of that organization to understand, be willing and able to implement for the organization and may in fact, add additional costs to the initial investment.

When looking to identify where change needs to take place it is a fact that organizational restructuring can help management gain insight about the best ways to align the available human resources with the needs of the company to ensure the highest level of performance and thereby deliverable to better guarantee current and continued success, profitability and a strong a healthy future within the organization.

The ability to innovate and be creative in the use of knowledge and information to problem-solve has been cited many times as the key to competitive advantage in any organization that has been in operation for many years.

8.7 Summary

Organization structure is at the heart of all businesses. It applies to those involved in the manufacturing of a product or providing a service. It concluded that organizational restructuring is a value tool for an organization to use in an attempt to maintain their goals and objectives. The choice of which strategy to use will depend on which area the company wants to improve: profitability, Performance or operation. As has been illustrated restructuring is an ongoing process. It is a very complicated subject and this paper has only brushed the tip of their iceberg. The results of how well those restructuring efforts were can take years to determine depending on which performance measure is used. A final area of consideration is the effect on human resources. An entire paper relating to employee dismissal during organizational restructuring has been written by Lillian Eby and Kimberly Buch (1998). The treatment of employees during downsizing and restructuring has only briefly been discussed as a by-product of organizational change and because it receives so many headlines. A more comprehensive discussion of three important employee issues, advanced warning of job loss, employer support services, and the internal communication of pending changes can be the subject of separate research paper (EBY, 1998)

8.8 Self-Assessment Questions

1. How restructuring change an organization? What is necessary for restructuring to occur?
2. When will organizational restructuring occur? Suggest strategies for successful restructuring?
3. Explain the concept of organizational restructuring. Why human element alignment is required for successful restructuring?
4. Discuss the tools and techniques for successful organizational restructuring.

8.9 Reference Books

- Front & Backstage Processes of an Organizational Restructuring Effort; William B. Stevenson, Jean M. Bartunek, Stephen P. Borgatti; The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Vol. 39, No.3, September 2003.
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Unit - 9: Action Research and Survey Feedback

Structure of the Unit

- 9.0 Objective
- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Meaning
- 9.3 Nature of Action Research
- 9.4 Action Research in Organizational Development
- 9.5 Types of Action Research
- 9.6 Survey Feedback
- 9.7 Process of Survey feedback
- 9.8 Evaluation of Survey feedback
- 9.9 Summary
- 9.10 Self Assessment Questions
- 9.11 References

9.0 Objectives

After studying this unit you should be able to understand:

- The concept of Action Research.
- Types of Action Research.
- The steps involved in Survey Feedback.
- The problems of Survey Feedback.
- The responsibility of a Team Leader.

9.1 Introduction

In globally competitive environments, organizations are seeking information about obstacles to productivity and satisfaction in the workplace. Survey feedback is a tool that can provide this type of honest feedback to help leaders guide and direct their teams. Obstacles and gaps between the current status quo and the desired situations may or may not be directly apparent. In either case, it is vital to have a clear understanding of strategies for diagnosis and prevention of important organization problems. If all leaders and members alike are clear about the organizational development and change, strengths, weakness, strategies can be designed and implemented to support positive change. Survey feedback provides a participative approach and enables all members to become actively engaged in managing the work environment.

9.2 Meaning

Action research is a research initiated to solve an immediate problem and simultaneously building a body of scientific knowledge with the goal of making action more effective. Action refers to programs and interventions or “community of practice” to improve the way of addressing issues and solving problems. It is the process of systematically

collecting research data about an ongoing system relative to some objective, goal or need and providing this data back into the system and alternatively selecting variables and taking actions both on data and hypothesis and further evaluating the results by collecting more data.

To simplify, first a static picture of the organization is taken. Actions are suggested on the basis of “what exists,” hypotheses. These actions manipulate variables under system that is under the control of the action researcher. Later in second static picture of the system the results of the action taken are examined

Gerald Susman (1983) gives a somewhat more elaborate listing. He distinguishes five phases to be conducted within each research cycle (Figure 9.1). Initially, a problem is identified and data is collected for a more detailed diagnosis. This is followed by a collective postulation of several possible solutions, from which a single plan of action emerges and is implemented. Data on the results of the intervention are collected and analyzed, and the findings are interpreted in light of how successful the action has been. At this point, the problem is re-assessed and the process begins another cycle. This process continues until the problem is resolved.

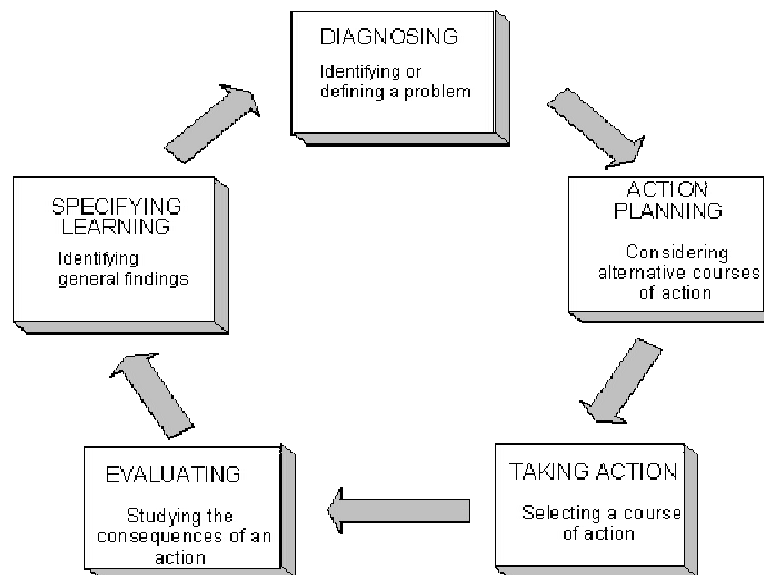


Figure 9.1 Detailed Action Research Model

By viewing action research as an approach to problem solving we have noted the following features:

- the normative nature of this model
- the importance and centrality of goals and objectives,
- the different role requirements of the consultant/change agent vis-à-vis the clients.

The significant elements of a design for action research are :

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

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

9.4 Action Research in Organization Development

Wendell L. French and Cecil Bell define organization development (OD) at one point as "organization improvement through action research". Action research is OD's underlying philosophy that was conceptualized by Kurt Lewin and later elaborated and expanded on by other behavioral scientists. Concerned with social change and, more particularly, with effective, permanent social change, Lewin believed that action motivates change: If people are active in implementing decisions then they are more likely to adopt new ways. Lewin mentioned that "Rational social management" proceeds in a spiral of steps, each of which is composed of a circle of planning, action and fact-finding about the result of action.

- **Unfreezing:** Faced with a dilemma or disconfirmation, the individual or group becomes aware of a need to change.
- **Changing:** The situation is diagnosed and new models of behavior are explored and tested.
- **Refreezing:** Application of new behavior is evaluated, and if reinforcing, adopted.

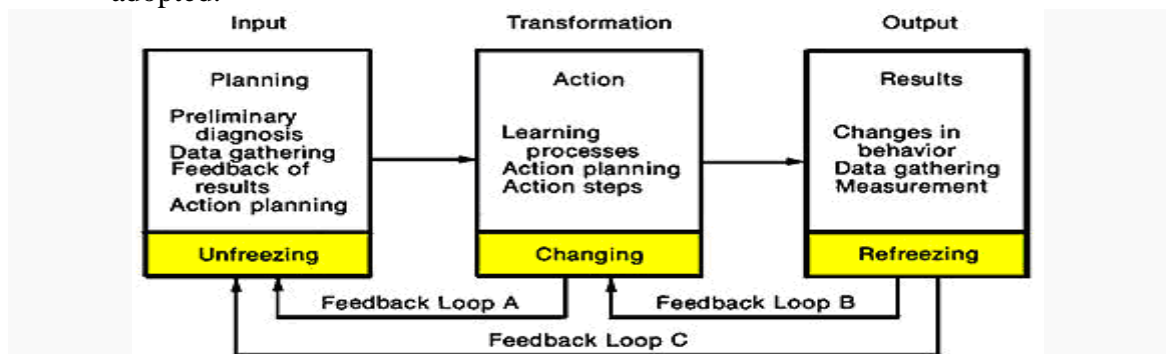


Fig 9.2 Systems Model Of Action Research Process (Kurt Lewin, 1951)

Lewin's description of the process of change involves three steps:

Figure 9.2 given above summarizes the steps and processes involved in planned change through action research. Action research is depicted as a cyclical process of change.

1. The cycle begins with a series of planning actions initiated by the client and the change agent working together. The principal elements of this stage include a preliminary diagnosis, data gathering, feedback of results, and joint action planning. In the language of systems theory, this is the input phase, in which the client system becomes aware of problems as yet unidentified, realizes it may need outside help to effect changes, and shares with the consultant the process of problem diagnosis.
2. The second stage of action research is the action, or transformation, phase. This stage includes actions relating to learning processes (perhaps in the form of role analysis) and to planning and executing behavioral changes in the client organization. As shown in Figure 1, feedback at this stage would move via Feedback Loop A and would have the effect of altering previous planning to bring the learning activities of the client system into better alignment with change objectives. Included in this stage is action-planning activity carried out jointly by the consultant and members of the client system. Following the workshop or learning sessions, these action steps are carried out on the job as part of the transformation stage.
3. The third stage of action research is the output or results phase. This stage includes actual changes in behavior (if any) resulting from corrective action steps taken following the second stage. Data are again gathered from the client system so that progress can be determined and necessary adjustments in learning activities can be made. Minor adjustments of this nature can be made in learning activities via Feedback Loop B (see *Figure 9.2*).

The action-research systems model shown in above figure closely follows Lewin's repetitive cycle of planning, action, and measuring results. It also illustrates other aspects of Lewin's general model of change. As indicated in the diagram, the planning stage is a period of unfreezing, or problem awareness. The action stage is a period of changing that is, trying out new forms of behavior in an effort to understand and cope with the system's problems. (There is inevitable overlap between the stages, since the boundaries are cannot be determined in a continuous process).

The result stage is a period of refreezing, in which new behaviors are tried out on the job and, if successful then reinforcing becomes a part of the system's repertoire of problem-solving behavior. Action research is problem centered, client centered, and action oriented. It involves the client system in a diagnostic, active-learning, problem-finding and problem-solving process.

By viewing action research as an approach to problem solving we have noted the following features:

- the normative nature of this model
- the importance and centrality of goals and objectives,
- the different role requirements of the consultant/change agent vis-a-vis the clients.

9.5 Types of Action Research

In **diagnostic action** research the OD practitioner diagnoses the problem at workplace and recommends remedies. Although these remedies are not pre tested but are based on researcher's experience and knowledge. Diagnostic research believes that an action should follow research.

Here emerged the **participative action research**. In such research the people who initiate action is involved in entire research and action from the beginning to the end. This facilitates in carrying out actions in feasible and workable manner. OD practitioner utilize participative action research to a great extent in organizations

In **empirical action research** the practitioner keeps a record of the actions taken and the effect it had in the organization. These actions may be later generalized and implemented in other organizations with similar situations. It lacks objectivity like any other clinical data collection method.

An **experimental action research** is a controlled research on the relative effectiveness of various action techniques. It tries to find the best technique to solve a problem by conducting related experiments.

When is Action Research used?

Action research is used in real situations, rather than in contrived, experimental studies, since its primary focus is on solving real problems. It can, however, be used by social scientists for preliminary or pilot research, especially when the situation is too ambiguous to frame a precise research question. Mostly, though, in accordance with its principles, it is chosen when circumstances require flexibility, the involvement of the people in the research, or change must take place quickly or holistically.

Role of the Action Researcher

Upon invitation into a domain, the outside researcher's role is to implement the Action Research method in such a manner as to produce a mutually agreeable outcome for all participants, with the process being maintained by them afterwards. To accomplish this, it may necessitate the adoption of many different roles at various stages of the process, including those of Planner, Leader, Catalyzer, Facilitator, Teacher, Designer, Listener, Observer, Synthesizer, Reporter etc. The main role, however, is to nurture local leaders to the point where they can take responsibility for the process. This point is reached they understand the methods and are able to carry on when the initiating researcher leaves. In many Action Research situations, the hired researcher's role is primarily to take the time to facilitate dialogue and foster reflective analysis among the participants, provide them with periodic reports, and write a final report when the researcher's involvement has ended.

9.6 Survey Feedback

The study of Survey **Feedback** played an important role in formation and history of **Organizational Development (OD)**. Developed as an organization wide intervention by Mann and his associates (1957-1965), survey feedback is a process in which organizational members complete questionnaires and collect data on various organizational issues, receive feedback on the results, then take appropriate actions to address the critical needs and concerns. Through Survey feedback, the managers and employees are provided with analysis of data collected from them for better diagnosis, prioritization of issues and planning of further activities. Survey feedback activities involve two major components, the use of a climate or attitude survey and the use of feedback workshops. This approach is based on the Systems 1—4T “management system”

An attitude survey, if properly used, can be a powerful tool in organization improvement. Most surveys are not used in an optimal way—at the maximum, most give top management some data for changing practices or provide an index against which to compare trends. At the minimum, they are filed away with little of consequence resulting.

The basic objectives of **survey feedback method** are as follows:

- To assist the organization in diagnosing its problems and developing action plan for problem-solving.
- To assist the group members to improve the relationships through discussion of common problems.

Survey feedback is based on a conceptual scheme and an integrated package of measurement that Rensis Likert and colleagues called Systems 1-4 (and later 1-4T). This management typology is based largely on measures pertaining to leadership, organizational climate; and job satisfaction. Moreover in furtherance survey helps in tracking changes occurring in organizations over time on different organizational dimensions.

Dimensions of the Survey of Organizations as used by Likert are as follows:

Leadership

1. Managerial support
2. Managerial goal emphasis
3. Managerial work facilitation
4. Managerial interaction facilitation
5. Peer support
6. Peer goal-emphasis
7. Peer work facilitation
8. Peer interaction facilitation

Organizational Climate

- 9. Communication with company
- 10. Motivation
- 11. Decision-making
- 12. Control within company
- 13. Coordination between departments
- 14. General management

Satisfaction

- 15. Satisfaction with company
- 16. Satisfaction with supervisor
- 17. Satisfaction with job
- 18. Satisfaction with pay
- 19. Satisfaction with work team

9.7 Process of Survey Feedback

If the survey feedback is to be effective, it must be implemented into a comprehensive strategy that includes goals, responsibilities, time frames, revisions, and reviews. **Survey feedback method** usually proceeds with sequential activities involving data collection, feedback of information, developing action plans based on feedback, and follow up.

1. **Data Collection:** The first step in survey feedback is data collection usually by a consultant based on a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire may include different aspects of organizational functioning. ISR has prepared a questionnaire which includes questions on leadership – managerial support, managerial goal emphasis, managerial work facilitation, peer support, peer goal emphasis, peer work facilitation, and peer interaction facilitation, organizational climate-communication with the company, motivation, decision-making, control within the company, co-ordination between departments, and general management, and satisfaction-satisfaction with the company, satisfaction with the supervisor, satisfaction with the job, satisfaction with the pay, and satisfaction with the work group.
2. The questionnaire is administered personally either by the members of consulting firm or by organization's personnel. Data is collected from all organizational members after the questionnaires are completed, data is classified, tabulated, and analysis is made to arrive at some meaningful conclusions.
3. **Feedback of Information:** After the data are analyzed, feedback is given to the persons who have participated in the fulfilling up of questionnaire. The feedback may be given either orally or in a written form. In oral system of feedback, it is provided through group discussion or problem-solving sessions conducted by the consultant. Alternatively, feedback may be given in the form of a written summary of findings. Whatever the method of giving feedback is adopted, it

should be constructive and suggestive, rather, threatening and emotion-hurting as survey feedback is aimed at identifying weaknesses which must be overcome through follow-up actions and not the fault-finding technique for criticism.

4. **Follow-up Action:** Survey feedback programme is not meaningful unless some follow-up action is taken based on the data collected. One such follow-up action may be to advise the participants to develop their own action plans to overcome the problems revealed through a feedback or as is more commonly the case, follow-up action may be in the form of developing some specific OD interventions particularly process consultation and team-building, by the consultant.

The survey feedback technique provides objective data about the system's functioning to the system members so that selected aspects of the system can be changed. Thus a well-designed survey helps developing a valid and instrumental model involving various activities, implementation of which helps organization work effectively towards goal achievement and feedback helps comparing the actual progress towards goal

9.8 Evaluation of Survey Feedback

Survey feedback provides a base for many managerial actions which has been confirmed by various research studies. In particular, survey feedback contributes in the following manner:

1. It is cost-effective means of implementing a comprehensive OD programme making it a highly desirable technique.
2. It generates great amount of information efficiently and quickly which can be used in solving problems faced by the organization and its members.
3. Decision-making and problem-solving abilities of organization can be improved tremendously because this approach applies the competence and knowledge throughout the organization and the problems faced by it.

However, effectiveness of survey feedback depends on two factors. First, questionnaire used and method adopted for its administration should be reliable and valid. If it is biased, all attempts to diagnose the problems will be abortive and futile. Second, even if valid and reliable information is collected, it is of no use unless follow-up action is taken based on the information. A survey feedback is not a technique in itself for change; it provides base for action for change.

Once the data has been collected and observations have been clarified, it becomes the leader's responsibility to familiarize the team with the findings. Next the leader involves the team in outlining appropriate solutions and strategies that members can support over the long-haul. When leaders can facilitate collaborative teaming and become an organizational development and change agent, people in the team will contribute creative ideas to enhance their work environment.

9.9 Summary

Action Research is the process by which practitioners attempt to study their problems scientifically in order to guide, correct, and evaluate their decisions and actions. Action research involves the process of actively participating in an organization change situation whilst conducting research. Action research can also be undertaken by larger organizations or institutions, assisted or guided by professional researchers, with the aim of improving their strategies, practices and knowledge of the environments within which they practice. As designers and stakeholders, researchers work with others to propose a new course of action to help their community improve its work practices. Survey feedback is an effective change technique in OD. It is a cost effective means of implementing a comprehensive program making it highly desirable change technique. Survey feedback method is a series of sequential activities involving data collection, feedback of information, developing action plans based on feedback, and follow up. The survey feedback technique provides objective data about the system's functioning to the system members so that selected aspects of the system can be changed.

9.10 Self Assessment Questions

1. What do you mean by Action research? Discuss the nature of action research.
2. What is the application of Action Research in Organization Development?
3. What do you mean by Survey Feedback? What is the role of Team leader in Survey feedback?
4. Discuss the process of Survey feedback?
5. Write a short note on evaluation of survey feedback?

9.11 Reference Books

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Unit - 10 : Participation and Empowerment

Structure of Unit

- 10.0 Objectives
 - 10.1 Introduction
 - 10.2 Employee Participation and Empowerment
 - 10.3 Practical Aspects of Empowerment
 - 10.4 Arguments for and against Participation & Empowerment
 - 10.5 Implementation of Empowerment
 - 10.6 Challenges of Employee Empowerment
 - 10.7 Summary
 - 10.8 Self Assessment Questions
 - 10.9 Reference Books
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10.0 Objectives

After completing this unit, you would be able to:

- Understand the relationship between employee participation & empowerment.
 - Imbibe the essential features of employee empowerment.
 - Appreciate the advantages and disadvantages both, related to empowerment.
 - Practise the activities related to empowerment in learner's organizations.
 - Develop step-wise the culture of employee empowerment in organizations.
 - Know about the success stories and pitfalls for empowerment.
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10.1 Introduction

Participation in OD programs is not restricted to elites or people in the top management alone; it is extended broadly throughout the organization. Increased participation and empowerment have always been the central goals and fundamental values of OD. The reason is clear: Participation enhances empowerment and empowerment in turn ensures better performance. Participation and empowerment go hand in glove with each other. So, we can confidently say that empowerment is the key to getting people to want to participate in change which is the main focus of OD. In the highly competitive and rapidly changing environment of the present caused due to globalization and liberalization of market economy there has been growing concern for empowerment. Those organizations, which liberate themselves by empowering their people, can survive in the present environment. It must be noted that empowerment is most effective tool of managerial effectiveness to obtain the full potential of employees. In bureaucratic form of organizational structure, there is an established hierarchy of command and the higher authority controls the subordinates down the line. But in organizations where empowerment is practiced, performance of individual is achieved. Empowerment envisages participation, innovation access to information and accountability. Maximum productivity is achieved from the front line operators supported by management in creating value.

10.2 Employee Participation and Empowerment

Empowering organization can be designed through the following:

1. Management by trust, quality of work life and by implementing other organizational development strategies.
2. Organizing flexible production systems rather than mass production.
3. By introducing customized product with variations for customer needs.
4. By reducing waste and achieving global competitiveness in price.
5. By enhanced efforts in research and development activities.

10.2.1 What is Employee Participation?

Employee participation involves management actively encouraging executives, supervisors, and staff to assist in running and improving business processes and operations. Also known as employee involvement, employee participation includes management recognizing individual employees' opinions and input, so that employees understand that management views them as unique and individually valuable in running the business.

Employee participation may be solicited in a variety of ways. For example, employees can be asked to drop suggestions regarding solutions to obstacles in a Suggestion Box. All suggestions should be reviewed and addressed at monthly meetings, generally by the HR Head. Management may provide a reward to the employees whose suggestions are implemented, generally during the Annual Staff Day or during an Award Ceremony. Employees should also be encouraged to speak freely about problems with low hierarchical barriers, by developing a culture of 'open door policy'. Moreover, employees should be asked to provide ideas about how to solve the problems and not just to point out problems – at meetings or when placed on problem-solving teams.

10.2.2 What is Employee Empowerment?

Empowerment is the process of enabling or authorizing an individual to think, behave, take action, control work and decision making in autonomous ways. It is the state of feeling self-empowered to take control of one's own destiny. It must be borne in mind that empowerment comes from the individual. The principle of employee empowerment also pertains to management allowing employees to make decisions that affect their jobs rather than having to clear everything with managers, like spoon feeding them all the time or having too much centralization.

According to Stephen Covey, "An empowered organization is one in which individuals have the knowledge, skill, desire, and opportunity to personally succeed in a way that leads to collective organizational success." Empowerment is further defined as "a process that enhances intrinsic work motivation by positively influencing impact, competence, meaningfulness and choice" as per Thomas K.W. & Velthouse B.A. Empowered people believe that they are competent, and valued, that their jobs have

meaning and impact and that they have opportunities to use their talents. Brown and Brown define the process of empowerment as “the orientation of all forces, values, and beliefs which determine human behavior in organizations so that they support and liberate the individual rather than reduce their range of thought and action.”

Alternately, we suggest three components of our definition of Empowerment which are quite essential: Empowerment is a multi-dimensional and social process.

- It is multi-dimensional in that it occurs within sociological, psychological, economic, and other dimensions. Empowerment also occurs at various levels, such as individual, group, and organizational or community level.
- It is a social process, since it occurs in relationship to others.
- Empowerment is a process that is similar to a path or journey--one that develops as we work through it.

Employee empowerment generally involves management recognizing that employees are in a better position to oversee their own duties and work processes. Management plays a crucial role in empowerment, as employees cannot manage themselves without being trained properly. Once employees are well-informed and educated regarding problem-solving strategies, management may then transfer some decision-making authority to them. The basic premise of employee empowerment involves the idea that employees are uniquely positioned to identify problems and to solve them.

10.2.3 Delegation versus Empowerment

The difference between these two terms needs to be clarified. To delegate means to choose or elect a person to act as a representative for another. To empower someone means to give power or authority to someone else. To delegate something to someone is to only give them enough space to act on the senior’s behalf. To empower another means to give them enough power and authority to act on their own behalf.

Table 10.1 Difference between Delegation & Empowerment

Delegation	Empowerment
Here is what I want you to do.	What do you need from me?
This is how you do it.	This is your role
This is what I want it to look like	This is where we are going
This is what I want you to do next	This is where it fits in the big picture
I will give you the last 10%	I will let you contribute to the last 10%
I own it	You own it
Here’s where I see this going	Where do you see this going?
Concrete	Fluid
Follow the company line	An opposite view is encouraged
Perform tasks	Results count
No place for other leaders	Lots of place for many leaders
Guided by preference	Guided by values
Here is my opinion	What is your opinion?

10.2.4 Essentials of Employee Empowerment

Empowerment is very closely tied to the study of organizational behavior. “Empowerment is the authority to make decisions within one’s area of operations without having to get approval from anyone else” according to Luthans. So, there are two major characteristics of empowerment:

- Personnel are encouraged to use their initiative.
- Employees are given not just the authority but resources as well, so that they are able to make a decision and see that it is implemented.

The other characteristics are:

- Participation and empowerment refers to enlargement of an employee’s job responsibility by giving her/ him the authority of decision making about her/his own job without approval of his immediate supervisor.
- Empowerment is the degree of responsibility and authority given to an employee.
- By empowerment, the employees are supported and encouraged to utilize their skills, abilities and creativity by accepting accountability for their work.
- Empowerment occurs when employees are adequately trained, provided with all the relevant information and the best possible tools, fully involved in key decisions, and are fairly rewarded.
- Empowerment includes supervisors and employees working together to establish clear goals and expectations within agreed-upon boundaries.
- Employee empowerment also requires an efficient hiring system and constant training.

10.3 Practical Aspects of Empowerment

When decision-making authority is given to skilled employees, problems are resolved more quickly because employees can act fast and aren't required to seek permission for each decision they make. The end result is a more productive and efficient workplace.

As a recap, employee empowerment is the process of providing production and managerial guidelines, and then allowing employees to make the day-to-day decisions that affect their job duties. It can be an effective way to improve morale, and to evolve job duties into more efficient tasks. However, management does not completely relinquish decision-making authority in an empowered organization. Decision making is a combination of centralized and decentralized. For example, management still has the power to reject bad ideas or suggestions that might be counterproductive. Moreover, management still has authority to make any and all final decisions. Looking at both aspects of empowerment, the areas in which it can be safely applied are:

Customer Service: Customer service associates operate more efficiently when they have a comprehensive understanding of company guidelines and the authority they have as individual representatives. The company can improve customer service effectiveness by

empowering service associates to make on-the-spot decisions, rather than looking up to the management for every decision. These decisions should be monitored and reviewed to make sure that the representatives are making choices that help the company, rather than always benefiting the customers. It should be win-win situation for both parties involved.

Job Duties: Employees who have been mastered a particular job profile know the most efficient and effective way of doing it. Such employees should be permitted to alter job duties to get maximum productivity. For example, an employee may notice that doing basic maintenance on a particular machine once a week, as opposed to once a month, improves the output of that machine and extends equipment life. The employee may then consult management and alter the job duties of his position to include weekly maintenance on the machine instead of monthly. Empowered employees help to evolve job descriptions to make them more relevant to future employees and the company's success.

Team Structure: Empowered employee groups are encouraged to create their own structure so that the team can feel comfortable in the way it works and increase productivity. The manager monitors the team performance but only interferes if necessary. The structure that the team creates on its own dictates how the team processes information and how the team efficiently executes and achieves its goals.

Lessons of Empowerment from the Geese :

Lesson 1: Fly Together : It's truly a marvelous sight to see a group of geese flying together in perfect V formation. Research has shown that as each goose flaps its wings an intense uplift is created for the birds behind them. Further studies state that this "teamwork" adds 71% more flying range compared to a goose flying on its own.

Moral of the Story: Partnerships and teamwork rule the day. If you surround yourself with excellent people you're far more likely to succeed than if you attempt to do something all alone.

Lesson 2: Stay in formation : If you've ever watched geese fly, you've likely seen one fall out of formation. And when this happens, the fallen away goose begins to struggle mightily until it manages to fight its way back into formation.

Moral of the Story: Once you've established a good team stay together and work together. There may be times when you may get annoyed or not like the working style of someone... but synergy cannot be created by a single person working in isolation.

Lesson 3: Rotate : While flying in V formation the lead goose eventually tires and rotates to the back of the pack to re-charge their battery while another goose takes its place at the front.

Moral of Story: It's important to share the load amongst team members. It's also important to ensure that all workers are cross trained and able to perform multiple tasks.

Lesson 4: Honk : While it's not always possible to hear from the ground, geese are a noisy bunch when flying in V formation. Why? One theory is the geese honk to encourage each other... while another theory hypothesizes the honking is used to communicate where each goose is.

Moral of the Story: No matter the reason for goose honking, it goes without saying that we should always communicate with one another offering encouragement as needed. We should also have ways to communicate when something is not right.

Lesson 5: Leave no Goose Behind : Whenever a goose becomes unable to fly (becomes sick, gets a bullet shot etc.) two other geese fall out of formation and stay with their fallen comrade until the impaired goose is able to fly or dies.

Moral of the Story: The best teams are made of people who genuinely care for each other and would always help each other out no matter the situation. It seems geese figured this out a long time ago.

10.4 Arguments for and against Participation & Empowerment

10.4.1 Advantages of Participation & Employee Empowerment

There are several advantages of giving impetus to participation and empowering the employees, ranging from monetary savings to better work relationships, some of which are cited below:

Lower Cost: Employees who perform their tasks on a daily basis have an intimate understanding of how their jobs are done. By empowering employees to determine their own work methods, companies can benefit from the years of experience that each employee has accumulated. By allowing employees to suggest and make procedural changes that make their jobs more efficient, companies benefit by saving money.

Improved Morale: Employees who are empowered in their jobs feel a stronger sense of responsibility concerning productivity. Putting employees in charge of their own results has a positive effect on their morale. Empowered employees know that their ideas matter to the success of the company, so they tend to take a greater interest in creating a more efficient and profitable company. Higher morale means that employees take less scheduled time off and productivity increases. This all has a positive effect on the company's bottom line and rate of return.

Employee Motivation: In a 1999 study, business researchers at the University of Minnesota found that empowerment is a major motivator to employees. By and large, people like to do a good job and succeed. They do this best when they feel trusted and empowered to create systems, solve problems and take actions rather than following stringent procedures. So if they are given the room to succeed, they will, because they have challenges and also space to grow and prove themselves.

Employer Motivation: Employers who want to get the most out of their people need to allow their people to give their 100%. If the company has hired the right people, then it should have the kind of people who can identify problems and offer solutions. When companies allow their people to actually do this, they often find problems solved before they happen and need the senior managers only to solve difficult problems and oversee at times. The people on the front lines usually know what needs to be done. In addition, top managers can't be everywhere handling everything. They need their people to take up matter and make day-to-day decisions.

Workplace Relationship: Employee empowerment can help strengthen the relationships between managers and employees, Managers are seen as coaches and professionals who are experienced with a direct interest in the success of their employees, showing willingness to devote time to nurture them, as opposed to those that dictate policy and give commands. Managers learn to rely on empowered employees, and employees learn to use their managers as resources for getting advice and completing the jobs assigned.

Empowerment Culture: Empowerment comes from the top down. Managers have to give employees latitude and actually encourage them to take on larger roles. In empowerment cultures we generally hear managers saying things like, "What do you think?" "How would you handle this?" "Let's try that," "Go ahead with it," and "I trust your judgment." Many times empowerment leadership requires that when employees come to them with problems, they come with at least one proposed solution. In essence, decision making begins with employees and is more decentralized.

Recognition and Encouragement: For empowerment to work, employees need a lot of encouragement and support, especially when first shifting towards an empowerment model. Managers need to recognize people's accomplishments and praise their successes. This reinforcement will motivate teams to go further and take on more responsibilities. As they do, managers are likely to have less day-to-day decision making and, ideally, more time for strategy, newer projects, and overall direction.

Risks: Decision makers take risks--and everyone makes mistakes from time to time. In an empowered culture, as the decision making shifts down the line toward employees, they will make errors, just as managers do. Instead of becoming reactive and taking decision making power away from a team member, managers must act as coaches. Nonetheless, it is important to encourage risk-taking because 'the higher the risk, the higher the returns'. Every mistake is a learning opportunity and managers should help their teams figure out what went wrong and how to recover, improve and grow. If employees feel that taking reasonable, measured risks can lead to severe penalties, they become dejected and dis-empowered.

Direct Accountability: Empowering employees to make their own decisions means that employees have direct accountability for their jobs. The fact is that responsibility and accountability are the two sides of the same coin. This is advantageous for companies, because instead of harnessing managers with the responsibility for all decisions, employees pick up some of the decision-making slack. Thus, it is easier to pinpoint the exact sources of issues. Companies can offer specific employees training and any other information needed to correct errors as opposed to spending time and money training entire departments.

Generation of Useful Ideas: Employees interacting with customers can provide important insight into management decisions and product and service innovations on a regular basis--if they're empowered to share those insights. Since empowerment encourages upward communication, the same becomes possible. Organizations interested in effective organizational development and change management programs regularly seek, acknowledge, and reward employee feedback.

Higher Quality: Empowered employees feel a strong sense of ownership for their companies. This ownership translates into a concern for providing better products and service. Such empowered employees walk the extra mile and do outstanding work. For eg. to satisfy the customer or client, an employee may work beyond office hours too to ensure his project is completed and delivered on time, as committed. Organizational development and change programs that consider employee empowerment improve outcomes and service by empowering employees to take ownership of their jobs, and in the delivery of products and services to their customers.

Increased Commitment and Loyalty: Even in a tight economy, employers do not like high employee turnover; recruitment and training are always expensive. During an organizational change, especially if stress and uncertainty are high, incorporating employee empowerment as a foundation of organizational development activities can help ensure employees remain committed and loyal and give their 100% and do not leave the organization or do job hopping easily. This improves the retention ratio of organizations.

Increased Productivity: When employees feel that they have a say in decisions that affect them and know that management is listening to their ideas and concerns, they work harder. Implementing organizational development and change management programs calls for incorporating ways to help employees feel empowered. This goes a long way toward increasing productivity since the employees give better results in the form of more output.

Improved Brand Image: Word-of-mouth information raises awareness among potential employees i.e. those seeking to take up jobs with different companies. Incorporating employee empowerment in an organizational development and change program boosts employee pride in the company. The more empowered employees are, the more satisfied they are--and the more likely they will spread the word to others about how great the company is and why they like working there. Such improved brand image will attract competent people to apply for vacancies in the organization which will be all the more to the advantage of the company.

10.4.2 Drawbacks of Participation & Employee Empowerment

Employee empowerment is the process of allowing employees to make their own decisions and getting employees involved in helping to make decisions that affect the entire company. The upside to empowerment is that you get an employee population that is involved intimately in the success of the company. However, there are many challenges associated with employee empowerment as well.

Message Disconnect

While empowering a workforce encourages employees to think on their own, it can create chaos by developing different messages from various employees. What may work for one employee may not be effective for another, and rather than creating a cohesive company message, there may be a lot many fragments of individual messages. This can become challenging in the area of customer service, for example, when one representative may handle a similar situation differently from her/his colleague within the company. When two customers with the same issue get two different solutions, this can lead to a disconnect between the company and the customer who is the king, but may remain dissatisfied.

Increased Arrogance

When employees are empowered, their confidence levels tend to increase. This additional confidence is a good thing because it creates happier workers and productivity levels soar. However, in some situations, confidence levels can be taken too far and end up crossing the line into arrogance. There is a thin line between confidence and over-confidence which should not be crossed. Arrogant employees are difficult to deal with, don't take directions well and can become insubordinate. Working in this type of work environment takes its toll on employees and they once again become dissatisfied with their job and productivity levels decrease.

Confidentiality and Security Risks

One way that employers empower their employees is by sharing important information with them. This free exchange of ideas and information makes the employees feel appreciated and important, which ends up empowering them. However, when information is freely exchanged with people throughout the company, there is an increased risk of confidential and security-related data being leaked to parties that shouldn't have access to that type of information. For competitive businesses, these potential leaks could prove devastating to their operations.

Lack of Experience

A benefit of having empowered employees is that they take on more responsibility within the company. As they take on more responsibility, they begin working independently with little or no supervision. Businesses appreciate this change because it saves them money by decreasing their managerial workforce. However, unlike managers and supervisors who are educated and trained in making sound decisions, empowered employees often lack this type of experience. This lack of experience leads to an increase in mistakes and unnecessary company risks.

Interpersonal Relations Suffer

Some employees confuse empowerment and being able to make their own decisions with having the authority to do whatever they want. As employees are allowed to take on additional responsibilities, some may end up taking things too far. If this happens, interpersonal relations within the company will suffer and incidents involving conflict will rise. Over time, tensions increase and a hostile work environment may surface. This type of situation is bad for both the business and the workforce.

Insufficient Training

When managers are taking decisions and evolve as empowered employees, it becomes necessary to increase the amount of training for employees to help strengthen each individual's attitude, skill, knowledge, or ethics' set. In other words, the managers' competencies need to be honed further. A lack of training in an empowered environment can create situations in which employees are working on intuition rather than following company policy. As a result, customers can wind up with incompatible solutions or insufficient information in answer to a question.

Resistance in Managers

The challenges in some empowered environments can come from the top managers themselves. Some managers may not feel that their employees are competent enough to handle an empowered environment, and those managers will still maintain an employee-manager business model that can interfere with implementing the employee empowerment model. In this situation, it helps if managers work closely with their employees and gain the confidence in their employees necessary to allow the empowerment model to take shape.

Segmentation

One of the negative consequences of empowerment is departmental segmentation. Work groups or individuals that are allowed to deal with their own daily work issues can become indignant of co-workers or other departments. Empowered employees and work groups can feel as though they no longer need to take any kind of direction from management. This creates a company consisting of individuals or work groups achieving their own goals without much common direction from the top. To prevent counter-productive segmentation, empowered employees should be held to company-mandated goals and procedures. Empowerment should not mean the employee is free to achieve his own goals and use his own procedures regardless of what the company dictates.

Empowerment means achieving goals and developing skills within the guidelines set by the company. Employees are given the freedom to make daily decisions, but those decisions still need to focus on achieving corporate goals. Regular meetings with managers and the executive team can keep an empowered staff focused on working with the rest of the departments within the company.

Breakdown of Organizational Structure

As employees gain more confidence in an empowered environment, they begin to feel they can deal with more strategic decisions. Managers need to create clear guidelines for empowerment, or they risk the possibility that the hierarchy within the organizational structure will break down, making it difficult for them to maintain control over their employees.

10.5 Implementation of Empowerment

Employee empowerment techniques introduce and emphasize productive communication between management and staff. When a company empowers its employees it generally follows the three degrees of empowerment i.e. **encouraging, involving, and enabling** the employees. The employees then automatically take responsibility for decisions that they are free to make. Employee empowerment creates a sense of ownership and accountability in a company and the employees' daily operations, investing pride in carrying out the mission and vision of a company. Loyalty and productivity serve as key consequences of employee empowerment. The resultant organization benefits are better understanding of customer needs and wants, continuous innovation, improved service delivery, increased productivity to gain the much needed competitive edge.

The steps involved in the implementation of empowerment in general in any organization are as under:

Step 1: The management should change roles of employees from supervisory to that of a coach or mentor. Employees are coached to identify and implement solutions to problems. Proactive employees should be rewarded with recognition and a greater sense of achievement in the company. But it is essential for the management to ensure that the managers must express willingness and ability to adapt from supervisory roles to coaching roles and so introductory seminars or workshops for them should be organized so that they understand the importance of the same.

Step 2: Productive continuous coaching should be developed by encouraging and advising the employees on their new role with techniques, such as motivation, questioning and adapting their management style to the employees' ability to function at a given level. If, for example, an employee needs to speed up and increase his efficiency on a particular project, begin by communicating basic information, building upon that foundation with more in-depth knowledge. It is important to continuously interact with each employee to determine how to help her/him to justify their position in the company.

Step 3: Delegation is essential to empower employees. Team members need to be provided the information and power to make decisions and to take action. If, for example, the sales team struggles to offer incentives to prospective customers, it must be communicated to the team what offers they are authorized to make. They should be trained to make offers to clients in the most strategic way. Effective delegation depends upon clear communication.

Step 4: Communication of confidence in employees is of great importance, followed by setting of renewed goals for employees. Express the confidence and expectations for solid and optimum performance to you employees. Conduct regular employee reviews and staff meetings to make sure the goals are met. It is also important to inspire employees by setting realizable goals. Offering performance incentives to raise the bar higher by realistic increments is also useful most of the times.

10.6 Challenges of Employee Empowerment

Creating a culture of empowerment in the organization includes a combination of success stories, and sometimes a few pitfalls too—which need to be avoided.

10.6.1 Indicators of Success

Empowerment can be difficult to quantify. There are no statistics or percentages by which its success can be measured. When it comes to empowerment, qualitative indicators are the most important measure of success. And it must be understood, however, that change does not occur overnight.

The indicators of success of an empowered organization culture include the following:

Open Management: Team members are actively involved in meetings, evaluation and analysis of important issues, and identifying creative solutions. Managers support their skill and autonomy, and allow team members to exercise control in these matters.

Team Spirit: Team members and managers alike show a high degree of enthusiasm, and company morale is high. The employees in different departments work in close coordination with each other with a concentration on achieving overall vision and mission of the organization.

Decentralized Control: Team members function in relative autonomy, with overlapping roles and functions, all the while maintaining clear individual roles. Decision making on routine matters is largely relinquished to people down the line; decision making on matters of strategic importance are more or less centralized, though.

Taking these important employee empowerment measures will result in a more skilled, motivated, and autonomous employee team while at the same time increasing the overall effectiveness of the company.

10.6.2 Reasons for Failure of Employee Empowerment

If we identify a few reasons why empowering employees in organizations does not always succeed, it may help us to keep them at bay:

1. Managers pay lip service to employee empowerment, but do not really believe in its power.
2. Half-hearted or unbelievable employee empowerment efforts will certainly fail
3. Managers don't really understand what employee empowerment means. Employee empowerment is a philosophy or strategy that enables people to make decisions about their job.
4. Managers fail to establish boundaries for employee empowerment. In the absence of seniors, what decisions can be made by staff members down the line?
5. Managers have defined the decision making authority and boundaries with staff, but then micromanage the work of employees. This is usually because managers don't trust staff to make good decisions.
6. The staff can make good decisions if they have undergone coaching, training, and have been provided necessary information. It is incorrect to undermine or change the decision for which a staff person had been empowered.
7. Failure to provide a strategic framework, in which decisions have a compass and success measurements, imperils the opportunity for empowered behavior. Employees need direction to know how to practice empowerment.
8. If managers fail to provide the information and access to information, training, and learning opportunities needed for staff to make good decisions, don't complain when employee empowerment efforts fall short. The organization has the responsibility to create a work environment that helps foster the ability and desire of employees to act in empowered ways. Information is the key to successful employee empowerment.
9. Managers abdicate all responsibility and accountability for decision making. When reporting staff are blamed or punished for failures, mistakes, and less than optimum results, employees will flee from employee empowerment and shun it.
10. Allow barriers to impede the ability of staff members to practice empowered behavior. The work organization has the responsibility to remove barriers that limit the ability of staff to act in empowered ways. These barriers can include time, tools, training, access to meetings and teams, financial resources, support from other staff members, and effective coaching.
11. When employees feel under-compensated, under-titled for the responsibilities they take on, under-noticed, under-praised, and under-appreciated, results cannot be expected from employee empowerment.

10.7 Summary

Increased employee participation and empowerment have always been the central goals and fundamental values of OD. The reason is clear: Participation enhances empowerment and empowerment in turn ensures better performance. Participation and empowerment go hand in glove with each other. Empowerment is the authority to make decisions within one's area of operations without having to get approval from anyone else where personnel are encouraged to use their initiative, and employees are given not just the authority but resources as well, so that they are able to make a decision and see that it is implemented. When a company empowers its employees it generally follows the three degrees of empowerment i.e. encouraging, involving, and enabling the employees. The resultant organization benefits are better understanding of customer needs and wants, continuous innovation, improved service delivery, increased productivity to gain the much needed competitive edge. Empowerment can be difficult to quantify. There are no statistics or percentages by which its success can be measured. When it comes to empowerment, qualitative indicators are the most important measure of success.

10.8 Self Assessment Questions

1. Distinguish between delegation and employee participation and empowerment.
2. What are the essential characteristics of an empowered organization?
3. How does empowerment affect an employee's motivation and performance in an organization?
4. What are the challenges faced by an organization when it incorporates a culture of empowerment?
5. Enumerate cases for and against employee empowerment. In case your advice is sought by top management, would you advocate the same to be implemented in your organization?
6. List a few examples to show that an organization has imbibed a culture of participation and empowerment.
7. What are the benefits of empowerment for the organization?
8. Mention the steps to implement empowerment at the workplace.

10.9 Reference Books

- Adrian Thornhill, Phil Lewis, Mike Millmore, and Mark Saunders, A Human Resource Strategy Approach - Managing Change, Financial Times - Pearson Education
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Unit - 11 : Applied Behavioral Science

Structure of Unit

- 11.0 Objectives
- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 Composition of Applied Behavioral Science
- 11.3 Behavioral Science Foundations of OD
- 11.4 OD and HRD
- 11.5 Competencies of OD Facilitator
- 11.6 Summary
- 11.7 Self Assessment Questions
- 11.8 Reference Books

11.0 Objectives

After completing this unit, you would be able:

- To understand the process of OD from behavioral science perspective.
- To learn about the behavioral foundations of OD.
- To know about the contributions to OD from Behavioral Science theory and research and also Practice theory and research.
- To assimilate the knowledge of different behavioral approaches to OD and use the same during practice.
- To imbibe the various interventions of HRD which comprise OD.
- To evaluate the competencies essential to OD Consultants or Practitioners.

11.1 Introduction

The foundation of OD refers to the primary knowledge base of the field of behavioral science. OD is in fact the application of behavioral science knowledge, practices, and skills on ongoing systems in collaboration with system members. Although human behavior in organizations is far from being an exact science, lawful patterns of events produce effectiveness and ineffectiveness. These patterns are revealed through research and theory. One classic definition of organization development is by Richard Beckhard which states, “*Organization Development* is an effort (1) planned, (2) organization-wide, and (3) managed from the top, to (4) increase organization effectiveness and health through (5) planned interventions in the organizations “processes,” *using behavioral-science knowledge.*” Alternately, Organization Development (OD) is a process by which behavioral science knowledge and practices are used to help organizations achieve greater effectiveness, including improved quality of work life and increased productivity. In the 1950s and 1960s a new, integrated approach originated known as Organization Development (OD) which refers to the systematic application of behavioral science knowledge at various levels (group, inter group, and total organization) to bring about planned change.

11.2 Composition of Applied Behavioral Science

A conventional distinction is made between pure and basic science, the object of which is to generate knowledge and technological applied science and practice, the object of which is knowledge to solve practical, pressing problems. OD emphasizes the latter i.e. applied science or practice.

The problem that confronts an OD practitioner or HR Head is customarily a state of disequilibrium that requires rectification. The practitioner examines the problem situation on the basis of which the solution is prescribed. This hopefully reestablishes the equilibrium, thereby solving the problem. This process is called diagnosis and treatment. For diagnosing and treating, it is essential to observe the situation and on the basis of selected variables, place it in a classification scheme or typology. It allows the practitioner what remedial measures to apply to correct the problem.

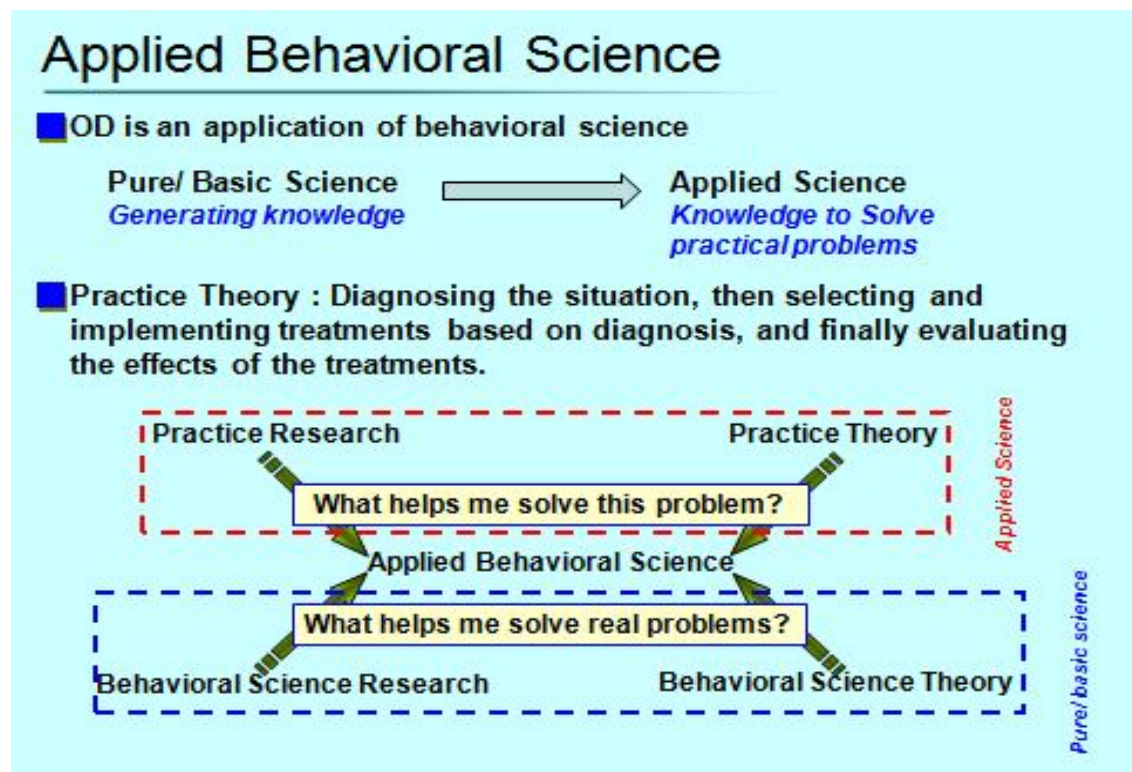


Figure: 11.1 Composition of Applied Behavioral Science

From such practice theory, the OD practitioner first diagnoses the situation, then selects and implements treatments based on the diagnosis, and finally evaluates the effects of the treatment on the health of the organization or individuals or teams. In the figure 11.1, the two bottom inputs, Behavioral Science Research and Behavioral Science Theory represent contributions from pure or basic science; the two top inputs of Practice Research and Practice Theory represent contributions from applied science.

11.2.1 Contribution from Behavioral Science Theory

The following are the contributions from the field of Behavioral Science Theory:

- The importance of social norms in determining perceptions, motivation, and behaviors.
- The role of exchange theory of behavior that states that people tend to exchange approximately equivalent units to maintain a balance between give and take.
- The importance of the existing total field of forces in determining and predicting behavior.
- The relevance of role theory in accounting for stability and change in behavior.
- The possibilities inherent in views of motivation which are different from those provided by older theories.
- The importance of individual goal setting for increasing productivity and improving performance.
- The social cognitive theory, general theories of learning, effects of reward and punishment, attitude change theories in understanding organizational behavior.

11.2.2 Contributions from Behavioral Science Research

- Studies on the causes, conditions, and consequences of induced competition on behavior within and between groups.
- Results on the effects of cooperative and competitive group goal structures on behavior within groups.
- Studies on the effects of organizational and managerial climate on leadership style.
- Studies on the variables relevant for organizational health.
- Studies showing the importance of the social system in relation to the technical system.
- Studies on different communication networks, causes and consequences of conformity, group problem solving, and group dynamics.

11.2.3 Contributions from Practice Theory

- Implications from the theory and practice of the laboratory training method.
- Implications from theories of group development.
- New dimensions in the helping relationship and client-consultant relationship.
- Codification of the practice of management.
- New ideas about the education process.
- The concept of Management by Objectives (MBO).
- Implications of social learning theory and behavior modeling for supervisor training.
- Explorations in intervention theory and method.
- Developments in consultation typologies and theory.
- Implications and application from theories of planned change.

11.2.4 Contributions from Practice Research

- Studies showing feedback survey research data for organization change.
- Results indicating the importance of informal work group on individual and group performance.
- Results showing the efficacy of grid organization development in large organizations.
- Results documenting improved organizational performance and improved organization climate stemming from a long-term OD effort.
- Results showing the ability of behavior modeling training to improve supervisory human relations skills and organizational effectiveness.

11.3 Behavioral Science Foundations of OD

Unlike many of the approaches of planned change for solving immediate and specific problems, OD is a longer term, more encompassing and complex approach to moving the organization to a higher level of functioning while greatly improving its members' performance and well being given changing problems and opportunities. Although OD frequently includes structural and technological changes, its primary focus is on changing people and the nature and quality of their working relationships. OD ought to be a top management-supported effort. Therefore, leaders' awareness of change and renewal is necessary for its success. Subsequent to this felt need comes effective and collaborative diagnosis of management culture. Greater subordinate involvement in decision-making toward effective teamwork is acknowledged as an important ingredient of modern participatory management.

OD has come to occupy commanding heights in behavioral science literature as theorists and practitioners appear to be unfailing in their zest to design strategies to improve organizational effectiveness in various parts of the world. Interestingly, OD now represents the finer points of applied behavioral sciences. In fact, the foundations of OD are an amalgam of interpretative contributions made by some of the best-known behavioral scientists in areas like psychology, social anthropology, sociology, psychiatry, economics, and political science.

What makes OD distinct from other treatments of organizations is an interdisciplinary view of what transforms the organization in question. Different approaches to the question of bringing about change in an organization are presented in this section, along with their respective contributions to OD:

11.3.1 The Individual Approach to Change

At the individual level, OD change actions assume that individuals have a natural desire for personal development and growth and are able and willing to put in greater efforts for the organization's improvement. Therefore, OD practitioners attempt to overcome organizational factors that retard or prevent personal growth. Economists were the first

professional group to propound a specific theory of human behavior in economic organizations. The theory holds that individuals make “rational” decisions based on available information. They prefer choices that are likely to improve their well being. This approach is widely known as self-interest maximization.

This view stems from the works of *Adam Smith and Jeremy Bentham*. Smith articulated with great emphasis that man is motivated by self-interest in all of his actions. Bentham extended this theory and saw economic man as intelligently calculating and weighing the expected costs and benefits of every action.

While most economists have tended to interpret human behavior in utilitarian terms, psychologists have theorized in somewhat different directions. *Pavlov*, a famous Russian psychologist, constructed a behavioral model based on his observation of the behavior of his dog. He rang a bell each time he offered food to his dog. He found that the behavior of his dog was rhythmic. He thus concluded that learning was an associative process and that human behavior was largely conditioned in this manner. The Pavlovian **learning model** has been refined to emphasize the desirability of repetitive stimuli to influence human behavior. Today, a large number of advertising campaigns are based on the Pavlovian model.

Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic model of man, though invalidated by current studies, has had a profound impact on Western thought and analysis in the twentieth century. Freud developed his model on the basis of instinctive seeds that a child cannot gratify by himself. As he grows, his psyche also grows in complexity. The id, however, remains the basis of his strong drives and urges. The ego helps him plan outlets for his drives. The super ego defines his socially approved outlets to avoid the unpleasant feelings of guilt or shame.

Psychologists have been unfailing in their efforts to unfold the entire truth about human **motivation**. The works of Maslow, Herzberg, Lauler, and Vroom are particularly interesting and oft quoted. *Maslow* constructed a **five-level need model** in a hierarchical manner as follows: physiological needs, safety and security needs, belongingness needs, esteem needs, and need for self-actualization. *Herzberg* carefully studied the hierarchy of the needs model and argued that Maslow's ego-related needs provide motivation on the job and that the lower order needs in the hierarchy reduce dissatisfaction among individuals. Interestingly, according to Herzberg, people's needs are associated with what he calls an escalation phenomenon: the more people get, the more they want. The **expectancy theory** of *Lauler and Vroom* also helps one gain deep insights into human motivation. The theory is based on the following assumptions:

1. There is a direct correlation between people's behavior and the perceived outcomes of this behavior.
2. Outcomes have different values for different people.
3. People have a tendency to relate their behavior to the probability of success.

Thus, people are likely to perform at a level that will lead to the attainment of perceived rewards.

Since OD includes within its orbit management development programs, it is important to also focus on leadership. In fact, a formidable body of literature exists, explaining the mechanics and dynamics of leadership. The **Managerial Grid** suggested by *Blake and Mouton* emphasizes the theory of effectiveness with the help of leadership styles. Blake and Mouton chose a nine-point scale to rank a leader's degree of concern for production and people. Out of the eighty-one possible combinations, Blake and Mouton found 5.5 to be the predominant style of leadership in American organizations. OD consultants make use of the grid in their interventionist programs. In fact, thousands of organizations in various countries have tried to improve organizational effectiveness by bringing about suitable changes in leadership styles.

11.3.2 T-Group or Laboratory Training

The National Training Laboratories (NTL) developed training groups known as *sensitivity training* or *T-groups*. Laboratory Training began in 1946 when Kurt Lewin and his staff at the Research Center for Group Dynamics at MIT were asked for help on training community leaders. A workshop was developed for the leaders to learn about leadership and to discuss problems. At the end of each day, the researchers discussed privately what behaviors and group dynamics they had observed. The leaders asked permission to sit in on these feedback sessions. Reluctant at first, the researchers finally agreed. Thus the first T-group was formed in which people reacted to information about their own behavior.

It is a form of group training where participants themselves (typically, between eight and 15 people) learn about themselves (and about small group processes in general) through their interaction with each other. They use feedback, problem solving, and [role play](#) to gain insights into themselves, others, and groups.

A T-group meeting does not have an explicit agenda, structure, or express goal. Under the guidance of a facilitator, the participants are encouraged to share emotional reactions such as, anger, fear, warmth, or envy, that arise in response to their fellow participants' actions and statements. The emphasis is on sharing emotions, as opposed to judgments or conclusions. In this way, T-group participants can learn how their words and actions trigger emotional responses in the people they communicate with. Many varieties of T-groups have existed, from the initial T-groups that focused on small group dynamics, to those that aim more explicitly to develop self-understanding and interpersonal communication. Industry also widely used T-groups, particularly in the 1960s and 1970s, and in many ways these were predecessors of current [team building](#) and [corporate culture](#) initiatives.

This type of training is controversial as the behaviors it encourages are often self-disclosure and openness, which many people believe some organizations ultimately punish. The feedback used in this type of training can be highly personal; hence it must be given by highly trained observers or trainers. The T-group is always embedded in a Human Interaction Laboratory, with reflection time and theory sessions. In these sessions, the participants have the opportunity to make sense of what's happening in the T-group.

11.3.3 Survey Research Feedback (Refer to Unit 9)

11.3.4 Action Research (Refer to Unit 9)

11.3.5 Productivity and Quality-of-Work-Life (QWL)

This was originally developed in Europe during the 1950s and is based on the work of Eric Trist and his colleagues at the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations in London. This approach examined both the technical and the human sides of organizations and how they are interrelated.

Quality of work life is an "attempt to restructure multiple dimensions of the organization" and to "institute a mechanism which introduces and sustains changes over time." Aspects of the change mechanism are usually an increase in participation by employees in shop floor decisions and an increase in problem-solving between the union and the management.

Features of QWL

Some common features of such projects are:

- Voluntary involvement of the employees
- Union agreement with the process and participation in it
- Assurance of no loss of jobs
- Training of employees in team problem solving
- The use of quality circles where employees discuss problems affecting the performance of the plant and the work environment
- Team participation in forecasting, work planning, and team leader and team member selection
- Regular plant and team meetings to discuss such matters as quality, safety, customer orders, and schedules
- Encouragement of skill development and job rotation within work teams
- Skills training and responsiveness to employee concerns

Some of the QWLP have had modest success; there are frequent difficulties in sustaining or expanding the process beyond a few years. Some of the reasons for failure may be change in union leadership, high expectations, efforts aimed at production and clerical levels, and little attention paid to long-term financial rewards to the participants. Major resistance from supervisors has frequently occurred when top management paid insufficient attention to issues of job security and role definition for people.

One of the outstanding characteristics of OD that distinguishes it from most other improvement programs is that it is based on a "helping relationship." Some believe that the change agent is not a physician to the organization's ills; that she/he does not examine the "patient," make a diagnosis, and write a prescription. Nor does she/he try to teach organizational members a new inventory of knowledge which they then transfer to the job situation. Using theory and methods drawn from such behavioral sciences as industrial/organizational psychology, industrial sociology, communication, cultural

anthropology, administrative theory, organizational behavior, economics, and political science, the change agent's main function is to help the organization define and solve its own problems. The basic method used is known as action research which consists of a preliminary diagnosis, collecting data, feedback of the data to the client, data exploration by the client group, action planning based on the data, and taking action

11.4 OD and HRD

Getting the best from HRD Interventions using Behavioral Science through various OD interventions are mentioned below.

11.4.1 Competency Mapping (CM):

While applying this intervention, we need to map the competencies for the entire organization by using a participative process and by using facilitators to initiate the exercise. This intervention needs specialists in behavioral science. The facilitator should have skills in identifying knowledge, attitudes, skills, and knowledge of competency mapping techniques. The competency mapping by itself is a participative process. When the mapped competencies are used for organization wide interventions it becomes an OD intervention. Competency mapping and designing competency based HR systems is one of the most ROI giving interventions if taken to logical end. By virtue of its linkages with other HR systems it is a whole system involving exercise, which is as follows:

Start from the top. Top management should know the purpose and importance of CM.

1. They should be involved in setting the vision and strategic plan.
2. Use Behavioral science specialists and knowledge. CM has nearly sixty years of work starting with the work of Benjamin Bloom and team. Unless educationists trained in CM are used, it may be hijacked into other directions.
3. Use sequential approach. CM should start with diagnosis. What is lacking because of lack of role directory, role clarity, team work, capability shortage, succession planning? How a right diagnosis can help? Use participative approach. Develop internal resource. Explain the importance of CM to all levels. Disengage after competency based HR systems are once in place.
4. Use multiple interventions, workshops, seminars, interviews, task forces etc. and conduct it for all levels.
5. Demonstrate how it leads to organizational effectiveness and change. Link it with all other systems like recruitment, induction, PMS etc.

11.4.2 Performance Management System (PMS)

PMS is a great change tool. This has been recognized in India in mid seventies by organizations like Larsen and Toubro (L&T). However, most organizations treat it merely as a system to manage people or as a human resource management system than as a change management system. The potential of this tool has been grossly underestimated and attention paid to this and investments made on this are extremely small. The most important investment it requires is managerial time. But even this time is a mere 1% to 5% of each manager's time in a year to plan, review, and develop the performance, competencies and culture of individuals, dyads, teams and the organization as a whole in the following manner:

1. Understand the potential of PMS. This may be done by the top management and all strategically important individuals or managers sitting together and subjecting themselves to a learning session or by examining how organizations across the world have used PMS as a change tool.
2. Examine the multiple objectives of PMS and choose the objectives that are manageable in a short span and in the long run.
3. Conduct diagnostic studies of why PM Systems (or performance appraisal systems) have not worked in the past.
4. Use a participative approach. Get top management commitment. Help them to experience how it helps them focus their work, plan time and maximize their impact.
5. *PMS facilitator should be knowledgeable in behavioral sciences.* The person should be process sensitive, know goal setting, identify Key Performance Areas KPAs, difference between KPAs and KRAs (Key result Areas), force field analysis, coaching, biases in ratings etc.
6. The interventions may include education program, training internal resource persons etc.
7. There should be periodic surveys and survey feedback a on the system and its implementation.

Most often the in-house teams need to do a lot of work in the process of suing PMS as a change management tool. A good PMS can create new culture of transparence, integrity, and promote good values. The intervention should be system driven and should involve the whole system.

11.4.3 Leadership Development using 360 Degree Feedback

A number of organizations use leadership development in-house based on the 360 Degree feedback. The usual design is to start with a competency framework and develop a leadership and managerial effectiveness tool. This tool is then used to get individual assessments made for the top level, senior level and middle level executives. 360 Degree feedback profiles are prepared based on the assessments of juniors, seniors, internal and

external customers of the candidate along with self assessment. The assessments are summarized and graphically presented to help the candidate get an insight into his/her own behavior and leadership competencies. The profiles are then given to the candidates individually and perhaps in a workshop form. The candidates are then assisted to prepare action plans and make commitments to change. The level-wise (HOD, General Manager, Vice-presidents etc.) or the group-wise trends of the feedback are shared and development activities undertaken by the HR department. For example if most participants need to be vision driven or systems driven then a series of programs to develop their vision or systems orientation are made and a training intervention undertaken. Individual coaching also becomes part of the intervention.

To conduct a 360 Degree feedback (DF) and make it an OD activity:

1. Start with company-wide education or expose the entire SBU or the levels in the hierarchy.
2. Develop the tool on the basis of participative methodology and catering the needs of the organization. Incorporate company values and priorities.
3. Get top involvement as 360 DF involves high time investments. Use sequential process.
4. Use a “Facilitator” for this purpose. *Do not use facilitators that have not been trained in Behavioral Science Technology.* Change cannot be bought in an organization through tenders and vendors recruited through tenders. The process of giving feedback to the candidate is very critical in a 360 based leadership development program. This can be given only by “process-sensitive” people.
5. The 360 DF should result in an action plan.
6. The action plans can be shared and integrated into the existing systems of PMS through KPAs.
7. Change should be measured and promoted across the company. This can be done through planning and implementing follow up activities. There could be periodic meetings of the 360 teams (teams that have undergone the feedback intervention) and experiences shared. The top management should be brought in to listen to the presentations after a 360 Feedback workshop and also in the follow-up sessions.
8. The 360 DF should result in enhanced awareness of individual to his competencies and competency gap.
9. The intervention could be closed after three to four sittings and integrated into the organizations PMS or training and other systems.
10. Organize training and other intervention to maximize the impact of 360. Disengagement should happen only after heightened awareness. Appoint executive coaches and mentors to bring it to a logical conclusion.

A good 360 Based leadership program can develop many more leaders and prepare a leadership pipeline in the organization. It can also uplift the level of leadership initiatives and create leadership culture in the organization.

11.4.4 Assessment and Development Centers (ADCs)

ADCs have begun as potential assessment tools. Over a period of time they have acquired the potential as competency building tools. They are being used for identifying talent, succession planning and promotion tools. Though they are tools with limited purpose they can be used for larger purposes including culture change. However, when they are used for larger purposes they should be used as culture building tools. Creating a competency culture, high performance culture, leadership culture are some of the higher goals. However they should be supplemented with other interventions like climate surveys, succession planning etc. The limitations of ADCs as predictive tools should be explained. Organizations like Aditya Birla Group in private sector and NTPC, HPCL etc. in public sector have used these interventions to bring systematic changes. Most organizations however make the mistake of frequently changing consultants. Mostly they bring Consultants for specific interventions and as a result synergistic effect is lost. Some consultants are also shy of getting into long term contracts to bring change. Short term interventions have better remuneration possibilities for consultants but may have a limited impact.

To make ADCs as OD interventions:

1. Begin with an education program throughout the company. This could be done internally. Complete the education process for all those who are going to participate and are going to be affected by the ADCs in some form or the other.
2. Choose your facilitators carefully. *The facilitators should not be mere assessors trained in ADCs but should be behavioral scientists committed to change and change management specialists.* They should be willing to have a long term commitment (three to five year period) to work with the organizations.
3. Involve as many internal assessors as possible in ADCs. Train internal assessors.
4. Look for low cost tools and develop indigenous tools than using borrowed tools tested out in other cultures. Managerial behavior and behavior management is highly culture specific. Borrowed tools help the tool developers and not the users. Cultural change can be brought in with culture sensitive tools.
5. Explain the tools (role plays, in-baskets, simulation games etc.) along with the scores to those who undergo the ADCs.
6. Transfer the tool to the in-house training programs and develop candidates to exhibit behaviors desired and master the tools. This will require frequent changes in the tools.
7. Get each candidate to prepare action plans (called as Individual Development Plans or IDPs and similar names) at the end of the ADC.
8. Keep reviewing the implementation by conducting anonymous surveys.

The ultimate success of an ADC is when an ADC can be designed and conducted internally by any organization. Another important indicator of success is the level of

improvement in competencies of the candidates who go through the program and the speed with which these tools can be incorporated into training programs. ADCs are great tools to uplift the competency levels of the organization.

11.5 Competencies of an OD Facilitator

Normally some Behavioral Science education is prescribed for OD facilitator. Normally any Masters Degree holder in psychology, sociology, social work, philosophy, human resources management is passed as a Behavioral Scientist. Those who have an MBA can be considered BS Trainers provided they have studied personality theories, applied behavioral science dealing with individual, team and organizational psychology and have an understanding of human behavior in organizational settings.

OD is data based. OD specialist should be research driven. It is highly recommended that those who aspire to be OD specialists should strive to the following:

- A. Do their Ph.D or equivalent of research course to acquire and demonstrate data based research capabilities.
- B. Subscribe to and strive to proactive values or participative values with authenticity, trustworthiness and integrity, committed to change and change management.
- C. Acquire Behavioral Science knowledge through certification programs on coaching, 360 DF, ADCs, psychometric testing, Assessors programs etc.
- D. Develop their diagnostic and OD skills and master at least some interventions.
- E. Be prepared to work long term and for whole system change in any area of their work.

The checklist for OD Behavioral Scientists suggests:

- Self-mastery
- Being comfortable with ambiguity
- Managing transitions and Institutionalization
- Participative; create good implementation plan
- Managing separation
- Managing client ownership of change
- Setting conditions of positive change
- Using data to adjust change
- Ability to work with large systems
- Staying current with technology
- Ability to evaluate change
- Ability to clarify data needs
- Understand research methods
- Being available to listen to multiple stakeholders
- Building realistic relationships
- Ability to work with and manage diversity

- Ability to clarify roles
- Ability to work with power
- Ability to keep an open mind
- Ability to see whole picture
- Ability to integrate theory and practice
- Ability to focus on relevance and flexibility
- Clarifying outcomes

Implied in this check list are the following competencies:

- Self awareness
- Consulting process management competencies
- Ability to diagnose and understand the system, design and execute interventions, and work with large systems
- Ability to transfer knowledge to client
- Academic knowledge and skills in organizational behavior, management and organization theory and specific knowledge and skills in OD
- Ability to stay current with technology
- Research methods competencies
- Interpersonal skills
- Systems thinking related competencies
- Integrating, balancing and applying theory and practice

11.6 Summary

Organization Development (OD) is a process by which behavioral science knowledge and practices are used to help organizations achieve greater effectiveness, including improved quality of work life and increased productivity. The OD practitioner first diagnoses the situation, then selects and implements treatments based on the diagnosis, and finally evaluates the effects of the treatment on the health of the organization or individuals or teams. The inputs are from Behavioral Science Research and Behavioral Science Theory which represent contributions from pure or basic science; or inputs of Practice Research and Practice Theory which represent contributions from applied science. Different approaches to bringing about change in an organization are (1) the individual approach to change; (2) the T-Group, or laboratory training; and (3) the Survey Research and Feedback system (4) Action Research (5) Productivity and Quality of Work Life. The approaches eventually get integrated into the OD techniques. To get the best from HRD Interventions using Behavioral Science, OD Consultants make use of Competency Mapping, Performance Management Systems, Leadership Development using 360 Degree Feedback, and Assessment and Development Centers.

11.7 Self Assessment Questions

1. Define Organizational Development emphasizing the importance of Behavioral Science.
2. Describe in detail the composition of Applied Behavioral Science, the knowledge of which helps solve practical problems.
3. Enumerate the different behavioral approaches to OD which are being used to bring about long lasting effective change in organizations.
4. Discuss the concepts of Laboratory Training (T Group) and Action Research in detail.
5. What were the contributions of behavioral psychologists regarding human motivation as part of individual approach to change?
6. What points should be borne in mind while planning and implementing Performance Management System as an intervention?
7. How is 360 Degree Feedback a leadership and managerial effectiveness tool?
8. What competencies should an OD Consultant possess in order to be effective?

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Unit - 12 Parallel Learning Structures

Structure of Unit

- 12.0 Objectives
- 12.1 Introduction
- 12.2 Parallel Learning Structure
- 12.3 Designing Parallel Learning Structure
- 12.4 Rationale and Examples
- 12.5 Self Assessment Questions
- 12.6 Reference Books

12.0 Objectives

After completing this unit, you would be able to:

- Explain how parallel learning structures assist the change process
- Understand the relationship between OD and parallel learning structures
- Appreciate the advantages of parallel learning structures
- Practice the activities related to examples mentioned as part of parallel structures.
- Develop step-wise the Collateral Design
- Know about the organizations which have implemented parallel learning structures successfully.

12.1 Introduction

Some companies stand to gain improved employee effectiveness through peer communication and sharing experiences encountered throughout the working day. This behavior happens naturally, to an extent, wherever the staff gathers for breaks and shares conversation. Formalizing the process ensures that all employees in a similar department, regardless of their position in the traditional hierarchy, have the chance to contribute ideas to the broader organization. This led to the emergence of Parallel Learning Structures. Parallel learning structures are specially created organizational structures for planning and guiding change programs; these constitute another important foundation of organization development.

12.2 Parallel Learning Structure

The concept of parallel learning structures was introduced by Dale and Zand in 1974. Parallel Learning Structures co-exist with the formal organizational structures. These structures are formed to solve the problems that remain unresolved by the formal structures. The Parallel Learning Structure is also known as the Collateral Organization. They defined it as “a supplemental organization coexisting with the usual, formal organization.”

The Collateral Organization in the most basic form consists of a steering committee and several working groups who study the organization and identify the changes to be implemented in the form of recommendations for improvement, and monitor the resulting change efforts. Additional refinements include having a steering committee plus idea groups, action groups, or implementation groups, with the groups serving specific functions designated by the steering committee. The parallel structure should be a microcosm of the larger organization, that is, it should have representatives from all departments and levels of the organization. One or more top executives should be members of the steering committee to give the parallel structure authority, legitimacy, and clout.

The term organizational parallel structure has two distinct meanings within the broader topic of business management. The most common meaning relates to a parallel system of learning throughout a business entity, separate and complementary to traditional top-down bureaucratic structure. The term can also refer to parallel leadership hierarchies created through parent company acquisitions. In the latter meaning, two companies may emerge in ownership but keep distinct operating branches as divisions within the parent company.

Gervase Bushe and Abraham Shani summarized and extended the work in this context in their comprehensive treatment titled *Parallel Learning Structures*. It is being used to refer to a kind of structural intervention. Parallel learning structures are a mechanism to facilitate innovation in large bureaucratic organizations where the forces of inertia, hierarchical communication patterns, and standard ways of addressing problems inhibit learning, innovation, and change. In essence, parallel structures are a vehicle for learning how to change the system and then leading the change process.

Bushe and Shani explain the idea further, “We offer the term parallel learning structure as a generic label to cover interventions where:

- a. a structure that is a specific division and coordination of labor is created that
- b. operates parallel, that is, in tandem or side-by-side with the formal hierarchy and structure and
- c. has the purpose of increasing an organization’s learning that is the creation and/or implementation of new thoughts and behaviors by employees.”

As an OD intervention it involves the creation of a parallel and coexisting organization which supplements the formal structures. This collateral structure enables an organization to manage change and innovation without disrupting the formal structures and mechanism needed to manage more repetitive tasks. This intervention is applied when organizations process their downsizing operations. These newly formed structures are small and represent the cross section of the organization. They follow the norms which are opposite to organizational norms. Groups work in tandem and with synergy. Communication channels are not restricted. Collateral organization is well versed to run with innovation with its liberal organizational character.

12.2.1 Application of Parallel Learning Structure

Parallel structures help people break free of the normal constraints imposed by the organization, engage in genuine inquiry and experimentation, and initiate needed changes. Parallel learning structures are an important foundation of OD because they are prevalent in so many different OD programs. The quality of work life programs in the 70's and 80's used parallel structures composed of union leaders, managers, and employees. Most socio-technical systems redesign efforts and open systems planning programs also use parallel structures. High performance organizations do use parallel structures to coordinate self directed teams. For instance, at Ford Motor Company, a steering committee and working teams were used to coordinate the employee involvement teams. Parallel learning structures are often the best way to initiate change when the change involves a fundamental shift in the organization's methods of work and the culture.

Parallel learning groups are comprised of individuals with various backgrounds or expertise that operate via minimal to no supervision within an existing hierarchical structure. These groups do not follow the traditional bureaucratic design of change management within the existing organization but instead are designed to operate parallel to the existing structure or organizational design. It is expected that all participants openly contribute, without fear or organizational retaliation, to identify issues and implement change.

Parallel Learning Structures which are also known as Communities of Practice promote innovation and change in large bureaucratic organizations while retaining the advantages of bureaucratic design. Groups representing various levels and functions work to open new channels of communication outside of and parallel to the normal, hierarchical structure. Parallel Learning Structures may also be a form of Knowledge Management. Knowledge Management involves capturing the organization's collective expertise wherever it resides (in databases, on paper, or in people's heads) and distributes it to the people who need it in a timely and efficient way. A highly participative arrangement composed of people from most levels of the organization who follow the action research model to produce meaningful organization.

So, it can be safely deduced that the purpose of such collateral organization is to deal with ill-structured problems which the formal organization is unable to resolve. Considerable experimentation with collateral organizations occurred in the 1970's and 1980's.

The reasons why Parallel Learning Structures are formed are:

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

12.2.2 Arguments for Parallel Learning Structure

One of the greatest advantages of adopting a parallel learning structure is that it brings underutilized but talented employees to the forefront. In traditional bureaucratic business' hierarchy structures, some employees may not feel motivated to put their best ideas out there, for fear of a supervisor "stealing" credit or because they feel the company doesn't compensate them well enough for a wholehearted creative contribution. By contrast, a parallel learning structure gives credit where it's due, and employees who frequently contribute to the group learning environment are in a perfect position for performance incentive rewards, be it a raise or a promotion.

Xerox Corporation: An Example of Parallel Learning Structure

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

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

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

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

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

Parallel structure links consecutive advertisements, each new version magnifying the impact of previous iterations. For example, suppose an insurance company creates an advertising campaign that has multiple television commercials, each featuring a different

customer testimonial. The commercials are released monthly. If each commercial has the same music, graphical content, logo and slogan, consumers will know immediately what company a new testimonial is supporting. The additive effect of the parallel structures supports the insurance company's overall sales message.

12.2.3 Parallel Learning Structures and Roundtable Sessions

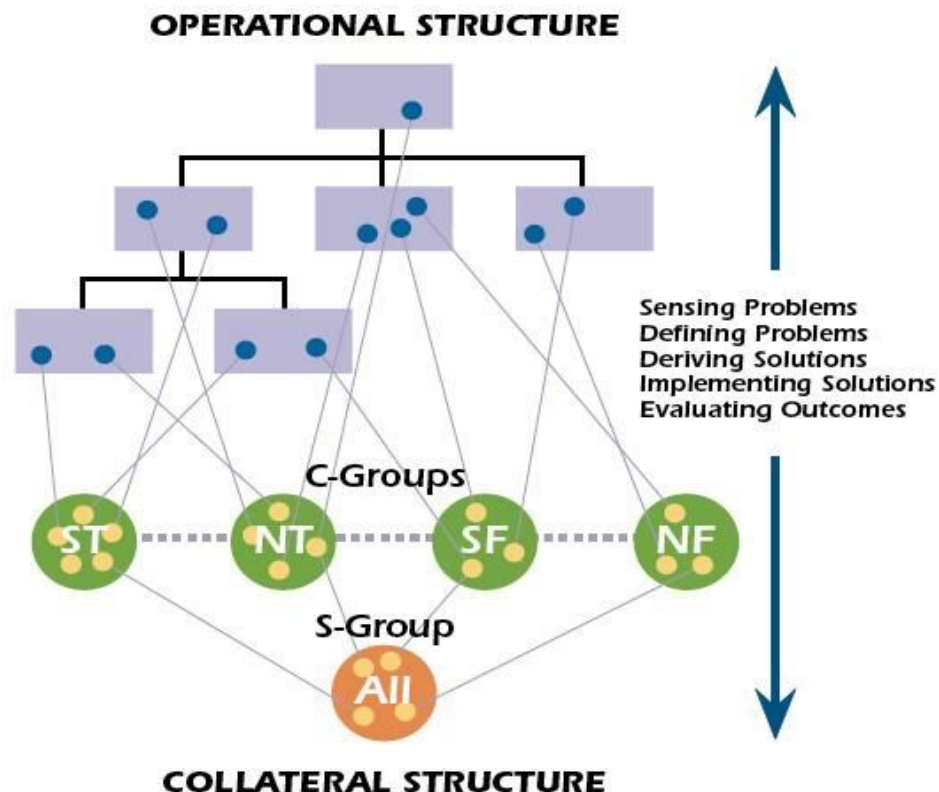
Roundtable sessions are a knowledge-sharing tool at the heart of parallel learning structures, but in order to understand the organizational shape of a parallel learning structure, it helps to look at the traditional bureaucratic leadership model. The traditional leadership model is pyramid-shaped, with directives flowing down from a president or CEO, with a gradually widening shape as the observer reaches middle management and finally the broad base of rank-and-file workers at the bottom. By contrast, a parallel learning structure uses a roundtable approach to arrive at a group consensus-based approach for adopting new ideas. Needless to mention here that being a parallel system, upper management still gets the final say as to how those new ideas are integrated into production and policy. There may be a committee chairman, but his function in the learning structure is less of hardcore leadership and more of record-keeping and administration. So, it also takes care of record-keeping of the details of ideas raised at the roundtable and draft reports for company executives or members to refer to later.

12.2.4 Mergers and Maintaining Parallel Leadership Branches

Mergers can sometimes lead to disastrous integration problems as one company tries to impose its managerial tendencies on another, which can cause labor friction and productivity loss, as the companies' work forces are accustomed to a certain style of leadership. Indeed, even the mention of mergers often gets managers at the smaller of the two merging companies in fear for their jobs and they worry for the well-being of their subordinates. However, divisional branching is an alternative to the messy business of deconstructing the leadership of a merging company. In a divisional branching system, each of the two merging companies maintains their former leadership structure in all practical day-to-day functions. Only the highest executive level--such as the Board of Directors--actually merges outright, while the two branches of the parent company conduct business more or less as usual. This merger strategy is effective when merging two companies which are already turning profits and do not show any signs of management inefficiency.

12.3 Designing Parallel Learning Structure

In the figure, the term *C-Groups* stands for either Collateral Groups or Conclusion Groups. Forming these C-Groups to be as different as possible from one another (as discussed below) helps ensure that all the underlying differences of any complex problem will be brought into the open for an active debate. The term *S-Group* stands for Steering Group or Synthesis Group, which is composed of one or two representatives from each C-Group. The mission of the S-Group is to address and then resolve the differences among the C-Groups (conveniently labeled as ST, NT, SF, and NF) and thus to achieve a far-reaching—effective—synthesis for all concerned.



A major reason for utilizing a parallel structure with overlapping membership is to increase the likelihood that creative and innovative ideas to problems can and will be implemented in the operational design. The trouble with assigning complex issues to staff groups, as is the customary practice, is that these groups are: (1) remote from the source of the problems and (2) not in any position of line authority to implement their own recommendations.

A collateral organization, in contrast, encourages members and line managers from the operational design to develop creative yet feasible solutions in a more relaxed, fluid, collateral design—and then enables them to return to the operational design and implement their solution from a formal position of authority in the organization. This ongoing cycle of sensing the problem (from the operational design), defining the problem and deriving solutions (in the collateral design), and implementing the solution (back in the operational design), is the foundation of the collateral organization. In addition, the collateral design forms groups of people that cut across the formal departments in the operational design so that a wide array of expertise and information is available in each collateral group. It is less likely, consequently, that important aspects of a problem will be overlooked or treated in a narrow way (as would be done if ill-structured problems were approached by one functional department in the operational design).

Modus Operandi of Parallel Learning Structure in a Nutshell

- Look for existing, informal exchanges that naturally occur among staff members.
- Have interested parties convene and develop a mission statement or list the outcomes.
- Determine what support would facilitate the information exchange and learning.
- Publicize when and where the exchanges take place.
- Establish a process for organizing and recording the corporate knowledge.

12.3.1 Creating Collateral Designs

The Ten Steps for Designing Collateral Organizations are:

1. Recognizing that a special-purpose, collateral design is needed to supplement the operational design for important, long-term, complex missions.
2. Formulating the special-purpose or mission for which a collateral organization will be designed.
3. Specifying objectives that the collateral design will attempt to achieve (5–15 objectives).
4. Specifying tasks that need to be performed in order to achieve each specified objective (30–100 tasks).
5. Identifying people who have the necessary abilities, skills, interests, knowledge and experience to perform the indicated tasks from any division in the organization (10–50 people).
6. Determining the interdependencies between all pairs of tasks, anticipating how people would be working on these tasks in order to achieve the objectives.
7. Forming boundaries around “clusters” of tasks denoting each collateral subunit, according to the principle of containing first reciprocal, then sequential, then pooled interdependencies within as opposed to between subunits.
8. Designing the internal-structural characteristics of each collateral subunit, according to the principle of differentiation (i.e., norms, policies, and guidelines to fit with each subunit's task environment).
9. Designing the mechanisms to coordinate all collateral subunits together into a functioning whole, according to the principle of integration as well as to coordinate flows between the operational and collateral designs.
10. Implementing, monitoring, and evaluating the new collateral design as the mission is being pursued.

National Semiconductor

At National Semiconductor, an informal community of engineers who specialize in one critical technology began conducting joint reviews of new chip designs. As word spread within the company, other product groups started bringing designs to this group (on a strictly "off-the-org-chart basis") to solicit its advice. The more reviews this group has done, the more effective it has become—earning a company-wide reputation for excellence. What these engineers found is that they cannot simply publish their "rules" and teach the rest of organization how to do design reviews. The practice and knowledge is embedded in the community that created it. The only way to learn the practice is to become a member. The best way to access the knowledge is to interact with the community. Therefore, National Semiconductor encourages and supports the formation of Communities of Practice (CoPs). (CoPs is their name for Parallel Learning Structures.)

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

12.4 Examples of Parallel Structures

The introduction of new technology is continuously placing pressures on management and employees to design and develop innovative productivity programs, in ways which do not go against the needs and interest of the workers in organizations. This necessitates introduction and management of change on continuing basis at the enterprise level. The organizations designed on bureaucratic and scientific management principles are unable to meet the demands placed on them by such new challenges, but need to respond positively to changing social ethos and milieu.

Programs for improving productivity within the framework of rigid hierarchical organization structure have not led to significant or stable improvement in the direction of higher productivity and employee satisfaction. Since the existing organization structures are geared to maintain stability by ensuring utilization of a largely predetermined production processes and operations, they cannot easily sustain and strengthen changed programs. New types of structures need to be created to cope with increasingly changing technologies and uncertain environments. These structures are group-based, formalized, permanent, cross-functional, vertically integrated and consisting of members from the management, the unions, employees from different levels and functional areas—parallel to the existing operating structure of the organization. The composition of these groups and memberships depends on parallel structures which manage change innovatively and effectively, identify problem areas and develop creative ways of solving those problems. These structures develop programs to overcome resistance to change, and enhance the adaptive capabilities of individual and groups. They provide mechanisms whereby employees at all levels can actively and meaningfully participate in decision-making process and develop their potential in activities that are not necessarily part of their regular functional jobs.

Parallel organizations have been designed to deal with problem areas like cost saving, productivity and quality, quality of working life, organization climate, strategic decisions and similar other productivity-related issues. The new structures facilitate continuous processes of gathering data, diagnosing problems, generating alternatives, making recommendations, monitoring and implementing change in specific problem areas. Some of the examples of parallel organization include the Scanlon Plan, Quality Circles, and Quality of Working Life Councils.

12.4.1 Scanlon Plans

These are an excellent management tool since they aid in the understanding, implementation, and rewards function. *The Scanlon Plan* describes the establishment of two-way communication to help employees and management relate to each other, to their work, and to the goals of the organization. The Scanlon plan has been successfully used by a variety of public and private companies for many decades. These plans combine leadership, total workforce education, and widespread employee participation with a reward system linked to group and/or organization performance. The Scanlon plan is a gain sharing program in which employees share in pre-established cost savings, based

upon employee effort. Formal employee participation is necessary with the Scanlon Plan, as well as periodic progress reporting and an incentive formula.

12.4.1.1 Participation and Committees in Scanlon Plan The philosophy of the plan is to promote group co-operation and solving of organizational problems. Cooperation and involvement start in the creation of the plan with a Design Team and continue once the Plan is implemented with Production and Screening Teams:

Design Team: Scanlon Plans are installed using a high engagement process. The process was labeled the Roadmap by Carl Frost. It begins with an exploration of Scanlon by the top leader of the organization considering a Scanlon Plan. If the leader feels the Scanlon Plan makes sense for his/her organization a "mandate" is drafted. The mandate explains why change is necessary. The top leader then brings together the top leadership team and explains the mandate and asks the following questions:

- 1) Is there a compelling need to change?
- 2) Are we able, willing and ready for the change yet?
- 3) Can the Scanlon Plan help us to meet the mandate?

The top leader asks for a secret ballot vote to proceed further. Unless the vote is unanimous the Scanlon Roadmap does not proceed further, in most cases. If the top team is ready, willing and able, they explain the mandate and Scanlon Roadmap to the organization's Middle Managers and Supervisors. They ask the entire management team to support the mandate and the Scanlon Roadmap. Usually unless 80% of the entire management team supports Scanlon by secret ballot the roadmap does not go any further. Assuming the entire organization's support for the Scanlon Roadmap, a Design Team is created.

The Design Team is made up of both elected and appointed members. The Design Team takes the theory of Scanlon and creates a written Plan elaborating how Scanlon will be practiced in the organization. Often, the Design Team is divided into four subcommittees based on the Principles of Identity, Participation, Equity and Competence. While the plan is being drafted, the minutes are shared throughout the Organization so that everyone is aware of the progress of the Design Team. When the Design Team feels it has done its best work they vote on taking the plan to the Organization. Unless the Design Team is unanimous in their decision to proceed, they continue working on the plan. The plan is then taken to the Board of Directors for their final approval

Production Committee: Historically it was found that employee ideas were often not heard. This resulted in a two tiered system of committees. The first one called "Production Committees" were made up of employees and managers closest to the work. A second committee often called the "Screening or Scanlon Committees" was made up of representatives from throughout the Company or Organization. This committee is composed of members from throughout the organization including the clerical and office positions. Their jurisdictions generally correspond to departmental and shift responsibilities. This committee is usually composed of one management representative and one or more non-elected non-supervisory employees. The committees' job is to

identify problems which interfered with increasing productivity, reduce costs and increase output.

Screening Committee: Oversight capability is contained within the screening committee. The screening committee holds representatives of senior management and an equal or greater number of elected non-supervisory representatives. In Organizations with a Union, they also may have a representative on the screening committee. This Committee has four main responsibilities. First it oversees the operation of the production committee. Secondly, all suggestions rejected by the production committee are reviewed by the screening committee. Third, it considers current business problems and internal and environmental issues and communicates them down throughout the organization. The final responsibility is the administration of the bonus plan. This often means communicating organizational performance

There are many different ways that Scanlon Systems involve employees in Organizational problem solving. The Committees approve changes in Personnel Policies and adjudicate issues of fairness and equity. They even recommended pay increases, six sigma and Lean Practices in Scanlon Organizations as part of their improvement plans.

12.4.2 Quality Circles

Quality Circles are a group of employees which perform similar duties and meet at periodic intervals, often with management, to discuss work-related issues and to offer suggestions and ideas for improvements, as in production methods or quality control. A quality circle is a group composed of regular employees who meet together to discuss workplace improvement, and make presentations to management with their ideas.

The Philosophy of QCC is based on the concepts of Participative management and Humanistic management. Humanistic management refers to management that gives importance to people and their feelings. This is because people are the most valuable asset of a department. Participative management means that worker regardless of his / her position in the organization is given the opportunity to make meaningful contribution to the department.

QCC is, therefore a mechanism whereby workers are able to participate in the problem-solving process leading to improvement of quality and productivity in their department. The ideal size of a quality circle is from eight to ten members.

Quality circles were first established in Japan in 1962, and Kaoru Ishikawa has been credited with their creation. The movement in Japan was coordinated by the Japanese Union of Scientists and Engineers (JUSE). The use of quality circles then spread beyond Japan. Quality circles have been implemented even in educational sectors in India and QCFI (Quality Circle Forum of India) is promoting such activities.

The need for public and private businesses to improve quality of services is no longer an option but a necessity. Since the early 1960's businesses across the globe have been searching for ways to improve overall operational efficiency. This trend has been more heightened with the onset of free open trade and customers demanding so much more for

their money. Some organizations have successfully implemented the use of quality circles as part of an ongoing improvement program. Others have experimented with quality circles with the best intentions and faced several obstacles, but what is true is that this type of participatory intervention brings several benefits to all concerned.

Several assumptions underlie QC. First, employees are willing to collaborate with their superiors in a team setting. Second, employees can learn to use both technical and process consultants effectively. Third, employees have considerable capability and potentially high quality insights into work life, provided they are trained in QC concepts and tools like measuring techniques, group dynamics, team leadership, and interpersonal communication. Fourth, the heterogeneity of the groups provides a variety of perspectives. Some of the consequences of these programs are improved relationships among employees, an increase in employee motivation, increased identification with the company, decrease in costs, and a movement toward participative management.

The success of the quality circles depends solely on the attitude of the Top management and plays an important role to ensure the success of implementation of quality circles in the organization. Steering committee called middle management consists of chief executive heads of different divisions or a coordinator plays a positive role in quality circles activities for the success of the efforts. The meetings are conveyed at least once in one to two months interval.

Coordinator also acts as facilitators is an individual responsible for coordinating and directing the quality circles activities within an organization and carries out such functions as would make the operations of quality circles smooth, effective and self-sustainable.

Facilitator also acts as a catalyst, innovator, promoter and teacher and is nominated by the management. She/he communicates with all levels of management and obtains their support and assistance; provides training to QCC leaders and assists in training of QCC members where required; maintains an open and supportive environment; ensures QCC members direct their activities to work-related problems; acts as a mediator in problem-solving; and as a resource person to the Circle; and evaluates the costs and benefits of the QCC program and reports to the Management.

Leader of the quality circles is chosen by the members among themselves and they may decide to have a leader by rotation since the members are the basic elements of the structure of quality circle. The leader trains members on problems-solving techniques with the assistance of the facilitator where required; is responsible for the smooth operation of QCC activities and fostering the spirit of cooperation and harmony among members; assists the Circle members in record keeping and in the preparation of management presentations; conducts meetings in an orderly and effective manner; shows interest and support to the Circle; encourages other workers to become members; assists members in problem-solving; and enforces team discipline.

Members of the quality circles are the small group of people from the same work area or doing similar type of work whereas non-members are those who are not members of the

quality circle but may be involved in the circle recommendation. They attend meetings regularly; direct their efforts towards solving work-related problems; identify problems, contribute ideas, undertake research and investigation (where necessary) and assist the QCC in problem-solving; participate in management presentations.

12.4.3 Quality of Working Life Councils

The term “Quality of Work Life” has appeared in Research Journals and press in USA only in 1970’s. The term quality of work life was introduced by Louis Davis. Quality of Work Life (QWL) is a philosophy, a set of principles, which holds that people are the most important resource in the organization as they are trustworthy, responsible and capable of making valuable contribution and they should be treated with dignity and respect. The elements that are relevant to an individual’s quality of work life include the task, the physical work environment, social environment within the organization, administrative system and relationship between life on and off the job. QWL consists of opportunities for active involvement in group working arrangements or problem solving that are of mutual benefit to employees or employers, based on labor management cooperation. People also conceive of QWL as a set of methods, such as autonomous work groups, job enrichment, and high involvement aimed at boosting the satisfaction and productivity of workers. It requires employee commitment to the organization and an environment in which this commitment can flourish. Thus, QWL is a comprehensive construct that includes an individual’s job related wellbeing and the extent to which work experiences are rewarding, fulfilling and devoid of stress and other negative personal consequences.

In general terms, QWL, refers to the favorableness or unfavorableness of a job environment for people. It refers to the quality of relationship between employees and the total working environment. According to Harrison, QWL is the degree to which work in an organization contributes to material and psychological wellbeing of its members. It is “a process of joint decision making, collaboration and building mutual respect between management and employees”. It is concerned with increasing labor management cooperatives to solve the problems of improving organizational performance and employee satisfaction. According to the American Society of Training and Development, it is “a process of work organization which enables its members at all levels to actively participate in shaping the organization’s environment, methods and outcomes. This value based process is aimed towards meeting the twin goals of enhanced effectiveness of organization and improved quality of life at work for employees.”

Broadly the definition of quality of work life involves four major parts: safe work environment, occupational health care, suitable working time and appropriate salary. The safe work environment provides the basis for the person to enjoy working.

The concept of QWL is based on the assumption that a job is more than just a job. It is the center of a person’s life. In recent years there has been increasing concern for QWL due to several factors:

1. Increase in education level and consequently job aspirations of employees;
2. Association of workers;
3. Significance of human resource management;
4. Widespread industrial unrest;
5. Growing of knowledge in human behavior, etc.

12.4.3.1 Objectives of QWL

The main objectives of the QWL programmes are to:

1. improve employee satisfaction;
2. improve physical and psychological health of employees which creates positive feelings;
3. enhance productivity of employees;
4. reinforce workplace learning;
5. improved management of the ongoing change and transition; and
6. build the image of the company as best in recruitment, retention, and in general motivation of employees

12.4.3.2 Characteristics of QWL Improvement Programmes

The results reported from a number of quality of work life improvement programmes, have some common characteristics. These are:

1. Persistent commitment from management to the open non-defensive modus operandi of sincerely inviting collaborative inputs from the workforce regarding problem identification and suggestions for improving any aspect of the organization or the policies, practices and structure of work with incentives provided for such participation.
2. Invited involvement of members of tasks groups in recommending resolution of identified problem.
3. Training of supervisors to prepare them to function effectively in a less authoritative style.
4. Implementation of practicable suggestion and explanations for rejected ideas.
5. Feedback and recognition for good results achieved.
6. Selection of personnel who can be motivated under appropriate conditions to strive for excellence in task performance.
7. Evaluation and analysis of results, including failures, leading to renewed effort towards continual improvement in modus operandi.

12.3.3.3 Eight Practices of QWL

Quality of working life though came into circulation in 1970s became popular only in 90s and organizations realized its potential to enhance the productivity in the new century. This works as a comprehensive model to those employers who want to ensure quality in working life of their employees. An ideal quality of work life programme will include practices in eight major areas as discussed below:

1. Adequate and fair compensation

This is fundamental to QWL. Human beings work for livelihood. Therefore success of rest of the initiatives depends upon fulfillment of this.

2. Safe and healthy working conditions

Unsafe and hazardous working conditions cause problems to both employers and employees. There may be little advantage to the employer in short term but in medium and long terms it adversely affects the productivity.

3. Opportunity of use and develop human capacities

The works have become routine, meaningless and too specialized, depriving the employees of fulfillment satisfaction. Therefore, efforts should be made to increase the autonomy, perspective and exposure to multiple skills.

4. Opportunity for continued growth and security

This is related to career aspects of employees. Meaningful career paths must be laid down and career mapping of employees is to be followed. The provisions of advancement opportunities play a central role in QWL.

5. Social integration in the work organization

Relationships between and among the employees is an indicator of healthy work organization. Therefore, opportunities must be provided for formal and informal interactions. All kind of classes' religions, races, crafts, and designations must be treated equally on a social platform by creating egalitarian environment.

6. Constitutionalism in the work organization

This is related to organizational norms that affect the freedom of an individual employee. Efforts must be made to see right norms are formed in the organization. It means norms that accommodate the privacy of an individual employee, freedom of speech, equity and freedom to dissent on some aspects.

7. Work and the total life space

Employees should not be allowed to continuously exert themselves. The continuous hard work causes psychological and physical strains. Therefore, there has to be a balance between personal and professional life. Organization must create proper work offs to enrich the life of employees.

8. Social relevance of work life

Employees must be given the perspective of how his/her work in the organization helps the society. This is essential to build relevance of the employee's existence to the society he/she lives in.

12.3.3.4 Techniques to Improve QWL

Some of the techniques used to improve QWL of an average employee in India are given below:

1. Job Redesign

Narrow jobs need to be combined into large units of accomplishment. Jobs should be redesigned to enrich them; Job enrichment helps to satisfy higher order needs by providing interesting, stimulating and challenging work.

2. Career Development

Opportunity for career advancement and growth personality improves commitment. Career planning, counseling second careers, etc, help to meet expectations of achievement-oriented employees

3. Autonomous

Work Groups: In an autonomous work groups, employees are given the freedom of decision making. In such a group the workers themselves plan, coordinate and control their activities. The group as a whole is accountable for success or failure. It is also called a self-managed work team.

4. Flexible Work Schedules

Flexible working hours (flextime), staggered hours, reduced work week, job sharing, part-time employment and other types of alternative work schedules provide freedom to employee in scheduling their work.

5. Participative Management

Employees want to participate in deciding matters which affect their lives. Therefore, quality circles, management by objectives, suggestion system and other forms of employees' participation in management help to improve QWL.

6. Job Security

Adequate security of job is a high priority of employees and should be provided.

7. Administrative Justice

The principles of justice, fair and quality should be applied in disciplinary procedure, grievance procedures, promotions, transfers, work assignment, leave, etc.

8. QWL and Management's role

Management has to play a very significant role in improving quality of life of employees. Management must strive to make the quality of employees work life as satisfying as possible. At the moment employees are challenged as never before to balance work and personal responsibilities.

Anderson Consulting Education

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

unresolved by the formal structures. They defined it as "a supplemental organization coexisting with the usual, formal organization." As an OD intervention it involves the creation of a parallel and coexisting organization which supplements the formal structures. This collateral structure enables an organization to manage change and innovation without disrupting the formal structures and mechanism needed to manage more repetitive tasks. One of the greatest advantages of adopting a parallel learning structure is that it brings underutilized but talented employees to the forefront. Parallel organizations have been designed to deal with problem areas like cost saving, productivity and quality, quality of working life, organization climate, strategic decisions and similar other productivity-related issues. The new structures facilitate continuous processes of gathering data, diagnosing problems, generating alternatives, making recommendations, monitoring and implementing change in specific problem areas. Some of the examples of parallel organization include the Scanlon Plan, Quality Circles, and Quality of Working Life Councils.

12.5 Self Assessment Questions

1. Explain the concept of Parallel Learning Structure.
2. **Parallel Learning Structures** (Communities of Practice) promote innovation and change in large bureaucratic organizations. Justify.
3. Mention the steps to be taken for designing a collateral organization.
4. Give arguments in favor of Parallel Learning Structures, and substantiate with suitable examples.
5. Describe the participation and committees' roles in implementation of Scanlon Plan.
6. Draw and discuss the structure of Quality Circles.
7. What are the characteristics of Quality of Work Life Programs?
8. Mention the techniques to improve QWL.

12.6 Reference Books

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Unit -13 : Change Agent

Unit Structure

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13.0 Objectives

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

- What is change and why it is necessary?
- To describe the typical tasks and skills of change agents.
- Different kinds of change agents.
- To identify Competencies required in a change agent.
- To know what managers must occupy so as to prove successful change agent.
- To distinguish between internal and external change agents.

13.1 Introduction

Change always takes place in this world as change is a way of life not only in organization but in every aspect of our life. It can be due to seasons, or social environment or as biological process. Change is essential in the life of an organization and shall definitely occur. It creates new opportunities and challenges. Those organizations which can cope with the change can flourish while which do not adapt to change will not survive in present conditions. The organizational change refers the alteration in its work environment *i.e.* technology, structural arrangement, job design and employees. Hence major organizations are continuously interacting with the environment and making changes in their strategies and policies.

13.2 What is Change?

Increasing competition in domestic and world markets requires business organizations to change their structures and work environment. The world is constantly changing and so are organizations. Business organizations are open systems. They interact with the environment and adapt to environmental changes. It is necessary for their survival and growth. Not only should enterprises adapt to the changes, they must also anticipate the

changes and incorporate them in their plans and budgets. Change is essential for survival of business enterprises. Changes are necessary if organizations want to

- (i) adapt to environmental conditions,
- (ii) compete in the domestic and International markets,
- (iii) improve their performance, and
- (iv) enter into mergers and acquisitions.

“Organizational change is any substantive modification to some part of the organization”. Change may be required for the organization as a whole or for any part of the organization; work force, basis of departmentation, span of control, machinery, technology etc.

Change is characterized by the following features:

1. **Movement from one state of balance to another:** Change involves moving from the existing state of balance to a new level of equilibrium.
2. **In whole or parts:** It may involve change in some parts of the organization (technology, structure or people) or the organization as a whole.
3. **Pervasive activity:** The process of change is not restricted to one organization or one country. It is worldwide phenomenon. The whole world, all countries, every organization along with its members and all individuals change their pattern of working. However, the nature and magnitude of change is different for different organizations.
4. **Responsive to environmental factors:** External and internal environmental factors enforce change in the organizational set up.
5. **Continuous process:** Change is not a one-time process. Organizations continue to change their policies to survive and grow in the competitive markets.
6. **Essential activity:** Change is not a force that organizations may or may not respond to. If organizations want to survive, change has to be accepted by them. They can, however, plan the change or react to change. The former approach to change is better for organizational development and growth.
7. **Change agents:** Change is a deliberate attempt initiated by change agents. Change agents can be internal or external to the organization. Internal change agents can be top executives of the organization. External agents are outside experts or advisors appointed by executives to initiate the change process.

Every organizational change, whether large or small, requires one or more change agents. A change agent is anyone who has the skill and power to stimulate, facilitate, and coordinate the change effort. Change agents may be either external or internal. The success of any change effort depends heavily on the quality and workability of the relationship between the change agent and the key decision makers within the organization. In this article, I discuss change agent types, change agent roles, and characteristics of successful change agent.

The individual or group that undertakes the task of initiating and managing change in an organization is known as a change agent. Change agents can be internal, such as managers or employers who are appointed to oversee the change process. In many innovative-driven companies, managers and employees alike are being trained to develop the needed skills to oversee change (Tschirky, 2011). Change agents also can be external, such as consultants from outside the firm.

For major organization wide changes, companies frequently will hire external change agents. Because these consultants are from the outside, they are not bound by the firm's culture, politics, or traditions. Therefore, they are able to bring a different perspective to the situation and challenge the status quo. This can be a disadvantage, however, because external change agents lack an understanding of the company's history, operating procedures, and personnel. To offset their limited familiarity with the organization, external change agents usually are paired with an internal coordinator from the human resources department.

13.3 Role of Change Agent

In many cases, changes are the outcomes of evolutionary process which in many aspects can be equated with the concept of organizational growth. In such cases change agents do not have much role to play, particularly because in these instances changes automatically occur in an organization with the passage of time and without demanding much from the system itself. People hardly take note of such routinized changes. The role of change agent gets surfaced when decision about change to be introduced in the organization is taken. It is difficult to assign any single role to them. Therefore, a variety of roles can be identified for them. Some of these are mentioned as under.

Consultant: The role of change agent as consultant is more widely identified specially in the Western hemisphere. Perhaps one of the reasons for this may be the recognition of organizational development as independent practicing profession. Change agents as consultants have to extend their consultation to organizations seeking remedies of certain complex administrative problems. The generally found forms amongst the consultants are process-Consultant and Third-Party Consultant who follow particular processes of consultation. In order to be a good consultant, a change agent is expected to possess few qualities like a good understanding of organizational dynamics, analytical approach to organizational problems and sound background of behavioral sciences.

Initiator: Possibilities of taking initiative by the change agents themselves are many. Instead of organization making a move for change, the effort may get initiated by the change agents. Among such agents may be social change agents, executives or any other member of the organization. Scientification of procedures is one of those conditions in which their role as initiator becomes palatable. In another situation, a top executive with whom lies the maximum of administrative authority may initiate a desired change in the organization. For this, he must possess an imaginative mind and a developmental perspective.

Facilitator:

The role of a facilitator is somewhat indirect, acquired by a change agent. In order to help the process of successful implementation of change, a change agent must be a good facilitator. The process of facilitation demands creation of such conditions in the organization that may reduce the impact of the resistive forces. For this purpose, a change agent should extend his personal contacts with different members of the organization. He may also either conduct a workshop or organize a seminar or a conference. A facilitator may also conduct T-group sessions. These techniques would make feasible for most of the members to understand what the change process is about. These methods also help in establishing the legitimacy of change in the organization. Needless to add, a facilitator is expected to have insight into the operational as well as the human dynamics of organizations.

Conciliator

This form of role projection is different from the categories discussed earlier. A conciliator basically helps an organization in resolving conflicts that may arise due to one or the other reason. In performing his role, various methods of resolving conflicts can be applied. One of them is to organize meeting in which conflicting issues may be identified and subjected to rigorous discussions. In this way misunderstandings or misperceptions are sought to be mitigated. This method helps in maintaining cordial inter-personal relations which, in turn, are likely to lead to an improved level of organizational performance, which may be the goal of organizational change.

Catalyst

By acquiring this role, the change agent helps in activating the entire process of change in the organization. As a catalyst, he is not directly involved in introducing a change. In fact, once the change has been introduced, the agent may speed up the process of change so that the set level of organizational performance can be achieved in a shorter period of time.

To Lead Change

Leading change, especially if the change involves changes to the way people work and behave (which most change initiatives do), is most difficult challenge. I usually say it is the “extreme sport” of management. Research and consultancy reports have estimated that many change initiatives do not deliver as expected. The explanation is simply that one is, in most cases, dealing with people. In any organization there is what you may call an “organizational iceberg”. The new strategy, organizational chart, plan, system or planned change initiative is only the tip; underneath there is a massive “iceberg” of values, norms, beliefs, “the way we do things here”, needs and social structures that come into play when a change agent launches a change project.

People’s social and psychological needs in organizations, for example for security, autonomy, order, knowledge, or acceptance, are threatened when changing. In my experience, leading change therefore becomes easier when a change agent pays attention to people’s social structures. This may include people’s needs for role clarity, clear

responsibilities, rules, rituals, and to feel included. These needs obviously depend on what type of change one plans for but, on a general level; a change agent may devise a more successful change strategy by paying attention to structural, tactical, process based and personal parameters strongly influencing the change. These are further discussed in the a.m. article.

Designer

- Designing a change process that will achieve specific change goals, is a creative process. This involves:
- Observing all the change tools and interventions that are available.
- Selecting those specific change tools and discoveries that will help the organization to achieve its change objectives.
- Creating additional activities and interventions to fill any gaps.
- Reviewing that each intervention supports every other intervention, and that all interventions support the company's values, strategies and plans.
- Arranging and integrating these interventions into one simple, seamless step by step process.
- Deciding on the roles that need to be played to support the process.

Project Manager

“Different roles are required for a change process to work. Often a change agent will play the role of a project manager and co-ordinate the activities of the different role players. Typical roles in a change process include” [Jakobson, R. (1990)]:

- A change steering committee.
- The CEO of the company.
- The executive team.
- Regional coordinators (in large scale changes).
- External consultants.
- Internal consultants.
- Middle managers
- Departmental or divisional change agents.
- Communications coordinators.
- Change web designers.
- Marketing professionals.
- Individuals within the company.

Educator

Those involved in managing the change, and those who will be affected by the change, often are surprised by their feelings when confronted by change, Resistance, frustration and confusion of common emotions associated by change [David, F.R. (1994)].

- To teach the people about what types of changes are expected in the organization is one of the main duties of the change agent. Those tasks are as follows:
- They need to know that how can those types of emotions could be overcome also they have know the others feelings about this changes.
- The mental situation people will face when they need to walk under the process of changes.
- A change should know the way of overcoming the resistance and they should also help others to do that.
- A change agent should be creative to do his/her duty.
- They have to make a change process funny and there should be excitement within the changes. A change agent should help others to grow those feelings with them. So that they should not be scared about the change.

A change must face the resistance and a change agent needs to overcome those resistances. A change agent should have necessary tactics to make a change process successful.

The Change Agent as a Marketer:

Sometimes they find it out that this change is only beneficial to the company but not for own self to develop his/her career. They think that this type of change is the additional work for them.

- The change agent who have enough skill to create the belief among the employee that the change is necessary for the organization and also for themselves [David, F.R. (1994)].
- The employee of the organization will get the feelings that change is worthwhile and enjoyable for them.
- They will take the change as the chance to develop their skills and also the opportunities to learn some new skills.
- This is the option to the employee to grow their visibility in the organization. They will find the change as the experience of adventure where everyone will find out their personal skills.
- To do this a change agent has to apply some marketing technique within the organization. Those are as follows: [Gardner, J.W. (1991)]:
 - The change agent should make the proper publicity among the employees.
 - There should be an environment of contest within the organization.
 - A change agent should get the help of various media.
 - There should be some prizes based on the theme of change.
 - There should be some reward and honor for those who participate in the process of change.
- The successful participators will treated as a role character in the organization.

13.4 Types of Change Agents

There can be different bases of analyzing various types of change agents. Different categories in this realm may be constituted, depending upon the central point of emphasis. For instance, James E. Crowfoot and Mark A. Chesler have formulated three categories of change agents on the basis of overall perspectives within which change agents and their functions are analyzed. Another attempt, in this direction which is worth mentioning, is of Tichy who has also identified three distinct categories of change agents. Still another categorization may be possible on the basis of the roles they have been assigned in the organization. A brief review of these classifications may be relevant here.

Crowfoot and Chesler have basically emphasized upon the perspectives within which change agents have to be understood. Three perspectives as identified by them are professional technical perspective; political perspective; and counter cultural perspective. Taking these perspectives as the base, change agents have been categorized into three types respectively. These are Professional-Technical Change Agents (PT Change Agents); Political Change Agents (P Change Agents); and Counter-Cultural Change Agents (CC Change Agents).

The organization, if seen and analyzed from Professional-Technical perspective, is constituted of many sub-systems which are interrelated as well as has differentiated structures and processes. Political perspective, on the other hand, views organization as composed of many different groups, each characterized by the uniquely shared interests of its members. And the Counter-Cultural perspective is defined more in terms of individuals and their actions, interaction and reactions. Let us consider them one by one.

Professional Technical Change Agents

According to Professional-Technical perspective, change agents should be trained to acquire necessary expertise to initiate desired change in the organization. These agents receive training in the field of applied social sciences especially in psychology social psychology and sociology. Necessary skills to be learnt by them include system diagnosis, particularly of small groups in addition that of organizational processes; force-field analysis; communicational techniques; management of human interaction in group process, facilitating personal role definition and their ability to enter as the outsider consultant into organization. Most of their training deals with the application of this knowledge in solving problems that may arise at individual or group or organization level. They acquire full training either in the universities or in the training institutes specially meant for this purpose. Once these agents are trained, they are expected to strictly follow values and procedures to develop and maintain group efficiency.

The role which the change agent acquires here is that of assistant, as he provides assistance necessary for the organization seeking change in order to improve organizational effectiveness and task performance. PT Change agents also help the organization understanding the targets of change and at the same time making them aware of the new techniques to achieve the objectives. Specific strategies may include,

among other things, analysis of system's communication and problem-solving patterns and assisting members in using feedback and new researches done in their organization.

Political Change Agents

Unlike the Professional Technical Change agents, these Change agents do not constitute any interest or reference group, but they are seen as people operating in the open field of political activity. However, sometimes political agents may also carve their place within the organization. Since P Change agents are generally elected, their role may involve making direct appeal to the general public to support their organization in the process of change. These agents may provide political advice, if necessary.

Political Change agents generally focus their attention on motivating people to take collective actions for actualizing interests and on developing skills in analyzing organizational system in terms of the power and resources.

Counter Cultural Change Agents

Change agents in Counter-Cultural perspective are committed to living new cultural patterns themselves and are usually identified by membership or else in relationship to communes, cooperatives or associations with "counter-cultural" values and goals. They are identified as initiators of change in the organization seeking new life patterns that may facilitate mutual growth among all participants and for governing collective effort directed to the development of organization.

Thus, Counter-Cultural perspective underlines the point that change must begin with "self" resulting into the formation of new personal values. The role of CC agent includes dealing with the self, developing behavior skills necessary to achieve new life patterns and promoting skills in initiating and participating in organizations which support new life patterns. These change agents generally have their formal training in the universities or in training institutes.

Tichy's Classification

Tichy's research on change agents suggests three types of change agents based on the change strategy usually employed by an organization to facilitate change. These strategies are: PCT (People-Centered Technology); OD (Organization Development), AFT (Analysis from Top).

- a. **PCT:** People centered technology type of change agents often work to achieve change in individuals. These agents are usually concerned with improving motivation, job satisfaction and productivity. The focus is on the individual and organizational self-development through job enrichment, role clarification and management by objectives. The basic assumption, on which the entire functioning of this change agent is based, is that if individuals change their behavior, the organization will also change.
- b. **OD:** Organization development change agents work to improve the organization's problem-solving capabilities by helping the members learn to help themselves. This process involves assisting the organization members to work out their inter-personal

problems, conflicts of interest and career plans. The approaches that they generally make use of to achieve their objectives include team building, survey feedback, transactional analysis and sensitivity training. One of the basic assumptions of this strategy is that efficiency will improve by increasing participation in decision-making and by changing organizational climate.

- c. **AFT:** This category of change agents is in contrast to the other two. AFT agent relies primarily on structural and technological changes. Techniques used by these agents include decision-making structure of the organization, technological changing the innovations, job training in areas such as computerized information system and new reward systems.

Categorization of Change Agents on the Basis of Roles

This type of category includes change agents performing various roles in implementing change in the organization. They may be outsiders or insiders, depending upon the necessities of a situation. Insiders may include executives who take and implement particular decisions about organizational change in the organization. Union leaders may also be influencing change process in the organization.

Outsiders include persons other than those who belong to that organization. For instance, in the United States of America and other Western countries where technological advancement and knowledge explosion are at a relatively higher pace, the services of professional consultants are used for facilitating change. For this purpose these consultants organize the consultancy firms which provide consultation to the change-seeking organization.

Other change agents in this board category could be Initiators, Facilitators and Conciliators, a reference to whom has already been made in the preceding pages.

No doubt that change agents have been classified differently on different bases of analysis. Still they have certain common features which unite them professionally. It would be appropriate to find out these common characteristics that they all mutually share.

Irrespective of their types and categories, the change agents have certain common characteristics. These may be outlined as follows:

1. **Their Assumptions:** All change agents are basically concerned with bringing about organizational effectiveness by seeking necessary changes in the organization. Though they may prescribe different remedies but their diagnosis of organizational health centers round interpersonal relations. They may also make use of their knowledge of the date pertaining to human interaction processes. One must be clear that generally they do not intend to change personnel per se, but changes are intended to be introduced in the values, attitudes and behavioral patterns of the members of the organization.
2. **Their Interventions:** Change agents, in order to bring about change in an organization, make use of specific interventional integrative organizational change. In late 1960's, Washington strategy, depending upon the exigencies of the situation.

The use of these strategies depends upon different structural configurations in the organization, the nature of change that is to be achieved, and the specific needs at a particular point of time.

3. ***Their Normative Goals:*** Though all change agents have in their minds a set of unique goals based on their own theoretical knowledge and competence, yet broadly speaking there are certain general aims regarding which most change agents would have a sort of consensus. Argyris provides a graphical model which can be used as illustration in this context.

13.5 Skills of Change Agents

The different skills that a change agent ought to possess are classified under three broad categories: cognitive skills, action skills, and communication skills. These are not watertight compartment categories; skills under a given category may overlap with the others. Hence the classification attempted below is more of an approximation but at the same time helps in knowing the diverse skills that a change agent should possess and the diverse roles that he plays. The basis for classification is the list of change agent skills suggested in the OD literature of the LTN Institute of Applied Natural Science, U.S.A.

The steps to evaluate the change process in the organization, if any, attempts cognitive skills Self-understanding: The change agent should be able to analyze and comprehend his own motivation in perceiving a need for change and the desire to bring about a change. He should be able to determine his own strategic role in the light of the contest and his abilities.

Conceptualization

- The change agent should be able to determine the possible Units of change.
- Any change tends to have consequences to other sub-systems, and related positions and role set members.
- He should clearly define objectives with reference to the intended change.
- He must conduct an anticipatory practice in carrying out a stepwise plan.
- He must be capable of eliciting and eliminating alternatives and provide for replanning and assessment at later stages.
- He must be able to anticipate the mistake, resistance to change and devise ways and means of overcoming both.
- He must be able to anticipate the degree of willingness among clients to the intended changes.

Evaluation

The change agent should possess skills of assessment or evaluation. He should be able to assess the client group in terms of its nature, expectations, and internal dynamics as well

as the utility of the evaluative measures. Specifically the required skills of evaluations are: determining the size, character, structural make up of the client group.

- determining the degree or extent of felt need for change.
- skill in using diagnostic instruments appropriate to the problem, such as: surveys, rating scales, observation etc.
- evaluation of the problem, causes etc., on an objective basis and not in terms of one's own likes and dislikes.
- diagnosis of causes of failure and perhaps success also.
- identify the methods of change the clients believe as appropriate.

Action Skills

The change agent plays the roles of a consultant, counselor, facilitator, trainer etc.

As a Counselor, he should possess skills, such as:

- making catharsis possible if it is be a starting point for a change process (catharsis refers to giving an opportunity to the client to give vent to his feelings, in other words 'Unburden his heart')
- helping the clients examine their attitudes, expectations and motivations.
- dealing with the client's ideology, myths, values etc., wisely and effectively. Resistance will develop to change efforts. The change agent should orient the change effort in such a way that it fits with client's frame of reference.
- clarifying the nature of relationship and inter-dependence between the client and the change agent.

The change agent, as a facilitator:

- raises the level of aspiration of the clients. These aspirations however, should be realistic. The change effort should be perceived to have a reinforcing value to the client's increased aspirations.
- develops an awareness of the potentialities of the change, thereby developing positive expectations towards change.
- creates willingness and a sense of responsibility to engage in the change, thereby enlist their active participation.
- encourage them to use a step-wise plan and also have patience in its execution.
- develops an awareness of possible sources of help in the change activity.

The Change agent, as a consultant is required to:

- make a step-wise plan. The change is in terms of a number of stages or steps, one leading to another than something that is sudden or drastic.
- make use of appropriate techniques or methods to arrive at group consensus.

- examine decisions in terms of their 'pros and cons'.
- evaluate the progress made at each of the stages and determine what has been achieved and what yet to be achieved etc.
- build and maintain morale and team spirit of the clients during the change efforts. The changing agent, as a communicator is concerned with the spread of change information and the ultimate adoption of the change by the 'client's' system. He should have the necessary persuasive skills to enable the client system realize the need for change and the importance of the change to organizational effectiveness. The opinion leaders at the various organizational levels. His ability to communicate effectively can be gauged in terms of the extent to which he is able to enlist the 'client's' support for the rapidly change and create in them the responsibility to participate and implementation the change effort.

To be a successful communicator the change agent should:

- should clear as to what are the goals and objectives of each of his communication attempts.
- develop his communication plan so that it is consonant with the client's needs, attitudes and belief system.
- should be persuasive to minimize rejection without giving the feeling of forcing or driving one's ideas on the clients.
- obtain feedback to determine the effectiveness of communication from time to time.
- make strategic use of informal communication networks so that the formal change efforts are supported and not resisted.

To handle the situation under the stress a change agent should be expert enough. A change agent must be able to take care of such a condition successfully.

A change agent should have good practical skills and they should be able to understand the causes of such type of situation. A change agent should know the definite goal of the organization and they will work towards those goals and help everyone to reach that goal effectively. They should be able to take all the pressures.

They also need to be able to relate to the resistance of others, study it and make necessary changes if found valid. Communication skills are highly relevant in overcoming resistance.

They should have also the following qualities:

- Common sense. And the courage to use it.
- Credibility and trust –the ability to work at all levels in the organization.
- Knowledge of change management.
- The ability to work with teams of people both inside and outside the organization. This includes the ability to work with people across all departments.

- The ability to do much unstructured work.
- Creativity, The ability to custom design processes to meet the goals of the organization.
- Self confidence balanced by humility.
- Facilitation skills
- Design skills.
- Coaching skills.
- A love of innovation and new ways of doing things.
- A sense of humor and a sense of fun.
- A spirit of caring.
- The ability to inspire people. To bring out the magic within every individual and every team.

13.6 Competencies of Change Agents

Despite the multi-faceted and ever changing demands on HR professionals as change agents, there are definable competencies that can be understood and learned.

Dave Ulrich has completed extensive research in this area as well. His research, validated by HR professionals and their line manager “clients”, showed that successful change agents had the ability to:

- **Diagnose problems** –understanding both the business drivers and the organization well enough to identify performance issues and analyze their impact on short and long term business results.
- **Build relationships with clients**- Forming partnerships with mutual responsibility for the outcomes of the change effort. Because the risk is higher than with most other HR roles the level of trust required is much higher. Management consultant Ric Reichard uses a simple formula to describe the issues which are usually at play
- **Ensure that the Vision is Articulated**- interpreting the hopes and motivations of the workforce through the Vision statement.
- **Set a Leader Agenda** – Defining the ongoing role for leaders, such as communications, role modeling, reinforcement of desired behaviors etc. This requires the HR executive to understand intimately the dynamics, history and competencies of the leadership team and to have the tenacity to insist on the agenda’s accomplishment.
- **Solve Problems** – Recommending solutions, a common expectation of HR professionals is not the same as solving problems. When it comes to the change agent role, the problems encountered are often loaded with emotional and political dynamics. The change agent must possess the insight to recognize the problem, the

sensitivity to see its importance to those involved, the courage to take honest and often difficult measures to resolve it and the credibility to be heard.

- **Implement Plans to Achieve Change Goals-** Successful organizational change on any significant scale can be attributed to the right strategy and appropriate change in organization culture. Culture change, in turn, relies heavily on aligned and supportive people policies, systems and processes. In short, the implementation plan is an HR plan for both the HR function and for management.

Complementing the competencies identified above, we would add the following as essential for effectiveness as a change agent:

- superb communications ability – in all directions
- knowledge of the business; products/services and core work processes
- keeping a business perspective –both macro (mission/vision) and micro (what line managers cope with)
- planning and project management skills
- ability to tolerate ambiguity
- managing resistance
- risk taking
- managing conflict

It is apparent that these are a blend of personal attributes and developed skill sets. A change agent working at the strategic level cannot be effective without them.

Having a clearly articulated competency model for the change agent role is one thing; acquiring the knowledge and skills to function effectively in this role is another.

Effectiveness in any role is a combination of competence and confidence following are four elements that are essential in developing both:

Education and Training

Formal education and training that is comprehensive enough to really equip an HR professional for the change agent role is quite limited in this country. However, several Universities, such as University of Toronto and Queen's University are now offering change management programs within their Executive Development divisions. These range from 3 days to 15 days of professional development sometimes with a practicum component.

Practice Opportunities

Five years ago we would have encouraged HR professionals to find some “neutral” territory for practicing their new skills. Today this is clearly impractical as organizations demand that the skills be put to use immediately. The change agent is not exempt from this reality but the “practicing” is often more visible and the risk higher than in other aspects of the HR role. This is where the next two elements come into play.

Feedback & Reflection

“Good judgment comes from experience, experience comes from bad judgment” – the simple (however painful) truth in that expression is familiar to everyone. The most important thing you can experience as a change agent is not success. Nor is it failure. It is honest feedback about your performance and impact and the time to reflect on and learn from it.

Support System

For HR executives functioning as change agents, there is often no one inside the organization to talk to. The issues are often too strategic or too sensitive to discuss openly. A support system should include people who know the nature of your work and the satisfactions, stresses and risks associated with it. One of the most important people in your support system will be the colleague whom you can count on to challenge you, help you see your shortcomings and follow-up on what specifically you are doing about them.

In order to be a successful sustainability change agent, an individual must have the following:

1. Knowledge of the environmental, economic and social issues related to sustainability (understanding);
2. A value system and self-concept to support and under gird the actions of a change agent (motivation); and
3. Change agent abilities (skills)

13.7 Internal and External Change Agent

Change Agents can be internal or external. Internal change agents are people from the ranks of the organization who have special expertise in some aspect of OD related to the needs of the organization--perhaps they recognize your work as a graduate student and that you have had some coursework in OD. The external ones usually are referred to as “consultants” although they usually assume a similar role. Both may be involved in a variety of activities.

- provide specialized perspectives, skills, and knowledge that the organization does not have available or is limited in use as a formal role.
- help the organization with the problem solving procedures: identify, define and clarify the problem; generate alternatives; anticipate consequences; and plan evaluation.
- provide training and skill building to people.
- assist groups to build “team learning” skills in order to facilitate team building and development.
- develop and conduct surveys of other assessments to gather data on important organizational processes.
- impart skills to the organization so that it can carry on with the task after the consultants has left.

- they generally do not do: implement plans, take responsibility for decision making (which the organization can and should do for itself), or remain permanently with the organization.

Lacey (1995) identifies some of these different factors:

Consulting process	Internal Change Agent	External Change Agent
Entry	Ready access to clients Ready relationships knows company jargon Understands root causes Time efficient Congenial phase Obligated to work with everyone Steady pay	Source [find] clients Build relationships Learn company jargon “presenting problem” challenge Time consuming Stressful phase Select client/project according to own criteria Unpredictable outcome
Contracting	Informal agreements Must complete Projects assigned No out of pocket expenses Information can be open or confidential Risk of client retaliation and loss of job at stake Acts as third party (on behalf of client), or pair of hands	Formal documents Can terminate project at will Guard against out of pocket expenses Information confidential Loss of contract at stake maintain third party role
Diagnosing	Has relationship with many organization members Prestige determined by job rank and client stature Sustain reputation as trustworthy over time Data openly shared can reduce political intrigue	Meet most organization members for the first time Prestige from being external Build trust quickly Confidential data can increase political sensitivities
Intervening	Insist on valid information, and internal commitment; free and informed choice- people can choose to participate or not- is a luxury Run interference for client across organizational lines to align support	Insist on valid information, free and informed choice, and internal commitment Confine activities within boundaries of client organization
Evaluating	Rely on repeat business, pay rise, and promotion as key measures of success Can see change become institutionalized Little recognition for job well done	Rely on repeat business and customer referral as key measures of project success Seldom see long-term results

Concerns Unique to Internal Change Agents: The decision to assume the role of a change agent within an organization is an exciting challenge. The prominent concerns are as follows:

- **Confidentiality:** In the role of internal change agents, you may obtain information to which you otherwise would not have access. How is personal or exclusive “inside” information treated? Who has a right to know certain information? To whom are you obligated?
- **Conflict of Interests:** When an internal change agent is caught between serving oneself and serving the organization, this is a conflict of interests. How will you avoid these, or if involved, how will you reconcile these?
- **Dual Role:** This occurs when you are in dual or multiple roles that conflict or are incongruent, and therefore potentially compromise the integrity of your role. What are the effects of having change agents power over your supervisor, best friends, worst enemies, or over the nature of your own position?
- **Over enthusiasm:** Be cautious in trying to do too much, bring about too many changes, or teach them everything you know too soon. Temper the opportunity to change the organization with patience and timing.
- **Stress:** There can be extreme stress and pressure from all stakeholders for you to promote a particular point of view--especially from old alliances. In addition, you may be doing your regular job as well as the change agent’s role, dealing with petty jealousies over your status, or struggling with difficult decisions. Find a way to successfully manage stress.
- **Practice vs. reality:** Be cautious and judicious in applying your novice knowledge from academic course work and simulations to real environments-- there are real consequences for real people. You DO have expertise, and you also have limits: know them both.
- **Support:** As much as you provide consultation and support to your internal client system, who can you rely on for the same? Who can you go to for reality check, direct and balanced feedback, speculation and sharing ideas, and receiving encouragement and care?
- **Depth:** At what level of problem solving and disclosure should you set limits (organizational, group, interpersonal, and psychological)? How is depth related to your level of skill, seriousness of the problems uncovered, and risks in handling?
- **Status:** There is much status derived from serving as an “expert.” Can you sacrifice the power and prestige in order to empower others rather than yourself?
- **Problem Focus:** There can be a temptation to focus efforts on the biggest problem or your “pet” problem, rather than to more strategically focus on the most workable problem. Pick a problem that provides the greatest ownership, has high success potential, and supports the norm to promote continued OD.

- **Job effects:** What are the effects of your change agent's time on your regular job? Do others have to pick up the burden of your delegated tasks? Are you losing important opportunities? If you still have to do your primary job, are you getting behind, producing lower quality, or don't have enough time?
- **Relationship effects:** How does your unique position affect others: jealousies, fears, power affiliation, delegated tasks, promotional opportunities, etc? How will they be different when you return to your regular role?
- **Skill level:** Do you have the range and expertise in skills required for successful change given the nature of the problem(s), personalities, and stage of organization development? Do you need to refer or request additional expertise?
- **Replaceable models:** Don't become too attached to your conceptual model for understanding the organization. It is not the only one--perhaps not even the best one. Be prepared to change when another fits better or is more understandable to the client system.
- **Worst case scenario:** After all your commitment and effort, are you prepared for failure and its consequences? How might this affect your prospects with the company, reputation, relationships, and future?

Contingencies that influence the choice of Change Agents are as follows:

- Trade-offs between the internal/external advantages/ disadvantages.
- Time and availability and duration of consultation required.
- Expense of consultation versus cost of not intervening, putting it off longer, and time of internal change agents away from work.
- Seriousness of the problem and level of expertise required.
- Receptiveness of the organization members and legitimacy of internal and external change agents.
- Philosophy and style of a change agents and compatibility with organizational culture and values (BUT-- it may be that a person with very different culture and values is exactly what is needed to help transition the organization!)

13.8 Qualities of the Future Managers

To effectively operate in the dynamic and turbulent environment, managers of the future should have the following qualities:

1. Besides specialising in their area of specialisation, they should also have knowledge of other areas of management. Their horizon of knowledge should broaden to the overall area of management.
2. Without emphasising a single goal, they should maintain balance amongst multiple organisational goals keeping in mind the impact of various environmental changes.

3. Various managerial skills (conceptual- human- technical) should be developed by managers at all levels.
4. Managers should have the ability to absorb future information, distribute it throughout the organisation, make and implement decisions based on this information.

Managers having these qualities will make a positive organisational culture and climate and seek more achievements and less frustrations, agitations, threats and fears.

13.9 Summary

Change Agents have to act as important instruments for introducing desired changes in an organization. They may assume different roles which, in turn, might become the basis of their classification. These differences among them come into sharper focus in their choice of instruments or programmes for implementing change in the organization. Change is much more than simply the “vision thing.” Implementing change is inter-related to scanning the environment, making an estimate of the situation, determining what direction the organization needs to take, knowing what the culture of the organization is, how to leverage that culture to help with change, and deciding what actions need to be taken to make the change. Effectively implementing change also is directly related to the leadership style of the organization’s top leaders. Also, as one move through the decision making process, trying to assess the need for change, make sure you ask the questions about opportunity costs. It is important to assess the costs of change as well as the cost of not changing. A change process is nothing but a condition when its need to solve it. A change may be need because there may be a problem occurred in the organization. A change agent need to aware about the situation and they should help it out to solve the problem. It is their responsibility to make everything in under control in the organization. A successful change agent is he/she who can do it. A change process can be seen as a leaving the present state and entering to a new state through some organized process.

13.10 Self Assessment Questions

1. Discuss the changes which have been attempted recently in your organization. Also explain the strategies and procedures being prepared by internal or/and external change agents in this regard.
2. Explain the role of change agent by giving suitable examples. Do you feel that a change agent should be an inducer and familiar of human behavior at work?
3. Write an essay on the skill requirements for becoming an effective change agent.
4. “A successful manager must be a change harbinger.” Comment.
5. What do you meant by “Change Agent”? What are the tasks performed by the internal and external change agents to deal with future challenges towards an organization.

13.11 Reference Books

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Unit 14 – Client and Consultant Relationship

Structure of Unit

- 14.0 Objectives
- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 Role of the Consultant
- 14.3 Competencies of OD Consultants
- 14.4 Types of Clients
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- 14.6 Internal vs. External Consultancy
- 14.7 Recommendations for Consultants
- 14.8 Summary
- 14.9 Self Assessment Questions
- 14.10 Reference Books

14.0 Objectives

After completing this unit, you would be able to:

- Understand the concept Client
- Learn about Internal and external Consultants
- Point out the importance of Client Consultant relationship
- Know about various roles of Consultant
- Learn and appreciate the significance of change in a an organization
- Understand the role of Client Consultant Relationship.

14.1 Introduction

In this module we will discuss the practitioner's role i.e. the consultants' role in the OD process and will try to unearth some aspects of client – consultant relationships. The organization has decided to introduce change but who is going to carry it out, what kind of changes, how they will be implemented are some crucial questions which need to be answered. Consultant is the person who conceives these changes and client is the one who approaches him with the problem. The relationship between the client and consultant is considered as a personal relationship it involves people and their trust on each other. Therefore in order to make this partnership fruitful the managers have to understand the nature and control of this relationship.

Described as an individual and objective advisory service provided by qualified individual's to clients, in order to assist them identify and analyze management problems and opportunities (Bascus and Wilkinson). In simple terms, a management consultant can therefore be viewed as a change agent who helps. Thus on the basis of above definition we can decipher that consultant works as an 'expert' who provides technical expertise and assistance to the client. Secondly they combine the knowledge of sociology and psychology to understand and implement the changes.

14.2 Role of the Consultant

14.2.1 Role in Management of Change

1. Entering and Contracting

The first step in planned change process is entering and contracting. It starts with recognition of some problem by the organization/department/group. Even the successful organizations have the possibility of improvement. Entering and contracting involves preliminary outlining of the problem and opportunities for development. They involve establishing a collaborative relationship between the OD practitioner and the members of the client system

They set the guidelines for carrying out the subsequent phases of OD

- Diagnosing theory
- Planning and implementing the changes
- Evaluating and institutionalizing them

Entering and contracting according to the situation in case of external consultant they are more formal and complex and in case of internal consultants they are less formal and simple.

Some of the issues for the consultant at the time of entry are as follows:

- What is the presenting problem and how do you honor this while determining what are the real organizational problems and issues? How do you deal with a predetermined diagnosis and specified “solution” which may not be what is needed?
- Who is the client and how do you deal with the multiplicity of stakeholders?
- How much readiness for change is present and how can a satisfactory degree be developed?
- Dealing with confidentiality vs. the need to surface important issues that may have been non discussible
- Trust – building and maintaining it
- Consultant expertise and role
- Ethical and value system conflicts

2. Entering into an OD relationship

The process starts when a member of the organization contacts an OD practitioner regarding a problem which needs to be addressed. The member can be a supervisor, staff or other key member and OD practitioners approached can be internal or external. Before entering into a relationship its nature, organizations systems and

issues to be addressed are determined so that it can be analyzed that the consultant will be a right fit for the organization or not.

Contracting involves both the mechanical/legal/financial arrangements, but also psychological contracting [developing a common understanding with commitment and comfort between the consultant and the primary client(s)]. Contracting should include developing shared clarity about:

- Goals for and scope of the consulting project
- Anticipated results and mutual expectations
- Operating ground rules
- Role of the consultant
- Responsibilities of both consultant and client
- Point of contact (who in the organization makes decisions about the project and is the primary interface for the consultant)
- Schedule
- Resources, fees, and arrangements for payment
- Termination procedures

3. Clarifying the organizational Issue

The client presents the problem to the consultant. The problem can be specific like high employee turnover or general like building a system which is proactive for change. But most of the time the perceived problem is the symptom not the actual ailment plaguing the organization. It is said problem defined properly is half work done thus thorough examination and data collection is required to narrow down on the exact issues.

4. Determining the OD team members

It is important that the members selected are qualified enough to diagnose, design and implement the change. If required the internal members should be properly trained. They should possess good interpersonal and intrapersonal skills.

5. Selecting an OD practitioner

The management has to decide whether they will build internal capabilities or buy the expertise from outside. Both internal and external consultants have their advantages and disadvantages. The organization has to decide which one will be the right fit in organizational culture. Or they can use both of them externals for planning and designing and internal consultant to implement and ensure that the change process is executed properly.

According to Fincham the consulting process contains no structures or roles (like the department clients and indispensable consultant or the resistant client and vulnerable consultant); instead the consultant-client relationship is best regarded as: “part of an overarching managerial structure and a contingent exchange that assumes variety of forms.”

According to Tilles consultant has three roles:

1. ***Seller of Services:*** Consultant acts as a person engaged in traditional sales-purchase transactions.
2. ***Seller of Information:*** He/She acts as a channel through which the information follows between the two parties
3. ***Business Doctors Dispensing Cures:*** Consultant will provide the cure for the ill patient

14.2.2 Pitfalls in the Role of the Consultant

As a consultant one must guard against the temptation to over act in the role of an advisor to the client organization. A consultant is not an expert advisor on issues relating to the organizational problems since he/she is a process consultant. His introduction to the organization is for a limited objective which is to help the organization develop its internal resources. He cannot therefore really discharge his role as a helper if feeling of dependency of the organization on him.

Further in case he/she acts as an expert, he is likely to submit a list of recommendations with do's and don'ts to be followed by the organization. In case of deviation he will try to depend on his points of arguments. In such a situation the consultant is reduced to selling his points, which is contrary to the collaborative and developmental approach required to effect improvements in the organizational processes.

Moreover as a process consultant since his role is to help the organization, he shares data rather than give advice on how and what to do with regard to, for example an excess number of high officials on the rolls of the company. If he starts giving advice on such issues he will be viewed with mistrust by many of the members of the organization. His advice will be inimical to the interests of the client.

The consultant must be skilled enough to distinguish between his role as an expert on process aspects and that of on the task aspects. For example for the design of a workshop or questionnaire, he remains an expert. Similarly on issues like organizational structuring giving out details of chain of command and reporting relationships etc. he can present certain forms and the implications of them, but not by perspective for adaptation of the same by the organization.

By such a presentation he only widens the options, the perspectives of the key persons, to this extent he is a facilitator educator. One must not forget that the consultant cannot be absorbed by the culture of the organization. If he does his role will be diluted and then he becomes a part of the organizational problems. The issues are then confused his helping role ceases to exist to exist and the client may be alienated.

14.2.3 Role of the clients:

According to Clark the biggest dilemma in front of the client is the selection of right consultant. As neither are they cheap and nor is it easy to rectify the wrong's done by the consultant if any action goes wrong. Moreover the manager has to focus on long term solutions instead of catering to immediate needs. But as consultancy services are intangible products it is difficult to repurchase a guaranteed level of services.

14.3 Competencies of OD Consultants

14.3.1 Skills of Consultant

The OD practitioners should comprise of the following set of skills:

- 1. Intrapersonal Skills**

The consultants have to interact with a lot of people directly and indirectly related to the problem to get as much information as much possible to diagnose the problem accurately. Since the information gathered is from varied sources and ambiguous in nature it is important for the consultant to strike a right balance in differentiating relevant from irrelevant data. Thus it is important that the consultant maintains his objectivity and rationality throughout the entire process.

- 2. Interpersonal Skills**

The consultant only introduces and guides the change but it is implemented by the clients themselves. Thus it is important for the practitioner to develop and maintain effective relationships with individuals and groups within the organization. Understanding of group dynamics, cross cultural aspects and business functions is essential for facilitation. The relationship starts with listening, building trust, providing adequate solutions and methods to implement them. Thus the entire process is a human process necessitating a deep understanding of individual behavior in organizational set-up.

- 3. General Consultation Skills**

The first step in OD is diagnosis of organizations or departments' current practices, problems plaguing those if any, areas which require improvement and means to carry out those improvements. Thus they should know how to engage organization members in diagnosis, how to ask right questions and how to collect and analyze information. They should be aware of standard diagnostic tools like survey/interviews for collecting data and techniques like force field analysis, statistics for analyzing them. Above it they should know how to design and implement the interventions.

- 4. OD Theory**

The practitioner should have basic knowledge of the OD field, types of interventions available, the new trends emerging in the field of theory the various techniques adopted in other organizations for managing change.

14.3.2 Consultant's Abilities

Nine abilities have been identified for increasing the effectiveness of consultants. Some of them can be inherent otherwise they can be learnt by the consultant. The abilities are as follows:

- 1. Ability to tolerate ambiguity**

Like individual's all organizations are different. They have different culture. The consultant has to unlearn the past experience and develop fresh understanding of the organization under consideration.

- 2. Ability to Influence**

The practitioner has to convince the people about his diagnosis and intervention to be implemented. Without which smooth execution of change is not possible. Thus ability to influence and persuade are essential for consultants' success.

- 3. Ability to face difficult issues**

The consultant has to attack on the problem head on. He/she has been employed for this purpose only. It requires exposing issues that the organizational members are reluctant to face.

- 4. Ability to support others**

The consultant has to continuously support the manager when the latter is trying to either build a functional team or trying to minimize conflict between the organizational members.

- 5. Ability to listen and empathize**

Essential during data collection, diffusing conflict situations and when trying to reduce the stress level of the client.

- 6. Perceptive**

He/she should have the ability to distinguish between members' perceptions and introduce intervention when required.

- 7. Ability to conceptualize**

He/she should have the ability to distinguish the variables and stimulus in order to establish their relationships in the organizational context.

- 8. Ability to create learning opportunities**

On the job, during meetings and within the mainstream of the overall change effort.

- 9. Ability to discover and mobilize human energy**

Every change faces resistance thus it is essential that the practitioner discovers what motivates the client to accept and implement change.

14.4 Types of Clients

According to Schien there are six types of clients:

1. **Contact clients:** The individual who is the first one to approach the consultant regarding an issue/problem/request.
2. **Immediate clients:** The people or group of people who are involved in the process of meetings and interviews related to the problem
3. **Primary clients:** Basically the management or owners who own the problem. They are also the one who pays the consultant
4. **Unwitting clients:** People who do not know how the intervention is going to affect them and fall above and below in the organizational hierarchy in relation to the primary clients.
5. **Indirect Clients:** They are also unaware about the impact of intervention on them. But they are unknown to the consultant and might have either positive or negative thoughts about the impact of consultant intervention.
6. **Ultimate Clients:** The entire organization whose welfare is the primary concern for the consultant

14.5 Client-Consultancy Relationship

The foundation on which the client-consultant relationships exist is needed to identify and meet the clients expectations exist is needed to identify and meet the clients' expectations by the consultants. Client is the recipient of advice on the basis of thorough analysis of problem and exhaustive examination of client views, process study. The interrelationship between product, process and politics is vital for minimizing the risks at the time of solution generation and implementation. The consultant acts as helper, problem solver and focused on implementation through process changes.

Consultants are moral individuals with conflicting value systems, as well as members of the consulting profession. Ultimately, the choices that the individual makes involve the values and ideals inherent to the individual (Allen & Davis, 1993; Hegarty & Simms, 1978), even though the consultant implicitly or explicitly agrees to abide by accepted standards (Shaw, 1991). The choices that a consultant makes are often value judgments between two or more values and making a therefore often involves making an ethical decision (Van Rooyen, 1996). However, the clients should inform the consultants of the level of personal responsibility involved in ethical consulting practices.

Despite of clients looking for a long term relationship with the consulting firms they often end up with the consulting firms with inexperienced consultants employed by the reputed firms. Moreover with lot of consultancies cropping the focus is now more grabbing the projects instead of passing the energy on consulting i.e. assistance in problem solving, designing integrated business systems and assistance in implementation of solutions. Since most of the client consultancy relationship is based n mutual trust strict adherence to ethics from consultants are imperative.

14.5.1 Ethical Issues in Client consultant relationship

The ethical issues which need to be addressed in client- consultant relationships are as follows:

1. *Ethical behavior by the consultant* i.e. consideration to legalities, existence and enforcement of codes of ethics
2. *Financial and contractual ethics* related to abiding by contract, non financial irregularities during delivery of consultancy
3. *Strict ethical adherence* in client-consultant relationship in terms of trust and confidentiality
4. *Allocation of experts for consultancy*, performance review of consultants and training provided to them
5. *Ensuring the results* as per the expectations of the client

14.5.2 The Trust Issue

It is important that the client and consultant have mutual trust as it is a human process requiring them to work as a team. A lot of interaction between client and consultant can lead to developing mutual trust. Like the client may fear that the introduction of an outsider into the system may lead to misbalance of power and rise in friction as people might not accept the consultant easily.

Similarly the consultant might be cautious of hidden agenda if any by the client like manipulation of records. Thus both of them have to clear their doubt before venturing. Moreover the consultant should avoid the ‘good guys’ and the ‘bad guys’ syndrome i.e. people who are welcoming the change are good guys and the people opposing it are bad guys because it is their job to convert the non believers into believers.

14.6 Internal vs. External Consultancy

Whenever the organizations go for systematic change they bring in help in form of external consultant. As they have more and varied business experience they bring in help in form of external consultant. As they have more and varied business experience they bring a fresh and innovative perspective to the problem. But it may take time for the external consultant to understand the organizational culture, evaluate the situation and develop the best-fit solution.

They can be a valuable resource when the organization is looking for an objective diagnosis as they have no stakes in the organization which can cloud their judgment. But most of the time the intervention suggested fails as the external consultants lack the cultural understanding resulting in solutions recommended without organizational and cultural context. Gradually the emphasis on building internal consultants is increasing as organizational context is best framed and managed by internal employees. The internal consultants have proved to be as effective as external consultants with proper training and working with executives.

They usually act as facilitators and advisors the project team. But they have their biases clouding the diagnosis. The role of the internal consultant consists of three primary tasks:

1. **Educate** the members about the change its role in organizational transformation and importance of introducing change.
2. **Developing strategies** and plans in collaboration with project team members
3. **Enabling** the project team to carry out the process of change management.

But the companies should be aware of the high costs involved in building internal consultants. But they are a one time expense. And the experience of internal consultant through time brings real benefits to the organization as they have deeper understanding of systems, processes, resources, potentials and limitations.

Whereas external consultant can be beneficial when specialized knowledge or expertise is required for objective solution development. More over their inferences are not bound by the political by the political or power compulsions.

External consultant is the person who has not been previously associated with the client system. Since they are outsiders they have more influence and greater freedom of operations, they have a higher status in comparison of internal consultants in the eyes of the members. They are not dependant upon organizational compensation structure and approval. Their risk taking capacity is higher as their risks are distributed because of presence of other clients.

Internal consultant functions outside the HR scope and are now accountable to the highest management in the organization.

14.7 Recommendations for Consultants

- Firstly the consultant should try to find out what the organization really needs. What kind of change incremental or transformational change. Are there any deviations in the environment of the organization? Do you foresee any deviation? Will the organizational culture and past history related to change management prove a hindrance? The consultant has to collect a lot of data to answer all these questions. There is no point in launching transformational change if there is no anticipated change in the environment.
- If the consultant feels incremental change will be more suitable then he/she might have to choose from the traditional OD interventions. It will be better to build the team comprising of organization's employees to spearhead the change. The consultant needs to work with this team and mutually design needs assessment surveys and training programmes. Train people within the organization to develop a team internally. Make them accountable for change management.
- But if the consultant feels transformational change will be more suitable then he/she should get the top management's commitment to change. The majority of work is required at this level. The top management should take responsibility of

the change and do the majority of work. The consultant should assist the top management in building the vision of the company i.e. a statement of what the company wants to be. The vision should be such that it makes the reasons for change clear. The vision should indicate a break from the past and it should be communicated by the top management to the employees directly. Workshops to discuss, challenge and discuss the vision should be organized. So that by the end of workshops a mutual commitment for a shared vision can be achieved.

- Once the shared vision has been achieved the consultant should help the top management to convert this vision into specific realities. If vision represents a destination strategies are the vehicles that would carry the organization to its destination. Establish a transition team which should consist of individuals from different departments of the organization to implement those strategies.
- During this stage the consultant helps to choose the transition management team to work with other members/groups in the organization for transferring the strategy into action plans.
- The consultant should know that a radical change is going to create power politics. He/she has to understand the power dynamics and ensure that he/she should not get dysfunctionally caught up in the power struggles.
- Once the vision and strategies have been accepted the consultant should use traditional OD to identify and provide skills and capabilities required in the new changed organization.

14.8 Summary

In the consultant-client relationship, there will always be instances where ethical and political issues must be taken into consideration. These considerations can lead to a strong relationship between the consultant and the client, as well as the successful implementation of the strategy, supported by objective results. However, making the wrong decision, or a decision that is not ethically or politically sound, can lead to a weak consultant-client relationship and a failed strategy. That said, even when ethically and politically sound decisions are made, there are times when the consultant-client relationship must be terminated due to a difference in ideas about where the organization should go; disagreements about the level of dependency, involvement or ownership of the organization or the strategy; or at times, simply because the contract has come to an end. Regardless of the end result, it is imperative that the consultant make a valiant effort to continuously make ethically and politically sound decisions throughout the entire relationship with the client to ensure optimal results.

14.9 Self Assessment Questions

1 If you have observed any change attempts made in any organization collect detailed information on the following aspects:

- Whether internal or external consultant was hired
- What kind of relationship was shared by the client and consultant
- What pitfalls did you experience in the behavior of consultant
- What kind of client were you
- What was your role in the entire process
- keeping in view the needed skills by an internal agent suggest a suitable training programme to build capabilities in them

2. Case Study

The consultant company XYZ was contacted by Telecommunication Company. The company employed 1000 employees in a North Indian Corporation. At the plant we were greeted with statements of goals ranging from hard nosed interest in increasing productivity to enlightened aspirations for improving human relation in the organization.

But whether the outcomes desired of OD were utilitarian or humanitarian the nature of OD was for virtually all members of the organization, shrouded in, mystery. As is generally true prospective clients in this organization had a difficult time understanding what they were getting themselves into.

At a meeting to discuss the possibility of working with cross-functional task forces, for example the consultants sketched in typical fashion the outlines of a team building scenario. They stressed the importance of the group's willingness to help themselves, held out the possibility of increased self-awareness and emphasized the absence of any guarantees of improved effectiveness. In response one member of the task force remarked, "This is the strangest sales pitch I've ever heard".

- How could you describe the OD process to a potential client?
- How would you clarify the OD practitioner role in an initial client meeting?

3. Questionnaire for Exercise

Regardless of the name of the step or phase, the consultant can learn a great deal about the client — and even get a sense for the likelihood of the client's participation in (and thus, success of) the project — by asking useful questions when first meeting the client. The questions can also impress the client with how thoughtful and thorough you are. (The questions are NOT to discern whether the client is ready for a project — those are a different set of questions). Here are some questions that have been useful to me over the years in order to learn more about the client and the potential project. (NOTE: The client might refer to the need for the project as an "issue," if there is a current, major problem, or as a "goal," if the project is to make good things even better. While asking questions, use the term that your client uses. For the sake of simplicity and clarity, most of the following questions use the term "issue.")

1. **Is the situation a problem or issue?**
(If it is a “remedial” situation, then there’s a much greater likelihood that the client will be much energized to participate in the project.)
2. **Are things OK now, but the project would make things even better?**
(If this is the case, it might be a challenge to keep the client energized.)
3. **Who first asserted the need for a project, or for change? External stakeholders, such as investors or customers?**
(If so, then the client might be very motivated to move things along in the project. If external stakeholders were involved, then they might want to be on a Project Team during the project.)
4. **Did internal stakeholders suggest the project?**
(If so, it will be even more important to cultivate strong buy-in of organization members.)
5. **Did the need for a project suddenly arise or has it been planned for a while?**
(If it suddenly arose, there might be more likelihood of stronger client participation in the project.)
6. **How long ago did the need for the project arise?**
(If it was recent, then there’s more likelihood that the client will show stronger participation in the project.)
7. **Did your client try any strategies to address the issue before?**
(If so, what did they try? Training? If all they tried was training, then they might have a very short-term view of how to fix things.)
8. **What did your client want to accomplish in their previous efforts to address the issue?**
(It’s extremely important to understand what they consider to be “success” for now.)
9. **How did your client decide what to try?**
(The answer to that question will tell you how your client makes decisions — by one person or by consensus.)
10. **What were the results of their efforts? How did your client measure success?**
(Did they take a systematic approach or an impulsive approach? The answer to that question tells you a lot about whether you’ll need to persuade them to be more methodical or not.)
11. **Did your client make any effort to manage change, when addressing their issue?**
(That question starts to alert them to the need to carefully manage change, and opens the door for you to start teaching them.)
12. **How did they decide to seek assistance?**
(The answer to that question will reveal how they made decisions, but also why they are considering you.)

13. Did your client establish criteria for selecting a consultant, for example, do a Request for Proposal?

(If they did an RFP, they very likely are quite thorough in analyzing their issue and in ensuring they get the best consultant. They probably will be the same way with you

14.10 Reference Books

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Unit - 15 : Evaluating OD Effectiveness

Structure of Unit

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15.0 Objectives

After completing this unit, you would be able to:

- Understand Models of Evaluating Organizational Effectiveness
- Understand Organizational effectiveness and efficiency
- Understand OD evaluation Matrices
- Understand different types of evaluation and need of evaluation.
- Understand The approaches to measuring organizational effectiveness
- Understand the Process of Organizational Development effectiveness

15.1 Introduction

The study of organizational effectiveness has long been the province of those in the management sciences. In recent years, however, workplace consultants and strategists have become increasingly interested in designing physical environments that promote organizational success. Although there are many ways to measure success, a number of factors consistently show up in effectiveness metrics. For any given organization, measures of effectiveness vary, depending upon its mission, environmental context, nature of work, the product or service it produces, and customer demands. Thus, the first step in evaluating organizational effectiveness is to understand the organization itself—how it functions, how it is structured, and what it emphasizes.

15.2 Organizational Development Evaluation

Organizational effectiveness is a measure of the extent to which an organization realizes its goals. Organizational efficiency refers to the amount of resources an organization uses in order to produce a unit of output. Efficiency and effectiveness are highly dependent on the ability of the organization to adjust itself to rapid changes in its environment, resources or technology.

OD evaluation is “a critical step in the OD process” and exists in almost all the process models. The primary purpose of evaluating OD interventions is to prove the impact of interventions and/or to improve them for the future. An evaluation phase assists clients in understanding what was done, how it was done, and what impact the change process has had on the organization and its members.

Moreover, evaluation has several advantages for OD practitioners. Some of those advantages are:

- (a) to obtain corporate support,
- (b) to improve plan and implementation processes,
- (c) to gain participants support,
- (d) to strengthen the client-consultant relationship,
- (e) to improve the consultant’s skills,
- (f) to meet professional criteria,
- (g) to increase flexibility during an intervention, and
- (h) to improve the quality of the environment.

Davidson (2005) stated that “evaluation is possibly the most important activity that allowed us to evolve, develop, improve things, and survive in an ever-changing environment”. Evaluation might be implemented for improvement, decision-making about the best possible action for the future, and/or learning lessons from successes and failures.

Evaluation within an organizational context examines the impact of interventions (e.g., training, organizational redesign or restructuring, and succession planning) taken to create and facilitate change in an organizational system. It can be performed during an intervention (formative), at the end of the intervention (summative), or sometime after conducting the intervention.

In addition, as evaluation has become accepted as an important process in OD, validity of OD outcomes has also become a critical issue, and sound methodology to evaluate OD is necessary. In order for OD practitioners to select an appropriate methodology for rigorous OD evaluation, they should establish an evaluation plan before implementing any OD intervention. A well-planned and implemented evaluation process enables the assessment of the efficacy of interventions conducted throughout the change process with the client. Harrison (1971) has identified several problems areas regarding OD evaluation such as challenges in using control groups, inadequate longitudinal research after an intervention, restricted measurement of change due to the limitations of research designs, inappropriate timing for data gathering prior to evaluation, and statistical difficulties with interpretations of data caused by measuring changes. In order to address these issues, it is important that OD evaluation should be planned at the beginning stage of the OD process and conducted in a timely manner whenever it is required. Head and Sorensen (2005) argued that, when an OD evaluation is planned prior to the

implementation of an OD intervention, more rigorous evaluation could usually be expected.

Evaluation Approach Models

Although there are various evaluation approaches, this paper focuses on four evaluation approaches that have been widely and popularly used by OD practitioners. Each of the selected evaluation approaches is discussed in the following sections.

Kirkpatrick's four Levels of Evaluation

Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation are popular in the training field and it has been adapted for use in OD. According to Bates (2004), the Kirkpatrick model has been overwhelmingly popular for several reasons. *First*, it highlights the need of training practitioners to understand training (i.e., intervention) evaluation in a systematic approach. *Second*, Kirkpatrick argues that information about level four outcomes is the most valuable or descriptive information about training. *Finally*, the approach simplifies the process of an intervention evaluation, making it easy to explain and to conduct.

Kirkpatrick's model achieves simplicity in several ways. It focuses attention on simple questions to be addressed on four major issues. It cuts down significantly on the need for the measurement of training evaluation since it focuses on four classes of outcomes, usually collected after training programs. Finally, it reduces the elements that need to be considered for evaluation since it depends mainly on outcome measures. Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation model consist of four evaluation outcomes or levels: a) reaction, b) learning, c) behavior, and d) results.

Reaction indicates the participants' satisfaction with a conducted intervention. At this level, information is collected to learn about how participants felt about a particular training program, intervention, or learning experience. The information at this level can be collected using feedback forms, surveys, questionnaires or even oral reaction. This information is considered to be quick, easy, and inexpensive to gather and analyze. According to McLean et al. (1995), this level is the most often evaluated because it is the easiest to measure.

Learning means how well knowledge, concepts, facts, and techniques are understood and absorbed by participants. Information is collected from participants to determine the amount of learning that takes place during a training program. That information can be collected from interviews, observations, or assessment tests before and after training. This information can be challenging to collect for complex learning activities; however, it is relatively simple to set up.

Behavior includes measurement at this level which tries to measure how much new skills or knowledge affect participants' behavior on the job. Assessing this level may require pre- and post- intervention measurements, observations, and interviews over time. Behavioral change may require information gathered from an immediate supervisor, coworkers, or others.

Organizational impact is the least used among the four levels because it is considered the most difficult one to measure. Achieving measurable change at this level is usually the

overall aim of organizational leaders. Some of these desired changes might be lowering turnover rates, reducing cost, making more profits, or enhancing morale. Change at this level may be measured through existing reporting systems or other measurement tools such as surveys, interviews, observations, and secondary data.

Although the simplicity of the Kirkpatrick model is a distinct advantage, it seems to overlook some important details that consider individual or contextual valuation (Bate, 2004). Researchers additionally have recognized other relevant factors that are not covered on the Kirkpatrick model such as organizational, individual, and training design and delivery that can influence effectiveness before, after, or during training. Some have also proposed adding more levels to the model to evaluate an intervention or training's ultimate value and success.

In an effort to address issues of the Kirkpatrick model, Phillips modified the descriptions of the levels and added a fifth level to Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation, which focuses on return on investment. They changed the level third level to *Application and Implementation* to include more than behavior changes, the level fourth to *Business Impact* to reflect the consequence of the application of knowledge gained, and added the fifth level (i.e., ROI) to measure and compare the monetary value of the outcomes with all of the costs associated with the intervention (Phillips & Phillips, 2006). According to Phillips and Phillips (2006), "ROI is the ultimate measure of accountability that answers the question: Is there a financial return for investing in a program, process, initiative, or performance improvement solution?"

Balanced Scorecard

The balanced scorecard (BSC) was developed by Robert Kaplan and David Norton in 1992. It is a comprehensive management system that assists organizations in transforming their vision and strategy into a set of performance measures. According to Kaplan and Norton (1996), "the balanced scorecard complements financial measures of past performance with measures of the drivers of future performance". It is popular among manufacturing, service, non-profit, and governmental organizations and appears to get outstanding results as a tool for strategic planning. The BSC consists of financial measures that show the results of actions already taken. It provides managers with a quick but comprehensive view of the business. The backbone of the BSC model is the performance measurement.

Niven (2006) describes the BSC as "a carefully selected set of quantifiable measures derived from an organization's strategy". BSC is regarded as a performance measurement system, strategic management system, and a communicative tool and is the parameter which forms the BSC model; other measurement perspective which have been identified in the BSC model for organizing strategic objectives and measuring organizational performance are the financial perspective, customer perspective, internal business processes perspective, and learning and growth perspective. This means an organization needs to look at its performance from the perspective of its major stakeholders (e.g., shareholders, customers, and employees) and determine how to achieve its mission and strategic objectives.

In order to utilize the BSC, organizations should articulate goals for time, quality, and performance and service and then transform these goals into quantitative and tangible measures. However, this is not an easy task especially when trying to measure intangible assets such as knowledge and skills. Focusing only on four areas makes it an overly basic strategic model. According to Chytas, Glykas, and Valiris, (2011), there are several areas in the BSC that need further research. In reality, not all measures are equal in their importance or have the same impact on others. However, the same weighting is given to them in the BSC. Moreover, the model's design may need to be improved to illustrate the dynamics of a system.

Holton Evaluation Model

Holton introduced the HRD evaluation and research model to be the comprehensive framework overcoming the weakness of the Kirkpatrick model. He believed that the Kirkpatrick four-level model did not include major intervening elements that influence intervention outcomes such as trainee readiness, motivation, training design and reinforcement of training on the job. Thus, the Holton model focuses on how training works and how it can be improved in the organization. It addresses one of the major risks of the Kirkpatrick model—that any failure to accomplishing desired outcomes would be result of the process of change itself while, in fact, it simply could be related to moderating variables. Holton clarified his idea by giving the example where a training intervention was positive while no real on-job behavior appeared which could simply be viewed as a limitation of the organization climate.

The HRD evaluation research and measurement model concentrates on three primary outcome measures: learning, individual performance, and organizational results. The model is divided into five levels based on the hypothesis that the three identified measures (i.e., outcomes) are influenced by ability, motivation, environmental, and other secondary factors. The first level represents ability or enabling elements, which consists of learning design ability, transfer design, and linkage to organizational goals. The level of environmental elements includes perceptions of training, transfer climate, and external events. Motivation level includes motivation to learn, motivation to transfer, and expected utility or ROI. Finally, the level of secondary influences includes individual characteristics, intervention readiness, job attitudes, and intervention fulfillment. However, overall the model is considered to be too complex and not easy to use (Holton & Naquin, 2005).

Appreciative Inquiry Approach

Appreciative inquiry (AI) was discovered by David Cooperrider in the early 1980s. AI has become more popular in scholarly and practitioner communities as an innovative approach to organization development. Watkins and Mohr (2001) argued that AI “enables organizations to carry out evaluations that move organizations toward their highest aspirations and best practices”. It is continuous process that uses the past to guide organization to a positive and generative future.

Watkins, Mohr, and Kelly (2011) described that AI as “inquiry that focuses on the generative and life-giving forces in the system that are the things we want to increase”.

AI focuses on an organization's strengths and positive areas to refine and improve the organization system. It encourages participants to recognize and focus on the most positive images they hold and discover what works well in their organization. The approach assumes that focusing on positive sides and strengths of an organization will help to extend positive results to the entire social system and organization. The AI approach is a cycle of activity consisting of five phases: a) definition, b) discovery, c) dream, d) design, and e) destiny.

In the *definition phase*, the goal and the issues are defined at this stage.

During the *discovery phase*, all participants engage in a form of discussion about strengths, resources, and capabilities that they recognize within their organization and share them with other members.

In the *dream phase*, participants focus on envisioning desirable future and creating a shared image.

In the *design phase*, participants identify and propose strategies and necessary steps that will enable them to create and support the desired outcome together based on what they have discovered and desired in the previous phases.

Finally, during the *destiny phase*, teams are formed to carry out important tasks needed to achieve the new dream and designs for the preferred future image.

15.3 Process of Evaluating OD Effectiveness

In addition, given that performing a rigorous and broader scope of evaluation would be best in an ideal world but not practical in the real world, although key stakeholders (e.g., CEOs and executives) want to look at the results of evaluations of OD interventions ensuring reliability, it does not mean that they want evaluators to always use rigorous evaluation methodology. This is partly because the rigorous evaluation methodology tends to be costly in that it requires more resources (e.g., time and money; Cady et al., 2010). Furthermore, the primary goal of evaluating OD interventions is not necessarily to use rigorous methods but to determine convincingly whether the OD interventions have achieved their desired goals.

Therefore, it would be beneficial to provide OD practitioners with practical guidelines for evaluating OD interventions. The eight-step practical guidelines as a step-by-step approach regarding how to plan, organize, implement, and report the evaluation of OD interventions effectively and efficiently depending in given situations.

In the following section, each step of the practical guidelines is discussed in a detailed manner. In addition, the practical guidelines are succinctly summarized and depicted in Figure 15.1 after describing each step in detail.

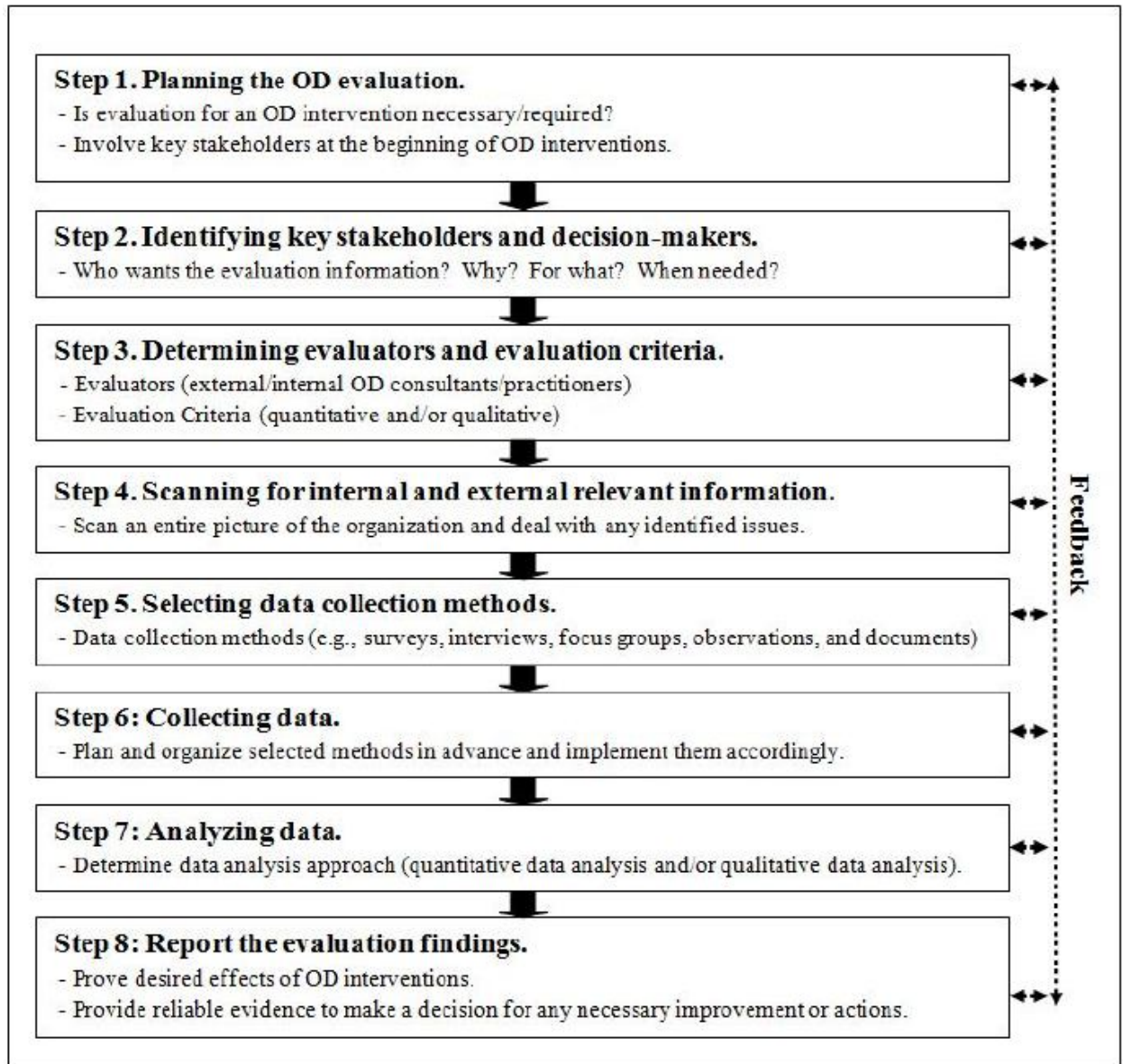


Figure 15.1 : 8-Step Practical Guidelines for Evaluating OD Interventions.

Step 1: Planning the OD Evaluation

Planning OD evaluation is to figure out and determine what the relevant needs are and how to deal with them in advance and prior the OD intervention. Since how to address the needs of OD evaluation will be covered by the rest of the steps, this step focuses on planning for the OD evaluation and identifying the core needs. If the needs (e.g., impact of an intervention on key decisions, funding opportunities for the future intervention; Cady et al., 2010) are determined by organizations especially key stakeholders, an OD evaluation plan should be established and implemented. However, if not, the necessity of

OD evaluation should be carefully reconsidered before going further. Evaluation of OD interventions tends to be considered at the end of OD interventions rather than at the beginning or beforehand, but this makes the evaluation more difficult and challenging.

Although key stakeholders (e.g., executives, leaders, and managers) pay attention to an OD intervention beforehand or at the beginning of the stage, once the OD intervention begins, their attention is more likely to become decreased and diluted unless some unexpected things (e.g., CEO's emphasis on the intervention and strong resistance from employees regarding the intervention) occur. This means that as time goes by, it will be more difficult to involve key stakeholders in the evaluation, which may cause them to disagree with the criteria of the evaluation and doubt the results of the evaluation. Besides, this may lead to not only a waste of time and money but also a loss of accountability and credibility. Thus, it is imperative to plan the evaluation of OD interventions at as early a stage as possible so as to make a contract or an agreement that discusses and determines how to evaluate OD interventions by involving key stakeholders in the evaluation. It would be best to make an evaluation plan regarding OD interventions beforehand. However, if evaluation is discussed in the middle or at the end of OD interventions, much effort should be made to involve key stakeholders or reflect their opinions in the process of the evaluation.

Step 2: Identifying Key Stakeholders and Decision Makers

The most important step in evaluation of OD interventions might be identifying and recognizing key stakeholders and decision makers who have the final authority to judge the effects of OD interventions and make decisions regarding the OD interventions. Thus, it is critical to identify and examine the key stakeholders and decision-makers related to the OD interventions.

Information obtained from these questions can help identify the key stakeholders and decision makers and clarify the scope and purpose of the evaluation of OD interventions. The key stakeholders and decision-makers could be the CEO, HR executives, leaders, managers, and/or change agents. It may depend on the targets (e.g., a team/group or a whole organization) of OD interventions and the available organizational resources (e.g., time and money). In addition, the scope (e.g., reaction, learning, behavior, results, and/or financial return) and purpose (e.g., to prove, maintain, improve, and/or expand) of the evaluation can provide a clear direction for planning, organizing, implementing, and reporting the evaluation.

Step 3: Determining Evaluators and Evaluation Criteria

After identifying and examining the key stakeholders and decision-makers, the next step is to determine and clarify who will conduct the evaluation and what criteria will be used for the evaluation. Since evaluators are people who play a key role in conducting the evaluation process and reporting the result of the evaluation, determining and clarifying them is critical and influential to the evaluation process. Evaluators could be external or internal OD consultants/practitioners, but determining the evaluators externally and/or internally highly depends on organizational intention and availability. For instance, Davison (2002) explained that if the evaluation of OD interventions focuses on

accountability, organizations would want to conduct an independent evaluation by external evaluators; if independence is not critical, organizations would want to implement self- or participatory- evaluation by internal evaluators. Also, since performing the evaluation of OD interventions involves cost, human, financial, and/or technical resources, it may influence determining the evaluators. In addition, based on the scope and purpose of evaluation determined from step 2, specific evaluation criteria should be established in this step. That is, the evaluation criteria should be primarily created and determined by what, why, and when key stakeholders and decision makers need and expect from the evaluation and then understood, finalized, and implemented by determined evaluators. The evaluation criteria could be quantitative and/or qualitative (e.g., job satisfaction, turnover rates, work engagement, or any concerns/problems) as long as they can meet the demands of the stakeholders and decision-makers.

Step 4: Scanning for Internal and External Relevant Information

Once the key stakeholders and decision-makers are identified and the evaluators and the evaluation criteria are determined, there is one relevant step prior to deciding and implementing the evaluation. That is to scan for any critical internal and external information related to the organization to understand the unique organizational characteristics (e.g., organizational culture and HR policy) and any significant internal and/or external events (e.g., massive layoffs, M&A, or law/regulation changes in labor union), which may affect or distort the results of the evaluation. Scanning the organization is an effort to comprehensively understand all environmental components regarding the organization in general by observing and gathering information directly or indirectly related to OD interventions from internal and external environments of the organization. Scanning the internal and external environment of the organization is vital in that organizations are not closed systems but open systems that are "in a state of dynamic equilibrium"; therefore, OD evaluation should be conducted by considering the whole picture of the organization. Failing to scan the entire organization in the evaluation may lead to providing skewed results of the evaluation to stakeholders and decision-makers and even making change efforts through OD interventions futile.

Step 5: Selecting Data Collection Methods

Based on information obtained from steps 1 to 4, the next step is to determine appropriate data collection methods to effectively gather data within an organization pertinent to the evaluation of OD interventions. There are various data collection methods (e.g., surveys, interviews, focus groups, observations, and document reviews). Among them, the most widely and frequently used data collection methods may be surveys, interviews, and focus groups. Surveys by mail, email, or phone are one of the most popular methods used to collect data from those who are most likely to have information about what is happening by mail, email, or phone. Interviews are conducted to discuss what is happening with an individual member or an employee within an organization and could be implemented in person, by computer technology (e.g., videoconferencing and online camera), or by phone. A focus group is a group of organizational members who have something in common and who are asked to get together and discuss their opinions and

suggestions about a specific topic. Most focus groups consist of five to eight organizational members and take less than two to three hours by posing two or three questions or discussion issues. Since each data collection method has pros and cons, the appropriate data collection methods that can provide relevant data to meet the established evaluation criteria should be determined by considering the time, money, and other resources of organizations.

Step 6: Collecting Data

Once appropriate data collection methods are selected, collecting evaluation data should be planned and organized in advance and implemented accordingly. With regard to collecting evaluation data through surveys, Gupta et al. (2007) suggested

Seven relevant phases for preparing and conducting surveys:

- (a) prepare to set up goals for this data-gathering method and to become familiar with the given situation and typical expressions,
- (b) design a survey,
- (c) develop open- and/or closed-ended questions,
- (d) write clear and specific instruction,
- (e) prepare the cover letter for potential respondents,
- (f) carry out a pilot-test, and
- (g) perform the survey and follow-up.

With regard to *gathering evaluation data through interviews*, Anderson (2010) suggested the following interview guidelines:

- (a) prepare a structured or unstructured interview guide,
- (b) decide the scope of potential participants,
- (c) contact potential participants and schedule interview appointments,
- (d) begin the scheduled interview by establishing rapport,
- (e) implement the interview according to the interview guide, and
- (f) finish the interview by inviting the participant's questions.

Step 7: Analyzing Data

Data gathered from determined data collection methods could be analyzed to provide the basis for evaluating OD interventions through two approaches: quantitative data analysis and qualitative data analysis. Quantitative data analysis involves summarizing and analyzing any kind of numerical data (e.g., surveys, sales records, and performance records) using a statistical approach. Quantitative data analysis tends to focus on descriptive statistics (i.e., frequency, percentages, mean, and standard deviation), but when organizations want to make inferences of the population from a sample group, inferential statistics (e.g., correlation analysis, t-test, and regression analysis) are also utilized for data analysis.

On the other hand, qualitative data analysis involves classifying data into categories to discover common themes, differences in people's views and ideas, and deconstructed meaning (e.g., underlying values and beliefs) by examining perceptions, opinions, and attitudes of people within organizations. Qualitative analysis particularly deals with subjective and intangible data collected from interviews, focus groups, case studies, and observations to provide a more in-depth understanding regarding organizational issues.

Step 8: Reporting the Evaluation Findings

The final step in the evaluation of OD interventions is to succinctly summarize and report the results of the evaluation to stakeholders and decision-makers so as to prove the desired effects of OD interventions or to provide them with reliable evidence to make a decision for any necessary improvement or other actions. When preparing for the evaluation report, evaluators should review the information obtained from step 2 and 3 so that the focus of the report will be aligned with the scope and purpose of the evaluation and the established evaluation criteria in which key stakeholders and decision-makers are primarily interested. Also, if similar or the same interventions were previously implemented and evaluated within the organization, the results of the previous evaluation could be used as other criteria through the comparison. In addition to the eight steps described above, in order to successfully complete OD evaluation, feedback mechanism also should be considered throughout the whole process. That is, if there are any expected and/or unexpected changes occurred during the OD evaluation process, the potential impact of those changes should be examined and discussed and they should be reflected on all-related steps of the OD evaluation process. For instance, with regard to the step 8, if there have been any changes throughout the evaluation process, the evaluators should reflect and note those changes in the report and also it should be noted in the report.

According to Albrecht (1983), there are four processes which may lead to organizational effectiveness:

- ***evaluation***, referring to a periodical and methodical process of scrutinizing the complete functioning of the organization;
- ***adaptation***, referring to a formal and disciplined planning process which facilitates policy decisions about OD;
- ***graduation***, which refers to the systematic process by which the organization identifies and develops its future leaders and latent management talents; and
- ***innovation***, referring to a policy which encourages the people in the organization to find better ways for accomplishing the goals assigned to them.

Considering the degree and type of differentiation and the integration mechanisms for coordination within and amongst departments, Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) observe that organizational efficiency is increased when the complexity of the environment is matched by the complexity of structures.

15.3.1 Approaches to Measuring Organizational Development Effectiveness

1. **Goal Approach:** Effectiveness is the ability to excel at one or more output goals. Questions of outcome evaluation:
 - Did this program achieve its goals?
 - Which of the program's goals were achieved?
 - Was this program worthwhile?
 - Did this program save more than it cost?
2. **Internal Process Approach:** Effectiveness is the ability to excel at internal efficiency, coordination, motivation, and employee satisfaction. Questions of process evaluation:
 - Which parts of the process worked best?
 - Which parts of the process worked least well?
3. **System Resource Approach:** Effectiveness is the ability to acquire scarce and valued resources from the environment.
4. **Constituency Approach:** Effectiveness is the ability to satisfy multiple strategic constituencies both within and outside the organization.
5. **Domain Approach:** Effectiveness is the ability to excel in one or more among several domains as selected by senior managers.

How is evaluation undertaken?

- Doing another diagnosis and comparing results with original diagnosis
- Asking employees (& others) for verbal or written comments on the value of the program
- Looking at changes in profit, performance, & other important figures

Who is evaluation for?

Sponsors are the primary users of the results of the organizational assessment exercise. Other users could include:

- I. Organizational decision makers: Policy and decision-makers who are responsible for instituting, continuing, discontinuing, expanding or curtailing programmes; funding organizations which provide funds;
- II. Participants in change: target participants who take part in organizational activities directly or indirectly;
- III. Change and OD specialists: programme management, by individuals or a group who coordinate during the evaluation programme;
- IV. Evaluators, who may be individuals or groups, and who design and conduct the assessment exercise; and
- V. Organizations which compete for available resources.

What is evaluation for?

- Evaluate effectiveness of change program
- Encourage employees to improve or maintain performance after start of program
- Identify problems left to be resolved in the future

Why Organizations Need Evaluation?

Organizational evaluation "measures, compares and analyses the coherence between results and specific objectives and between specific objectives and general objectives of institutional projects, programmes or plans" (Hernan, 1987). It can be helpful in identifying:

- whether or not the objectives and goals originally established are being achieved, as well as their expected effects and impact;
- whether the organization is adapting to new environments, changing technology and changes in other external variables so as to efficiently utilize the available resources;
- areas which need to be improved, modified or strengthened; and
- different modes to better fulfill the needs of the clients of the institute.
- In addition, organizational assessment:
- generates evaluation information, which then becomes a valuable experience-based input in future planning, establishing of priorities and resource allocation;
- furnishes financial data to justify the need for additional resources; and
- helps keep the key activities on the right track and offers information that allows the setting of minimum standards to promote compliance with the organizational research process objectives.

15.3.2 Types of Evaluation

Depending upon the objectives of the evaluation exercise, assessment may focus on one or several of the following:

- ***Economic impact*** This includes measurement of the effectiveness of research results, using techniques such as cost-benefit analysis. Eg. Maximizing income, minimizing expenditure
- ***Impact evaluation*** Impact is measured in relation to long-term effects on variables which were sought to be altered through the activities. For example, in a research organization, impact evaluation would measure effects of research outputs on transfer of technology and returns to the farmer.
- ***Basic evaluation*** This covers the identifying and analyzing of the socio-economic, biological, physical, technical and institutional aspects which can be improved by research activities.

- **Analytical evaluation** This involves socio-economic analysis of adoption studies, productivity analyses, and risk assessment, use of labor, marketing credit and prices and their effects on technical alternatives. Eg. Measuring performance against work timetables, speed of activity or response
- **Operative evaluation** This measures efficiency by comparative analysis between materials and resources used, activities carried out and the results achieved.
- **Evaluation of results** This includes quantitative as well as qualitative analysis of research results, retribution factors and probabilities of adoption. Eg. Attainment of a standard, changes in behavior, level of take-up of service
- **Traditional evaluation** It involves use of reports, technical meetings, committees, *ad hoc* groups, courses and seminars.
- **Personnel** this covers evaluation of the performance of professional, administrative and technical human resources in the organization. Eg. How others judge the function (clients, peers)

15.4 Models of Evaluating Organizational Effectiveness

An organization's effectiveness is in major part a measure of the effectiveness of its master strategy. Selection of the appropriate basis for assessing organizational effectiveness presents a challenging problem for managers and researchers.

There are no generally accepted conceptualizations prescribing the best criteria. Different organizational situations - pertaining to the performance of the organization's structure, the performance of the organization's human resources, and the impact of the organization's activities -require different criteria.

The Rational Goal Model

The rational goal approach focuses on the organization's ability to achieve its goals. An organization's goals are identified by establishing the general goal, discovering means or objectives for its accomplishment, and defining a set of activities for each objective. The organization is evaluated by comparing the activities accomplished with those planned for.

The Systems Resource Model

The systems resource model analyzes the decision-maker's capability to efficiently distribute resources among various subsystems' needs. The systems resources model defines the organization as a network of interrelated subsystems.

These subsystems needs may be classified as:

- **bargaining position** -ability of the organization to exploit its environment in acquisition of scarce and valued resources;
- **ability** of the systems' decision-makers to perceive, and correctly interpret, the real properties of the external environment;

- **ability** of the system to produce a certain specified output;
- **ability** to maintenance internal day-to-day activities;
- **ability** of the organization to co-ordinate relationships among the various subsystems;
- **ability** of the organization to respond to feedback regarding its effectiveness in the environment.
- **ability** of the organization to evaluate the effect of its decisions;
- **ability** of the organization' system to accomplish its goals.

The Bargaining Model

Each organizational problem requires a specific allocation of resources. The bargaining model presumes that an organization is a cooperative, sometimes competitive, resource distributing system. Decisions, problems and goals are more useful when shared by a greater number of people. Each decision-maker bargains with other groups for scarce resources which are vital in solving problems and meeting goals. The overall outcome is a function of the particular strategies selected by the various decision-makers in their bargaining relationships. This model measures the ability of decision-makers to obtain and use resources for responding to problems important to them. Each of the subsystems' needs should be evaluated from two focal points: efficiency and stress. **Efficiency** is an indication of the organization's ability to use its resources in responding to the most subsystems' needs. **Stress** is the tension produced by the system in fulfilling or not fulfilling its needs.

The Managerial Process Model

The managerial process model assesses the capability and productivity of various managerial processes -decision making, planning, budgeting, and the like -for performing goals. The managerial process model is based on the intuitive concept of substantial rationality, which inter relates the drives, impulses, wishes, feelings, needs, and values of the individuals to the functional goals of the organization.

The Organizational Development Model

This model appraises the organization's ability to work as a team and to fit the needs of its members. The model focuses on developing practices to foster:

1. supervisory behavior manifesting interest and concern for workers;
2. team spirit, group loyalty, and teamwork among workers and between workers and management;
3. confidence, trust and communication among workers and between workers and management;
4. more freedom to set their own objectives.

The model's procedure attempts to answer four main questions:

1. Where are we?
2. Where do we want to go?
3. How will we get there?
4. How will we know when we do get there?

These questions can be divided into four areas: question one is concerned with diagnosis, question two with the setting of goals and plans, question three with the implementation of goals, and question four with evaluation. This model is concerned with changing beliefs, attitudes, values, and organizational structures so that individuals can be better adapt to new technologies and challenges. It is a process of management by objectives in contrast to management by control.

The Structural Functional Model

The structural functional approach tests the durability and flexibility of the organization's structure for responding to a diversity of situations and events. According to this model, all systems need maintenance and continuity. The following aspects define this:

- security of the organization as whole in relation to the social forces in its environment (this relates to ability to forestall threatened aggressions or deleterious consequences from the actions of others);
- stability of lines of authority and communication (this refers to the continued capacity of leadership to control and have access to individuals in the system);
- stability of informal relations within the organization;
- continuity of policy making (this refers to the ability to reexamine policy on a continuing basis);
- homogeneity of outlook (this refers the ability to effectively orient members to organization norms and beliefs).

The Functional Model

In the functional approach an organization's effectiveness is determined by the social consequences of its activities. These seven models have their strengths and shortcomings depending upon the organizational situation being evaluated. The choice of evaluation approach usually hinges on the organizational situation that needs to be addressed

15.5 Evaluating OD Intervention

Evaluation is an important tool for improving management. Through organizational assessment - commonly known as evaluation - the effectiveness of an organization is measured in terms of its functioning, problems and achievements from both the behavioral and social system points of view. Organizational assessment thus involves "measurement of variables related to patterns of organizational behavior and effectiveness". It can play an important role in helping managers improve the efficiency and effectiveness of their operations and can be an instrument for creating public support for the research programmes and outreach activities.

15.5.1 OD Evaluation Matrices

Evaluation is a planned process of assessment of the extent to which the work undertaken delivered its intended objectives. Metrics refers to the specific data or measures used to assess the outcome. Whether a specific metric is a valid indicator of an OD initiative will depend on the projects objectives. The OD Practitioner will;

- Help the client to agree the general areas of evaluation and the corresponding relevant metrics during an inception meeting
 - Build the evaluation areas and metrics into the OD programme report
 - Set up a tracking mechanism from the beginning of the programme – so that evaluative data can be collected throughout the project life and be used to adjust the project approach if required.
 - Involve the Programme Team to do evaluative data gathering to increase programme ownership. Use the evaluative process to reinforce the development agenda with energy and commitment
 - Present coherent evaluative data to the organization
 - Help the Organization to determine what actions to take to adjust the outcome of the programme interventions – reinforce what works, address what does not work, design further interventions etc.
1. What do you want to get out of the Programme?
 2. What would success look like to you?
 3. If we were to ask other stakeholders about the desired outcomes they want from this programme, what would they be?
 4. What type of metrics will satisfy the key decision makers in this programme?

OD evaluation Matrices

The purpose of this focused detail is to reflect on how the team is doing and decide what modifications that are required to ensure the team's success.

Session	Process
Opening	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• We are at a critical point in our intervention. We need to reflect on progress to date. I expect that each of you have reviewed the overall plan and the reports from each of the project groups. We want to reflect on what has been accomplished this month and decide if we need to adapt the plan to keep the project on track and on schedule
Objective Questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• As you read these reports, what statements or points caught your attention?• Where were the reports clear?• Where are they not clear?• As you think of our work as a team, what other information do need to share?

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As you compare these reports to our project plan, where do we appear to be ahead of schedule? • Where do we seem to be behind schedule?
Reflective Questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What surprises did you find in the reports? • Where has the work gone easily? • Where has it been more difficult than expected? • Where have we run into unexpected issues or challenges?
Interpretive Questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What appear to be the key issues or key problem areas? • Where will we need extra help? • What kind of help will we need? • What questions do we need to work through as a whole group? • What will it take to keep this project on track or get it back on track?
Decisional Questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What changes are we recommending to the plan? • What changes are we making to the way we need to operate? • What are the next steps? • Who needs to do them?
Closing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This has been very helpful to us all in getting the big picture and seeing where we need to move next

Figure 15.2 Sample Session Outline for evaluation of OD

15.5.2 Implementation and Evaluation Feedback

Most discussions and applications of OD evaluation imply that evaluation is something done after intervention. It is typically argued that once the intervention is implemented, it should be evaluated to discover whether it is producing intended effects. For example, it might be expected that a job enrichment program would lead to higher employee satisfaction and performance. After implementing job enrichment, evaluation would involve assessing whether these positive results indeed did occur.

Implementation feedback informs this process by supplying data about the different features of the intervention itself and data about the immediate effects of the interventions. These data collected repeatedly and at short intervals, provide a short interval; provide a series of snapshots about how the intervention is progressing.

Organization members can use this information, first, to gain a clearer understanding of the intervention (the kinds of behaviors and procedures required to implement it) and, second, to plan for the next implementation steps. This feedback cycle might proceed for several rounds, with each round providing members with knowledge about the interventions and ideas for the next stage of implementation.

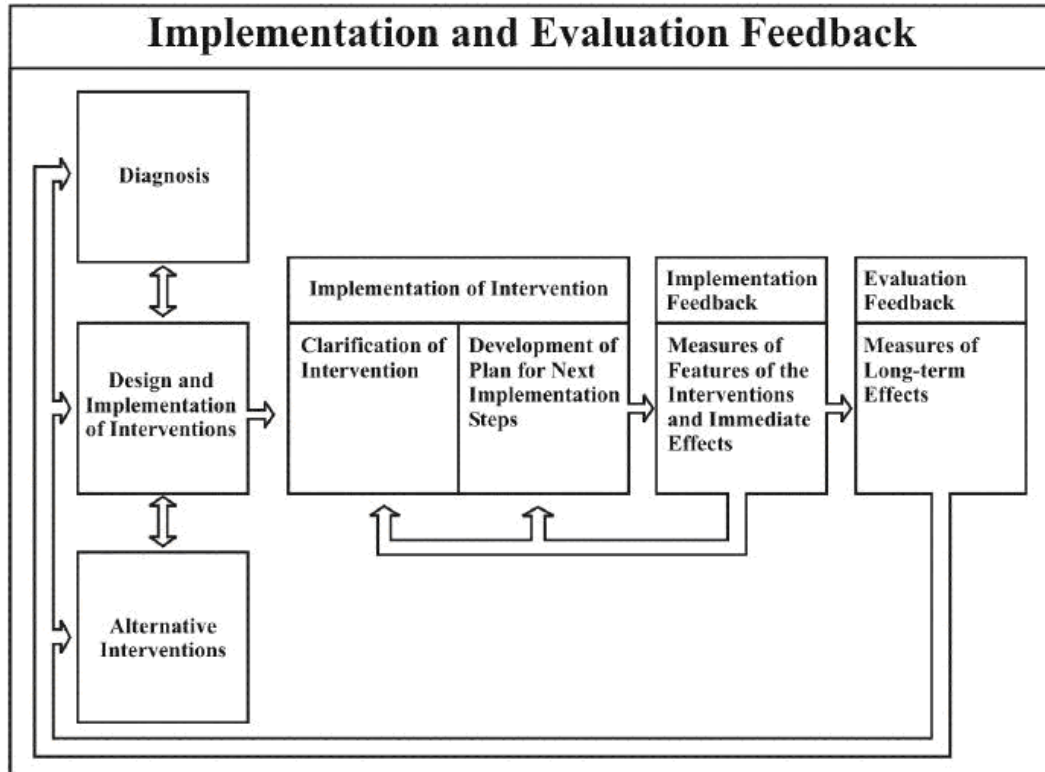


Figure 15.3 : Implementation and Evaluation Feedback

Once implementation feedback informs organization members that the intervention is sufficiently in place, evaluation feedback begins, in contrast to implementation feedback, it is concerned with the overall impact of the intervention and with whether resources should continue to be allocated to it or to other possible interventions. Evaluation feedback takes longer to gather and interpret than does implementation feedback. It typically includes a broad array of outcome measures, such as performance job satisfaction, absenteeism, and turnover. Negative results on these measures tell members either that the initial diagnosis was seriously flawed or that the wrong intervention was chosen. Such feedback might prompt additional diagnosis and a search for a more effective intervention. Positive results, on the other hand tell members that the interventions produced expected outcomes and might prompt a search for ways to institutionalize the changes, making them a permanent part of the organizations normal functioning.

The evaluation feedback includes all the data from the satisfaction and performance measures used in the implementation feedback because both the immediate and broader effects of the intervention are being evaluated, additional outcomes are examined, such as employee absenteeism, maintenance costs, and reactions of other organizational units not included in job enrichment. The full array of evaluation data might suggest that after one year from the start of implementation, the job enrichment program is having expected effects and thus should be continued and made more permanent.

15.6 Summary

The focus of the evaluation of OD approaches is on strengthening management systems and leadership practices as well as building organizational and individual strength. The importance of OD evaluation has been increasingly emphasized by many OD practitioners and scholars along with the wide use of the OD approach as a long-term planned change effort for organizational success. In addition, the evaluation is regarded as an essential part of the OD process. In spite of the relevance of the OD evaluation in the OD change effort, many OD practitioners tend to encounter difficulties in conducting the OD evaluation partly due to a poor evaluation plan, improper timing for data gathering, and difficulties in data analysis. It seems that many relevant and complicated issues need to be considered and that a lack of clear and practical guidelines may overwhelm OD practitioners in the planning and implementing of the OD evaluation.

15.7 Self Assessment Questions

Explain Models of Evaluating Organizational Effectiveness

1. What is Organizational effectiveness and efficiency
2. Explain in detail. OD evaluation Matrices
3. Why organizations need evaluation?
4. Who is evaluation for? Or who are the Users of the evaluation results?
5. What are the approaches to measuring organizational effectiveness?
6. Process of Organizational Development effectiveness.

15.8 Reference Books

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Unit- 16 : Designing Training Programmes

Structure of Unit

- 16.0 Objectives
- 16.1 Introduction
- 16.2 Perspective for Designing Training
- 16.3 Developing a Training Programme
- 16.4 Assessment of Training Effectiveness
- 16.5 Summary
- 16.6 Self Assessment Questions
- 16.7 Reference Books

16.0 Objectives

After Completing this unit you would be able to:

- Understand the importance of training programmes design;
- Learn the structure of building a Training Design;
- know about the structures of Training design Programmes;
- Learn about the process of Training Programmes Designing;
- Know about the dimensions and scope of Training Programmes Designing.

16.1 Introduction

Training is any planned activity to transfer or modify knowledge, skills, and attitudes through learning experiences. Personnel may require training for a variety of reasons, including the need to maintain levels of competence and respond to the demands of changing circumstances and new approaches and technologies. Training by itself cannot solve structural, organizational, or policy problems within an organization, although supportive supervision and the use of motivational strategies can help sustain performance improvement derived from training. Our ability to help a person learn is not simply a matter of our direct trainer skills, such as our ability to coach a person, give lectures, and lead discussions or to run group exercises. These are essential skills. But for them to be used effectively they should be based on well-designed training.

The design and implementation of training will be done by the trainer, but often it will involve others, such as direct trainers, training institutions, departments and most important of all, the trainees. The creative Ideas of mind will affect the successful use of the time, effort and resources spent on training. The design of training is a vital part of the Systematic Approach to Training. To link learning to the skills with an approach and concepts which are used for the design of training. Here we will outline the broad framework of training design, mentioning concepts and techniques. During this introduction to design we will use an analogy to illustrate issues, which we consider important.

16.2 Perspective for Training Design

16.2.1 Why Training Programme Design?

Why bother wasting time and resources on training? For the analogy Quality Output is, therefore, concerned with the use of MS Word, and this raises some design issues for example:

- Who needs to be trained?
- What standard of Quality is required?

Although these may seem straightforward questions, they pose major design issues that have to be tackled if training is to be successful. The first question, referring to who needs to be trained, assumes that training needs have been identified and individuals or categories of people are known and quantified. This information should let us know many people need to be trained and their location. Without this we might design for a few when many need to be trained, or providing training at an inconvenient location causing unnecessary expense and loss of it.

The first question also raises concern about whether the prospective trainee needs to learn MS Word. What are they using now? What is their current standard of quality? Are they computer literate? Do they have adequate keyboard skills? Do they want to learn Multi Media? As a designer you will need this information to enable you to establish a starting point for the training to be provided. There is a considerable difference between people already competent to use PPT, who simply need an update on the new features and changes introduced with the new version, and others who have no experience of MS Word/PPT, or indeed no knowledge of Multi Media. The second question is of increasing importance as organizations seek to improve efficiency and the quality of product and services they offer to customers both internal and external. When designing training it is essential to know the standard of quality required to be achieved by trainees bearing in mind that the higher the standard the higher will be the demand in time and resources needed. Establishing an agreed standard of quality is part of working out a design brief that specifies who is to be trained and the standards to be achieved and agree with the client.

A popular book on using net browsing has over 500 pages of information about the programme, including desk top publishing, graphics, tables, templates, equations, etc. As the designer you will need to negotiate with clients, heads of departments and trainees to agree on the aims and objectives for the training you are designing, which, adapting the OED's definition, you will conceive in your mind to be carried into effect by means of action the implementation of your design. One of the concepts to be introduced later is that of mastery learning which recommends setting a satisfactory standard of performance, compatible with requirements. So, if you were asked to design training for Multi Media / Net Browsing what standards of performance could be set? Which features of the programme should trainees be competent to use? Although we have used MS Word as an analogy, the situation applies to all design activities. Depending on your role and status as a trainer, you could be designing training in several different contexts. For example, using the analogy:

- You could be a Human Resource training manager, planning a training programme to enable your organization to fully utilize the potential of more powerful personal computers and the introduction of Multi Media. Here you will be dealing with the broad design framework to specify the outcomes from the programme and agreeing a design brief with training institutions.
- You could be an institutional trainer asked to design a training course on Multi Media. The course will be run at your institution perhaps with the assistance of Computer Division Expert. Here you will be working from a given design brief and be responsible for designing the course and supervising its delivery.
- You could be involved in a department's function, helping members of staff continue to develop their ability to use Multi Media. Here you will be designing learning units to enable them to perform specific tasks, according to departmental requirements. Also, as the concept of competence is introduced, you might be involved in designing the method of assessment.

Therefore, rather than attempting to tackle training design as a single all embracing activity, it is more appropriate to consider some broad perspectives in which design activities can be undertaken

Based on Systematic Approach to Training, in particular information from Training Needs analysis, a broad, overall picture will be provided of training and development. Needs the distinction between 'training' and 'development' should be noted as the analysis may provide information about current and anticipated performance problems where training is needed, or it may highlight situations where the concern is the development of people, rather than for any particular training need. From discussing the situation with a client, a design brief can be agreed upon. This establishes the basis for design and a clear understanding of the outcomes to be achieved.

Training Programmes of a Software Company: Information from training needs analysis and discussion with clients of Software Company will identify performance problems and training or development needs. Usually, these problems will involve a number of people with often different needs. Applying the perspective of a training programme to design, the trainer is likely to be involved in the selection, specification, administration and assessment of courses and learning units which may be designed and implemented by others.

Training Course for Peer Learning in Leading Private Enterprises: Groups of people often have similar training needs which can best be met by means of a training course. Usually, a course is done off the job and- is intended to meet general training needs. Ideally, a course should be set within a unique programme so that performance problems and training or development needs are clearly identified and related to the training helping provide. In addition the programme would make provision for the objectives of the course to be linked to standards of performance. A course may also be designed for it to be free standing and available on the open market to other corporate.

The role of the designer of a course is to establish a clearly defined purpose and aim for a course and then decide content and appropriate methods to achieve them.

Learning Unit: As training needs become more clearly defined by means of job and task analysis, more specific training can be provided. A learning unit can be designed for specific tasks or outcomes to provide a basic building block for both courses and programmes.

Training Sessions: These may be of only a few hours' duration and implemented on the job, at a training institution, a resource centre or at a trainee's home. All these sessions need to be designed to make optimum use of the time and opportunities available. The role of the designer for a session is somewhat similar to that used for designing a learning unit. The difference is that the session is likely to be somewhat shorter in duration, a single location and intended to achieve a limited objective

16.2.2 Planning a Training Design

Planning training-Session involves:

- (1) Establishing learning objectives based upon identified training needs;
- (2) Identifying the components you want to cover in the session;
- (3) Assembling specific methods and activities in a coherent design that might be compared to a movie script.

Learning Objectives are statements of what we want a learner to know, feel, or be able to do at the end, of training. For example the learning objectives for a training session on the principles of adult learning might be:

Learners will understand the basic principles of adult learning and be able to apply them by developing training strategies appropriate to different learners in a structured exercise. Learners will be able to describe their own individual learning styles and the general styles of other learners; they will be able to vary their training methods so that they appeal to a variety of learners, not just those with similar styles. Learning Components are statements of what will be covered in the training session. For the same session, components might be:

Basic principles of adult learning

- Relationship of principles to learner's own experience
- Discovery of individual styles
- Practice with selecting training strategies to match learning styles
- Experience in working with peers (an instrument component)

A Training Design arranges specific methods and activities in order to accomplish the learning objectives. The training design for our example might look like this:

Census: Learners are asked to remember times in their adult lives when they started to learn some new skill, and then abandoned it. They are asked to think about the factors that led to ceased learning, writing the factors individually on sheets of paper. The trainer

takes a census of the factors and records them on newsprint. Trainer then asks learners to comment on what these data say about the adult learner.

Flip Charts: Presentation of basic adult learner characteristics from Margolis; differences between adults and children as learners and between teachers and trainers; Dunn and Dunn model of factors influencing adult learning.

- **Flip Charts:** Adult Learning Cycle is explained as a basis for.
- **Instrument:** Participants are given the McBer Learning Styles Inventory.
- **Flip Charts:** Models for LSI are explained.
- **Discussion:** Participants discuss personal LSI results with Learning Partners; trainer encourages community discussion after Partner discussions.

Exercise: Participants are divided into small groups. Using the LSI Grid, which each group draws on a flip chart, the group lists training strategies that would be appropriate with each of the learning styles represented on the McBer model. Trainer uses Gallery Technique to enable each group to present its ideas briefly to the community.

Review: Trainer briefly reviews major points that have come up, in the session.

The design script could, of course, be more or less detailed than the above example. It could also include, for example, timing for each activity, who will facilitate each activity (if co-trainers are being used), as well as details such as how large groups should be, tips on how to give directions for specific exercises, etc. Though detailed training scripts often include major points and sub-points that the trainer wants to make (flip chart texts, for example), they should not contain a full, exactly worded text for the presentation, as memorized presentations typically do not meet the objective of involving the learner. As enhancements or deletions are made to the training design, of course, the script should be changed.

Types of Training: Location based

Training methods and locations can be discussed under three broad areas:

(a) training at the workplace, (b) training at organizational or external centres - a combination of training at the work place and (c) training centres. The choice will be determined by whatever is assessed as most likely to achieve the objectives of training and work by the most cost-effective means.

Training at the Work Place: Training at the work place may take a variety of forms. In very broadest sense it may be identified with career development and the acquisition of required knowledge, skills and attitudes from the continuous experience and opportunities provided by work itself. Here, the Personnel Department has the key role in the supervision and direction of career paths to enable employees to widen their horizons and to develop their capabilities to assume wider responsibilities; for the future Line managers also obviously have the main responsibility of training their own staff at the work place. They may do this in the course of normal work by delegation, job-rotation,

attachments, and experienced employees or by the use of formal work-place methods such as coaching, open and distance learning.

In recent times as a result of the ever-increasing emphasis on cost-effectiveness there has been a noticeable tendency for much of the training that was formerly given at training centres to be now carried out at the work place. This shift applies particularly to training related to individual proficiency, i.e., what it sometimes described as trade or vocational training. It has been stimulated by recent developments in open and distance methods, often based on computer and video technology. It has also led to a change of emphasis in central trainers' role. Nowadays most of the enterprises tending to be increasingly employed as consultants to local managers in the design and provision of training at the work places and less in their traditional presentational and instructional roles. The cost-effectiveness of this approach has already been demonstrated by a number of organizations in terms of saving the very high costs of central training and in improved work performance.

Training at Training Centres: Most people are familiar with formal methods of training Centres and most organizations have permanent centres or hire accommodation for central training. Here the training is conducted by full-time training staffs, assisted if necessary by occasional lecturers and tutors. Trainees usually work in groups and the methods commonly employed are lectures, discussion groups, case studies, simulation, role play and exercises of various kinds, supported by films, CCTV, tape-slide projections and other audio-visual aids. Training usually covers subjects where needs are identified that are common to groups of employees of similar grades or jobs. The choice of methods and locations must be determined by the criterion of cost effectiveness.

Whilst centrally based training is costly and requires people to leave their places of work, it is necessary and essential for some forms of training, especially in managerial and related subjects. Here people need to work in groups and to learn from each other in a residential setting. Just as line managers need the assistance of central trainers to plan local programmes so the central trainers must design central training in collaboration with line managers to ensure that it provides what they and their staff need for effective performance of work.

Some central courses, especially those provided by external centres, could be described as 'off-the-peg.' To avoid a mismatch between the trainee and the course it is most important that the training centre should publish specific details about the course, i.e. aim, objectives, people for whom intended (target population), contents, methods and duration. This kind of problem is much less likely to occur when a particular organization uses the external centre to provide specific forms of training for specific members of its staff.

Combining Work-Place and Central Methods: The third general heading that needs to be considered is the combination of work place and central methods, which gives the possibility of having the best of both worlds. The typical features of this approach to training are these:

- (1) Training is designed by central trainers and managers, and if necessary, a subject specialist to ensure that it is work-related.
- (2) Training is designed as a series of separate, but interdependent modules, arranged in a logical sequence and often based on the principles of programmed learning.
- (3) The basic pattern of training is a series of short courses at the centre, interspersed with long periods of study at the work place supervised by central trainers and local managerial staff.
- (4) Training at the work place is prepared in a form that facilities locally supervised self-study, e.g., programmed texts, video-films and computers.
- (5) Progressive and final tests of learning achievement are built into the programme.

This combination approaches to training has a number of potentially significant advantages, i.e.

- (1) It uses the advantages of the individually oriented work place and the group-oriented central training methods.
- (2) It is very flexible.
- (3) There is no pressure to cram training into a short period of time because of the demands of work or the costs of central training. Training can be extended as long as is necessary, e.g., over several months, to cover subjects in the required depth and breadth.
- (4) There is a continuing, achievement-oriented partnership between line managers, trainees and central trainers.
- (5) The crucial importance of line management and the integration of work and training is very apparent.
- (6) When training is extended over longer periods and is directly work oriented, the assessment of learning achievement is more valid.
- (7) It is especially useful for management training, which can never be satisfactorily encompassed by short central courses.
- (8) It is likely to be more cost-effective than other methods.

16.3 Developing a Training Programme

Here is the process for step by step developing a Training Programme-

1. Awareness of Need: The trainer becomes or is made aware of the potential need for some form of training in a variety of ways. A new system or procedure, method or attitude is to be introduced by the organization and a common way in which the training department learns of this is to receive word that it is required to provide the 'necessary' training. Less common but more desirable, is that the training department, often via the

training director or manager who attends the senior management or project meeting at which the new working is proposed, is asked what implications for training the new proposal has. Other avenues for awareness are comments by learners on other training events, action plans at the end of training events, discussion with people at work, and what should be much more widely used method, identification from annual appraisal reviews. The job appraisal review form should always contain a section to include the record of the discussion between the appraiser and the appraisee on the learning/training needs of the later. This information should be passed to the training department by the personnel department to which these reviews are usually sent.

2. Consult with Client: Whenever the training function is informed of a stated training need, other than when it is obtained by the training manager who should have all details available. The first step is to go back to the client for a diagnostic probing interview in order to obtain as many details as possible. Too often it is assumed that the trainer can interpret a general statement of need. Such questions as 'exactly what', 'who', 'over what period' and so on should be asked until the trainer is satisfied that sufficient information is held to provide the training intended.

3. Specify Symptoms: This is simple if we are considering completely new requirement training the symptoms are that function X is required and, therefore, the people concerned do not have skills X. Training for existing functions, which are not being performed effectively, requires a diagnosis of the symptoms, which show what is going wrong.

4. Analyse Training Needs: Armed with the knowledge that there is a training need for which the symptoms new or existing have been determined; a final analysis of the training needs is undertaken. Simply stated this can be shown as required skill minus Existing skill = Training need.

5. Define Existing Capabilities of Proposed Audience and Define Selection Criteria: According to the study of the author the course content to meet the needs of a "median" participant, but include material, which would hopefully be of use to those participants above or below the median. Having outlined the specific content of a course, we then establish selection criteria, which keep participants close to the median so that our material is relevant to each participant. In this step, then we must specify what behaviour we assume a participant to be capable of when he comes to training centre. **Example:** At this stage, the Department of Public Enterprise establishes selection criteria for the participants in its course. A participant is expected to have had at least two years, experience in project appraisal or development. He should have demonstrated a high level of skill in at least .we area of project appraisal.

6. Select Programme Objectives and Define Specific Learning Objectives (Knowledge, Skills, and Attitudes): We can classify different types and levels of learning. The specific types of 'earning are (1) knowledge (simple access to information); (2) skill (the ability to use the knowledge); and (3) attitudes (what we believe, our disposition towards knowledge and skill).

We should keep these types and levels of learning in mind when selecting programme objectives. The latter coincide with one or more of the major categories under job performance step II. Some programme objectives coincide with the major topics that comprise a seminar in an IPE course (e.g., Negotiation Skills), other objectives (e.g., developing an analytical, questioning approach) might not be defined as a topic but other objectives, which would be dealt with throughout the course. The specific learning objectives are the more detailed statements of what participants should know or should be able to do or should believe at the end of the course. These merits define what the participant would be doing if he were observed on the job in his organization.

In selecting programme objectives, we should consider several factors. First we should look the needs of the organization to determine whether the organization is an operating, planning or organization. Then we should consider the needs of the participants, given their qualifications and the degree of homogeneity or heterogeneity of the group as defined in Step II.

7. Build Curriculum (Content and Sequence): The curriculum in IPE is the course calendar and it specifies the content and sequence of the subject matter. Initially, a calendar is developed, noting the topics of discussion for each session. A final curriculum is prepared at the end of the course; topics are grouped by seminar and complete reference information is included on the material covered. When we are establishing the subjects and topics to be covered in the course, we consider several factors; time requirements, which are dependent upon the desired intensity of the topic; the lecturer's schedules, which constrain the phasing and sequencing of the lecturers; and the level of sophistication of the participants.

There are several factors to consider in regard to calendar development. The first is "internalization." Participants should be given an opportunity for subconscious thought over time to relate the new material to past experience. Thus, the instructor should allow some time between sessions on a certain topic but not so much that the participants lose their train of thought. A second factor to consider is "boredom potential." Some instructors favour splitting a subject up (rather than giving several consecutive sessions on the topic) in order to relieve boredom while providing time for internalisation. Others argue that it is easier for the mind to grasp one subject fully before moving on to another. If the instructor does split a topic up, he should * intersperse lighter subjects rather than another heavy topic.

Another factor to take into account is the workload. Long case studies should be interspersed with topics needing less preparation. Assignments could be planned to provide balance. In addition to the spacing and planning question, the instructor should be aware of the participants, shock at beginning a course with a case discussion versus the more familiar lecture format. Some orientation to the case method with non-threatening material would be quite useful. Finally, one should consider the participant's cultural shock, jet lag, and adjustment to a new environment. As part of the socialization process, the participants need to know one another in perspective. To accomplish this, it

would be desirable to have several smaller group meetings to let the participants become acquainted in small "primary" groups.

Another aspect of the socialization process is to encourage participants to form relationships across regional or cultural lines. It is quite natural for participants to gather in cultural sub-groups - so in the early weeks, it would be useful to encourage other groupings. This can be done in assignment of participation to groups. Another approach might be to have lecturer's select random groups to go to lunch in the cafeteria.

8. Select Methods and Materials: There are various methodologies available to group leaders: lectures, discussions, cases, exercises, field trips (tourism or working), programmed teaching packages (teacher less or taught), role playing, workshops, games and post work or project workshop. Methods and materials should be chosen so as to maximize learning for the particular subject matter and type of learning described.

Retention is a critical factor in the learning process. Given one exposure to a topic, a participant may remember to look up a reading on the topic. The likelihood of his looking it up increases if the exposure involved the participant. The greater the number of exposures, the greater the retention is. Thus, vital topics should have several exposures. For instance, on the first day, the subject would be introduced in the seminar room with a short lecture, example, and discussion. On the second day, the participant has a reading and an exercise to be done at home. The following day, the exercise is reviewed in the seminar room; points already mentioned are amplified and new ideas are brought out. Sometimes it is efficient to use the same case consecutively for different topics since the participant is already familiar with the facts of the case. In this way, a teaching package approach can be developed.

9. Other Instructional Resources (Physical, Budget, Personnel, and Time): For a new programme, this step is difficult. Before either the physical resources or the personnel can be obtained, the budget must be secured. Then, it is necessary to find adequate facilities and qualified staff. We should emphasize that IPE's ultimate goal is not simply to train group leaders but rather to develop institutions as the basis for an ongoing process of education and training.

10. Conduct Training (Validate first): This is the implementation phase. The first seven steps have been involved with defining and preparing the program. If we have selected our methods wisely and prepared our teaching materials carefully, then the group leader who is familiar with both the methods and the materials can begin the training. New materials should be tested before they are used in class.

11. Decide the Evaluation Methods: Now is the time to start thinking, and doing something about the evaluation of the programme or event, not, as so often happens, halfway through the event as the first time thought.

The minimum requirements for an evaluation process are:

- A statement of learning requirements for the event or programme.
- A method of knowing the level of skill of the learners prior to the start of the event.

- A method of methods of assessing progress during the event.
- A method of validating the training at the end of the event and assessing whether the learners have achieved what was required.
- A longer-term approach to ensure that the learning is being put into action at work in an effective manner.

12. Produce the Evaluation Instruments: In the same way that once the training has been designed, followed by more specific detail planning and production, so with the validation and evaluation measures. Full consideration must be given to the most effective formats for the processes to be assessed. Principally, this will be based on the approach that for any objective training there will be an objective measure; for 'soft' or subjective training it will be necessary to design and use a more subjective form of assessment. These decisions and production must be made at this early stage, not later in the programme as a last-ditch effort.

13. Discuss with the Involve the Line Manager: Even now may be at a late stage involve the line manager, who after all is the one who selects the learners-is responsible for their costs, and is the most important.

14. Make Environmental Preparations: You should now arrange a training room or make arrangements for the learners to study the learning package at work; order and check all the equipment; and make all the physical arrangements necessary to ensure the successful operation the training, in whatever form.

15. Line Manager's Briefing: It is about this time that the learners' line managers should be having a pre-course briefing session with their learners. It may be a little late at this stage, but the first question will be whether the training arranged is still appropriate. This will be followed by a discussion on personal and training objectives, attitudes and intentions and so on and, importantly, an arrangement for a definite post-course meeting.

16. Pre-test the Learners: This is the initial stage of the validation and evaluation process, effectively determining the starting point for the training at what level of skills is the learners at this point? Do they require all the training points? Is concentration needed on some points but revision only on others? Are all the learners at the same level? Are the appropriate learners attending the training event or performing the learning package? These and other relevant questions must be answered to ensure that the training is not a waste of time and money.

(a) Run the Event: This will involve either mounting the live training event, or sending out the open learning package or other learning vehicle. Although comments on this stage are the shortest, it is obviously the most important stage of the training.

(b) Interim Assessments: During any training programme, which has duration of more than one day, it is essential that a continuous check on progress is made. This might be in the form of tests, testing activities or observation and must be related to the material, which has preceded the interim point. A major danger is that reviews of this nature might show that some material might need to be repeated or reinforced this will demand extra time and resources.

17. End of Course Validation and Action Planning: The end of course validation must be linked to objectives and related to the tests etc, made at the start of the event. In this way the extent and level of change can be assessed. The assessment can be in the tests, observed actions, testing activities or realistic questionnaires (the latter must not be allowed to degenerate into 'happiness' sheets). A supporting activity which will continue the learning into the world of work is the action planning by the learner's contracts on what they intend to implement from their learning.

18. A Line Manager's De-briefing: The interview session between the line manager and the learner immediately following the training is even more essential than the pre-course briefing. It is during their sessions that line managers demonstrate their willingness to help the learners implement their action plans.

19. Review of Validated -Training: If concrete forms of training validation are employed, they must be analysed to assess whether or not the training has fulfilled its objectives, or what changes may be necessary to make it more effective. Too often, end of course validation measures are given a perfunctory glance then filed away.

16. Medium and Longer-term Evaluation: The three/six/twelve month follow ups with the learners and their line managers, looking at whether the learning is still being applied, give a measure of evaluation of the learning activity as a whole. Training has little value if its lessons are not applied, but application must ensure that the individual and the organization are working at a more effective level.

16.4 Assessment of Training Effectiveness

Assessing the effectiveness of training is the 'bottom line' of the SAT. It is the end of the road and the point when we have to ask whether the costly investment in analysing needs, designing and providing training has been justified by the results, i.e., the effects on work performance. In practice two kinds of assessment are needed individual and organizational. The information gained from the diagnosis not only comments on the soundness of the investment, it also provides feedback for any necessary modifications.

In assessing the effectiveness of individual training there are two main occasions when it is necessary to take stock, i.e. On the completion of training to determine whether training objectives have been achieved, and after a lapse of time following the completion of training in order to determine whether training has had the required effect on actual work performance.

The assessment of the effectiveness of training for individuals must be carried out jointly by trainers, trainees and the line managers. Moreover, it must be done by formal, scheduled arrangements as an essential system in the SAT, which is systematically linked to the definition of requirements for effective performance of work and to training objectives. Without a precise definition of learning that has to be demonstrated, what basis can there be for assessing the effect of training on work-performance?

There are two sources of information for assessing the effectiveness of training of individuals, i.e., tests designed to measure learning achievement as objectively as possible, and subjective opinions. The judgment can only be made after experience of actual work and there it can only depend on the subjective opinions of line-managers.

Apart from the evidence of objective tests both trainers and trainees will have opinions about the value of training. Such opinions are subjective and therefore, limited. On formal central courses it is a well-known phenomenon for course camaraderie to develop and an end-of-course euphoria, which clouds more sober judgments. People may leave a course aware of an enjoyable experience, but not very sure about what they have learned or of its possible usefulness. Nevertheless, the end of- course exchange of opinions by trainers and trainees at central courses is important, but needs to be structured to produce the maximum benefit. Trainees must analyse the course in terms of their own needs and objectives, and assess what they think they have learned and its potential value to their future work. Central trainers need to make a careful note of trainee's comments to compare with comments made about previous courses and to take account of any strong consensus of views, when making modifications to training design and provision.

When trainees return to their work on the completion of a central training course, there also needs to be a constructive, systematic discussion with their line managers. The main purpose of this discussion is to ascertain the trainees' views of training, but especially to plan how line management may help their staff to develop through their jobs the knowledge and skills that they have learned in training. It is a very demotivating experience for trainees to return to work from a central or external training course with an awareness of their needs for improvement and stimulated to put their new learning into practice. Only to be ignored and sometimes even discouraged by the attitudes of their line managers.

The Second stage in the assessment of training effectiveness for individuals after a lapse of time, it is very easy after a lapse of time, when people are caught up once more in the toils of work, to forget about recent training. A formal system is essential, therefore, to impose the necessary discipline for action and to standardize organization practice. This assessment is of particular concern to line-managers and ex-trainees and should be automatically included in a formal scheme for performance appraisal. When the training is provided centrally or externally, it is also very important for the training staff to receive feedback. The questions to which answers are needed are:

- (1) How far has training met the specific needs of work for which it was designed?
- (2) What changes need to be made, if any, in future training, i.e.,
 - (a) Was any material included that has subsequently proved to be of limited or of no value?
 - (b) Was any material omitted that has subsequently proved necessary?
 - (c) How appropriate were the training methods for learning purpose?
 - (d) What changes, if any, need to be made and what should they be?

There are mainly three ways by which central and external trainees may obtain the information they need, i.e.

- (1) By sending questionnaires to all former trainees and their line-managers.
- (2) By visiting a sample cross-section of former trainees and their line-managers for direct discussion at their places of work.
- (3) By holding short (e.g., 1-2 day) conferences of former trainees for a collective comparison of post-training experience and assessment of trainings ultimate effectiveness.

There is very important postscript that has to be made to the discussion of the final stage of assessing training effectiveness for individuals. Judgments can only be made after a lapse of time, when line-managers and former trainees have gained some perspective about work performance after training. However, the fact a lapse of time is necessary at once eliminates the possibility of pure assessment. In the interval between the end of training and the point of assessment other influences will inevitably affect work performance for better or for worse, e.g., personal problems, managerial styles, working methods and conditions etc., there are many factors both inside and outside work, some hidden from view and not measurable, which may affect behaviour. The influence of training over a period of time cannot, therefore, be isolated as a single measurable factor.

The training could organize through the following:

- a) a well-structured course
- b) placement in an institution
- c) workshop
- d) seminar
- e) mentoring

In addition to a structured training course, placement, workshops, seminars and conferences would also become instruments of training, with reference to orientation of a functionary to a particular programme or field of activity. Mentoring is another form of training and development often used in India.

A Fully Structured Training Programme

The system of structuring a training programme is derived from the formal education system. It is therefore; a more commonly used form of training. In the structured training programme, the syllabus and the daily programme schedule are drawn by the training institution as they consider relevant to the needs of the trainees and different topics are covered under a stipulated time frame. Such courses are generally planned well in advance, where the experts also share their views and experiences with the trainees on different topics. Even in structured training programmes, the programmes schedule may be discussed with the trainees after registration and initial orientation, so that the personal group needs of the trainees could be taken into consideration while delivery of the programme. Accordingly, there may be changes in the programme schedule. Some new

topics may be added, while some topics may be deleted or modified. This may also involve adding some names to the list of guest faculty. Changes in respect of observational visits, practical, and field work may also be necessitated.

Drawbacks

1. The emphasis of the programme is mainly on dissemination of information.
2. The contents of the programme are to be rigidly followed.
3. There is only one trainer responsible for the programme that may be called Course/Programme Director.
4. Sometimes, the trainers do not possess adequate training or expertise in using innovative methods and aids relevant to training situations.
5. Several outside conventional resource persons, are invited in the programme for short durations. It becomes difficult for them to dovetail their expertise to suit the requirements of training programmes.
6. Adequate importance is not accorded to self-awareness and attitudes of the trainees in the training programme.
7. Facilities for practical and field visits are not always available.
8. Coverage of the syllabus during a specified time becomes the most important objective for the training institutions.

Semi-structured Training Programme-

A semi-structured training programme is formulated with basic assumptions that necessary changes are made as and when required based on the needs of the trainees. Although effort is made in the beginning of the course, "to consult" the trainees, let it appears to be only a formality. Immediately after a trainee registers himself/herself, he/she is not in a position to react to the - training programme to the extent necessary. Therefore, this kind of semi-structured programme is also not very effective.

In this approach, it will be useful to develop and finalize the programme schedule along with the trainees. However, there may be difference of opinion, particularly if the group is heterogeneous. The other method would be to start with a structured programme which is in the nature of orientation to the subject. Later, when the participants are fully acquainted with the training exercises, they could be consulted for developing the training schedule/model. However, proper leadership of the trainer of the course/programme director is very important in this regard.

Unstructured Training Programme

The unstructured training programme is a very recent innovation in training technology. However, this is the most difficult method of training. This model calls for maturity and necessary skills by the trainees. Under the model, the trainees themselves structure the day-to-day programme, as there is pre-structured programme. The trainers have to do considerable hard work in a programme since as they play a crucial role. However, the

objectives of the programme must be very clear both to the trainers and the trainees. Before the trainees are involved in the planning of the programme, it should be made known to them what the organizers intend to ultimately achieve through an unstructured training programme. It may be remembered that an unstructured training programme can be organized only if a group is manageable from the point of view of a number of participants or trainees. It calls for tremendous initiative, innovation and hard work on the part of the trainees in mobilizing the resources in terms of manpower, teaching methods, teaching aids, reading material, practical, field work, placement, etc.

Prerequisites of an Unstructured Programme

- i. The trainers should possess sufficient maturity, experience and skills.
- ii. The objective of the programme is clear to the trainees as well as the trainers.
- iii. The organizers and the trainees are prepared to explore and venture into innovative areas.
- iv. Necessary resources are made available to the group as and when the programme develops at a short notice.
- v. The trainers have a sense of patience and an attitude of wait and watch.
- vi. The trainers are prepared to forego wastage of resources in an unstructured programme.

Other forms of Training

The job of in-service training or refresher courses may be structured for class room type of instructions, while orientation courses may be in the nature of a seminar or a conference or a workshop. Seminar or a workshop is a method of training which is utilized for orientation of the senior officers who are unable to take advantage of long duration classroom training programmes. Apart from classroom type of training courses with practical or field visits, there are other types of training such as on the job training or apprenticeship. A detailed description of these is given below. From the point of view of its relationship with job performance and time sequence in the career of a person the training is of different kinds.

Pre-service Training

Pre-service training is generally in the nature of university level professional education or specialized training for persons before they are appointed in different jobs. By and large, pre service training is organized by the universities and other professional and technical institutions of learning such as schools of social work, home science colleges, and medical colleges. The difference between pre-service and in-service training is that the latter is organized after a person is duly recruited and offered a job. As a prerequisite for the job, he/she undergoes in service training .or op the job training. Pre-service training is in the nature of education given to a person for a specific job, so that he stands in a queue along with others to compete for a job on Effective the basis of pre-service training. This pre-service training may be organized as part of the regular curriculum of universities or may be done by government, voluntary and academic institutions. An in-service training

programme is of specified duration. The idea is that during the training period, the trainee is able to acquire necessary skills for his job in the organization. In fact, an in-service training programme is conceived because the personnel who are recruited do not necessarily have the background to discharge their role and responsibilities in job situations. If the pre-service training was insisted upon, in-service training of a shorter duration could be some kind of orientation to the job in the organization. The duration of the training programme varies from organization to organization and between person to person.

Induction Vs. In-service Training

Sometimes, there is confusion between induction training and in-service training as many do not see any difference between the two. The UN Handbook of Training in Public Services says "in service training of public employees may be distinguished from the pre-entry preparation by reference to two tests, namely, the time at which the training is given and the nature and content of instruction." A suitable distinction is also necessary between in-service and job training. For every job, certain minimum educational and professional qualifications are required in addition to some minimum field experience. Therefore, even if the person is fully qualified by virtue of educational professional background he/she would require some training and field experience which in other words could mean orientation to the job understanding the objectives, contents, organizational structure, budgeting pattern, funding system, monitoring evaluation of the programme on which she/he has to function. On the job training which requires the person to carry out all duties and responsibilities is synonymous with in-service training. Therefore, there is difference pertaining to details between the induction training and in-service training. These cannot be planned in the same manner and at the same time.

Refresher Training Course

The basic purpose of a development-oriented programme for which in-service or job-training courses are designed is for imparting development information which may take place in the fields. The refresher course is to be organized only for those who had the opportunity of being exposed to the job or in-service training course. Quite often, the refresher course is misconceived as a capsule job-training course. The refresher courses should not only review the various skills and methods used as trainers but also need to deal with new skills and new functions which are relevant to the job. Refresher training also helps in revising the syllabus of the training. ideally, the refresher course should be of a duration ranging from one week to ten days depending upon the level of the person. In a refresher course, training methods are innovative in nature. Generally, there is emphasis on job-oriented practical training.

Orientation Programme

An orientation programme is conducted for workers before they are put on the job in which they are given orientation in a particular field or activity. In other words, the orientation is to the job and the field situation to which workers are going to be exposed. For instance, a child care worker who has the requisite qualifications, M.Sc. (Child Development), M.S.W. (Family and Child welfare), could be given orientation to the

programme of child development in which he/she is going to be placed. The orientation programme pre-supposes that the person has the knowledge and the skills of the subject matter. An orientation programme may be generally of one week's duration.

Seminar - Workshop

Other informal forms of training and seminars and workshops covering a particular topic or issue but not the whole field of activity. Such techniques are useful and are taken advantage of by senior policy-makers, board members, officers, planners and professionals who because of age, lack of spare time, motivation and other reasons are unable to participate in formal training programmes.

Other Forms of Training

These cover the following areas:

- i. Attitude or personal development training
- ii. Skill training, and
- iii. Field training

Such training programmes of innovative nature are organized by a limited number of training agencies which have sufficient experience in these areas. There are a number of other activities, of significant training value, which can be organized or encouraged within an agency possibly with the help of training establishments. These activities include:

- i. Broadening experience for members of staff whose experience in an organization has been largely restricted to a specialized field and who may need exposure to a number of departments.
- ii. Individual or group projects - these call for carrying out of a specific well defined task, either by one individual operating in different sections or departments or by a group drawn from several departments dealing with a common problem. Project work has proved to be a valuable alternative to departmental attachments, but it should always be carefully planned and supervised. The results should also be discussed fully with the participants. A project is often useful as a means of & practising recently acquired techniques in real situations.
- iii. Participation in meetings, conferences and lectures both within the organization and as part of the activities of professional Institutions. These are valuable as a means of keeping abreast with new ideas and developing standards of comparison.
- iv. Short courses, discussions or talks within the organizations on subjects relevant to the job.

16.5 Summary

Thus, training can be accomplished through many methods and techniques. However, the choice of required method or combination of methods varies from institution keeping in view the knowledge and aptitude of trainees, the time allowed and the training equipment available, and the nature of the job to be taught. The study reveals that training methods adopted by In-House Training Institutions/Departments of Central Public Enterprises are largely confined to lecture-method, lecture-discussion method. Case studies and syndicates only in one or two cases training 5s accomplished through seminars and group exercises.

During the course of discussion, the training personnel of these institutions expressed the opinion that the above methods are favoured with a view to make the training job related, specific actual job needs and easy to measure and evaluate. They appeared to have an open mind with regard to the use of other training methods discussed above. Successful application of other methods of training requires the assignment of specialists or instructors, programme facilitators, seminar and workshop designers, T-group, sensitivity training experts to these in-house training establishments. It is hoped that in course of time, managements of these training establishments will assume greater responsibility to train and retrain public sector personnel by making extensive use of all well established training methods to enable employees to learn for possible future

16.6 Self Assessment Questions

1. Why the designing of training programmes is important for organizations?
2. Briefly Explain the Perspectives for Designing Training Programmes.
3. What are the influencing factors in Building a Training Design?
4. What do you mean by Organizing Training programmes in various manners? Explain with examples.
5. What are the steps in developing a Training Programme?
6. What do you mean by fully structured Training Programme?

16.7 Reference Books

- Goldstein, I. (1989). Training and Development in Organizations. Published by Jossey- bass, Ulrich, David Human Resource Champions: The Next Agenda for Adding Value and Delivering Result
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- G. Pandu Naik, Training and Development: Text, Research and Cases, Excel Books, 2007

Unit – 17 : Training Need Assessment

Structure of Unit

- 17.0 Objectives
- 17.1 Introduction
- 17.2 Concept
- 17.3 Objectives for Need Assessment
- 17.4 Need Assessment Process
- 17.5 Summary
- 17.6 Self Assessment Questions
- 17.7 Reference Books

17.0 Objectives

After Completing this unit you would be able to:

- Understand the concept Training need assessment;
- Understand the reasons, purpose and objectives for Training need assessment;
- Learn the process of Training need assessment;
- know about the types of analysis for need assessment;
- Learn about methods of Training need assessment;
- Know about advantages and disadvantages of training need assessment methods.

17.1 Introduction

Designing a training and development program involves a sequence of steps that can be grouped into five phases: needs assessment, instructional objectives, design, implementation and evaluation. To be effective and efficient, all training programs must start with a needs assessment. Long before any actual training occurs, the training manager must determine the who, what, when, where, why and how of training. The purpose of a training needs assessment is to identify performance requirements and the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed by an agency's workforce to achieve the requirements. An effective training needs assessment will help direct resources to areas of greatest demand. The assessment should address resources needed to fulfil organizational mission, improve productivity, and provide quality products and services. A needs assessment is the process of identifying the "gap" between performance required and current performance. When a difference exists, it explores the causes and reasons for the gap and methods for closing or eliminating the gap. A complete needs assessment also considers the consequences for ignoring the gaps.

17.2 Concept

“**Training Needs Assessment**” (TNA) is the method of determining if a training need exists and, if it does, what training is required to fill the gap. TNA seeks to identify accurately the levels of the present situation in the target surveys, interview, observation, secondary data and/or workshop. The gap between the present status and desired status may indicate problems that in turn can be translated into a training need.

Training Needs = Desired Capability – Current Capability of the Participants

TNA is also the process of collecting information about an expressed or implied organizational need that could be met by conducting training. The need can be a performance that does not meet the current standard. It means that there is a prescribed or best way of doing a task and that variance from it is creating a problem. The TNA process helps the trainer and the person requesting training to specify the training need or performance deficiency. Assessments can be formal (using survey and interview techniques) or informal (asking some questions of those involved).

The first step in building a training course is identifying the needs of our target participants. The documents in this category provide a variety of ideas for conducting a needs assessment. We include sample needs assessment surveys to illustrate how they can be used at this stage of the training process. An in-depth Key Informant Guide can be used as is or adapted to your own needs. There is also a tool on needs and needs assessment and viewing your findings within a broader environmental context, e.g., from local to global.

17.3 Objectives for Need Assessment

17.3.1 Why Training Need Assessment?

There are four main reasons why needs analysis must be done before training programs are developed.

1. To identify specific problem areas in the organization. HR and management must know what the problems are so that the most appropriate training (if training is the answer) will be directed to those organizational problems. For example, if a manager approached the HR department with a request for a communications program, too often the trainer's response (eager to serve management) will be to proceed to look around for a good communications program and conduct training without conducting a needs assessment first. This approach will inevitably fail. Nodding their heads appreciatively, everyone says "That was a good program," but when they go back to their departments, work proceeds as usual because the training was not directed to the real needs of the participants. The proper response should have been, "Yes, but let us start by taking a look at the situation. We will talk to a few people to find out what the problems are. Then when we develop the program, we can zero in on a specific situation, rather than just use a random approach."
2. To obtain management support. Management usually thinks training is a "nice thing to do." This stance can be laid directly at the doorstep of a poor (or nonexistent) needs assessment. The way to obtain management support is to make certain that the training directly affects what happens in that manager's department. Trainers should view themselves the same way that management does, making a direct contribution to the bottom line. Management will be committed to training when HR can show that it clearly improves performance on the job. As a result, training programs and budgets will not be the first things cut or trimmed.

3. To develop data for evaluation. Unless information on needs is developed prior to conducting training, the evaluations that take place after the program may not be valid. In conducting a needs analysis first, trainers can measure the effectiveness of a program.
4. To determine the costs and benefits of training. Training is usually looked upon as a nuisance rather than a contribution to the bottom line of the organization. This happens when trainers fail to develop a cost-benefit analysis for the training they conduct.

The major question trainers need to address in cost-benefit analysis is “What is the difference between the costs of no training versus the cost of training?” This entails finding out what the costs (out-of-pocket, salary, lost productivity, etc) would be if the need continues without being met. Next, an analysis must be made of the cost of conducting the training program that can change the situation. The difference between these two factors will usually tell both the trainer and manager whether or not the training should be conducted.

Human Resource (HR) professionals and line managers also need to be aware that training is not the “cure all” for organizational problems. Neither should it be used as a tool to reward excellent performance or as motivation to correct poor performance. The purpose of training is to support the achievement of organization’s goals by increasing the necessary skills of its employees.

Training is appropriate when your organization can be expected to gain more benefit from the training than it invested in its cost. The value of any training investment to the organization must rely on the vision and judgment of line supervisors and managers. You may authorize training to build skills and knowledge levels that help employees better contribute to your organizational mission(s). In some cases, the need is immediate and the training remedial; in other cases, the aim is to update and maintain professional knowledge; and in still others the goal is to prepare for requirements anticipated by higher level officials.

The following factors might indicate training or development needs of the employees:

A. Development of employee/management skills to fill a current need

- Trainee or intern training plans
- Reduction in Force (RIF) placements
- New Employees
- New supervisors
- Managerial competency assessments
- Reassignments
- Promotions

B. Employee relations/organizational problems

- Performance problems
- Production problems
- Safety problems
- Inspection deficiencies

C. Meet changing needs

- New technology
- New equipment or programs
- Modernization of equipment
- Mission changes
- Laws and regulations

D. Career Development

- Employees' requests
- Career enhancement plans

17.3.2 The Objective for Conducting Needs Assessment

Identifying training needs for your employees requires careful scrutiny of mission objectives, personnel, production, raw materials, costs, and other factors. The training requirements you identify factor into the total training budget forecasted for your organization and your installation, and impacts on the amount of funds that are allocated by senior management.

Conducting a needs assessment is useful in identifying organizational goals and its effectiveness in achieving these goals. Gaps or discrepancies between employee skills and the skills required for effective job performance.

In addition to providing a clear direction for identifying training needs, a needs analysis also serves as basis for evaluating the effectiveness of the training program. On completion of the analysis, you have a basis for comparison. In the absence of a needs analysis, training results are usually subjective and might not be attributable to the training.

Implementing and developing training programs can be expensive, so it makes sense to analyze training needs at the onset, so training can be tailored to focus on specific needs and withstand evaluation after training.

Training needs assessments are typically done by one of several organizations or persons supporting the organization. Sort of in order chronologically you've got the employer, a learning institution (such as a community college), and of course, last but not least, the trainer. As an example, the employer might have engineered a new process or be rolling out a new product. As they are in the preparation phase, one area that will likely be

identified is training. Someone will ask or mention, “Hey, what about the employees’ training needs?” Then the employer might start to put together a training program based on those needs.

The employer might be considering several elements for the training. If it’s a new process, then the employees need training in the proper and safe operation of the process. The EHS Manager might also identify other health and safety issues such as process safety management. Someone might mention maintenance of the system, in which case lockout/ tag out would also be identified as a training need.

Learning institutions like a community college might be involved. The employer might contact their local community college (who is recognized in the community as obviously being specialized in teaching) and ask them to assist in this identification of learning and training needs. For instance the community college might assist by performing a task analysis of the various steps necessary to work on the new process. They might conduct an anonymous education survey of the employees to assess the prevailing levels of literacy and math skills. They might perform a nominal group process (like a think tank or “focus group”, but for training needs) on the sales force.

To reiterate, training needs assessments are the entire basis for the training – without a training needs assessment you have no idea if you’re even doing the right training, for the right reasons, and creating the right learning objectives. It all “flows” out of or from the training needs assessment. It’s a step that really cannot be skipped. It’s the very first step in creating the training – without it, there is no second step.

Unfortunately training needs assessments are perhaps the most frequently omitted step in training development. Clearly they’re a vital part of training design but why aren’t they often done? It is believed it’s because many employers aren’t well versed in the science and practice of training and many folks who perform training don’t have a formal background in it. They’ve been “promoted” into it.

Training needs assessments can be done in house or done by outside trainers. Let’s say that you’re an in-house trainer, meaning a trainer who trains the employees of the company that he or she works for. They work where the employees work, and see what the employees see. They can go out into the workplace and analyze the tasks, interview the workers, talk with the Supervisors, the engineers, etc. They can then analyze all of the data and use this data to assess their training needs.

An outside trainer or consultant doesn’t have the luxury of working with the employees on a daily basis. Then there’re a couple of things needed. First, ask the client if a training needs assessment has been performed. Ask this in terms that are more easily understood by the average non-trainer, because they may not know what a training needs assessment is. For example, “Have you looked at the tasks to determine exactly what training needs there are yet?” Such an approach to questioning sounds like you’re basically telling the client that this is a necessary step even if they haven’t done it yet. Then as a consultant, you’re going to have it done for them. More typically however, they’ve identified some sort of training need, like Hazard Communication.

17.4 Need Assessment Process

17.4.1 Levels of Need Analysis

A thorough needs analysis examines training needs on three levels:

Organizational Analysis

Organizational analysis examines where training is needed in the organization and under what conditions the training will be conducted. It identifies the knowledge, skills, and abilities that employees will need for the future as the organization and their job evolves or changes.

Analysis of HR data can indicate areas where training could improve performance. For example, departments or divisions with high turnover, high rates of absenteeism, poor performance, or other problems can be tagged. After a thorough analysis, training objectives can be determined and the appropriate training developed. An organizational needs analysis may also deal with employee grievances, customer complaints, quality control issues, accident records and so on. HR and line management also need to anticipate and plan for changes. Three such changes that should be carefully considered are:

Future Skill Needs: How is your organization changing? Examples of situations that will affect planning for training needs on the organizational level include:

- Compliance with affirmative action plans. Affirmative action guidelines require HR and management to be aware of equal employment opportunity (EEO) regulations and understand compliance goals.
- Installation of new equipment. New equipment creates the urgent need to train employees so the new equipment can be running productively and safely.
- Changes in standards and procedures. Whenever performance standards or procedure changes, the need for new skills will occur.
- Working in a team environment. New interpersonal skills and decision making will be needed with this type of cultural change.

Changes in the Labor Pool. Organizations have to plan for adjustment as the labor pool changes. As more women, minorities, immigrants and older workers join the workforce, employers must plan how to accommodate employees' diverse needs and still get the job accomplished.

Changes in Laws and Regulations. Laws and regulations may dictate training needs.

The organizational analysis should identify:

- Environmental impacts
- State of the economy and the impact on operating costs.
- Changing work force demographics and the need to address cultural or language barriers.
- Changing technology and automation.

- Increasing global/world market places.
- Political trends such as sexual harassment and workplace violence.
- Organizational goals (how effective is the organization in meeting its goals), resources available (money, facilities; materials on hand and current, available expertise within the organization).
- Climate and support for training (top management support, employee willingness to participate, and responsibility for outcomes).

The information needed to conduct an organizational analysis can be obtained from a variety of sources including:

- **Organizational goals and objectives**, mission statements, strategic plans.
- **Staffing inventory**, succession planning, long and short term staffing needs.
- **Skills inventory**: both currently available and short and long term needs, organizational climate indices: labour/management relationships, grievances, turnover rates, absenteeism, suggestions, productivity, accidents, short term sickness, and observations of employee behavior, attitude surveys, and customer complaints.
- **Analysis of efficiency indices**: costs of labor, costs of materials, quality of products, equipment utilization, production rates, costs of distribution, waste, down time, late deliveries, and repairs.
- Changes in equipment, technology or automation.
- Annual report.
- Plans for reorganization or job restructuring.
- Audit exceptions; reward systems.
- Planning systems.
- Delegation and control systems.
- Employee attitudes and satisfaction.

Task Analysis

Task analysis begins with job requirements and compares employee knowledge and skills to determine training needs. Examining job descriptions and specifications provide necessary information on expected performance and the skills employees need to accomplish their work. Any gaps between performance and job requirements indicate a need for task training. A good task analysis identifies:

- Tasks that have to be performed.
- Conditions under which tasks are to be performed.
- How often and when tasks are performed.
- Quantity and quality of performance required.
- Skills and knowledge required to perform tasks.
- Where and how these skills are best acquired.

Task analysis provides data about a job or a group of jobs and the knowledge, skills, attitudes and abilities needed to achieve optimum performance.

There are a variety of sources for collecting data for a task analysis:

- ***Job description***-- A narrative statement of the major activities involved in performing the job and the conditions under which these activities are performed. If an accurate job description is not available or is out of date, one should be prepared using job analysis techniques.
- ***KSA analysis***-- A more detailed list of specified tasks for each job including Knowledge, Skills, Attitudes and Abilities required of incumbents.
- ***Performance standards***-- Objectives of the tasks of the job and the standards by which they will be judged. This is needed to identify performance discrepancies.
- ***Observe the job/sample the work and perform the job.***
- ***Job inventory questionnaire***-- Evaluate tasks in terms of importance and time spent performing.
- ***Review literature about the job***-- Research the "best practices" from other companies, review professional journals.
- ***Ask questions about the job***-- Of the incumbents, of the supervisor, of upper management.
- ***Analysis of operating problems***-- Down time, waste, repairs, late deliveries, quality control.

Individual Analysis

Individual Analysis targets individual employees and how they perform in their jobs. Using information or data from an employee's performance review in determining training program needs is the most common method. If an employee's review reveals deficiencies, training can be designed to help the employee meet the performance standard. Employees can also be surveyed, interviewed or tested to determine their training needs. They can indicate problems they have or provide recommendations to solve problems. These interviews can be conducted on an individual basis or in a group setting. Individual analysis analyzes how well the individual employee is doing the job and determines which employees need training and what kind.

Sources of information available for an individual analysis include:

- ***Performance evaluation*** -- Identifies weaknesses and areas of improvement.
- ***Performance problems*** -- Productivity, absenteeism or tardiness, accidents, grievances, waste, product quality, down time, repairs, equipment utilization, customer complaints.
- ***Observation*** -- Observe both behavior and the results of the behavior.
- ***Work samples*** -- Observe products generated.

- **Interviews** -- Talk to manager, supervisor and employee. Ask employee about what he/she believes he/she needs to learn.
- **Questionnaires** -- Written form of the interview, tests, must measure job-related qualities such as job knowledge and skills.
- **Attitude surveys** -- Measures morale, motivation, satisfaction.
- Checklists or training progress charts -- Up-to-date listing of current skills.

17.4.2 Conducting a Needs Analysis

In selecting which training needs analysis techniques to use, one requires answers to questions such as the following:

- 1 What is the nature of the problem being addressed by instruction?
- 2 How have training needs been identified in the past and with what results?
- 3 What is the budget for the analysis?
- 4 How is training needs analysis perceived in the organization?
- 5 Who is available to help conduct the training needs analysis?
- 6 What are the time frames for completing the exercise?
- 7 What will be the measure of a successful training needs analysis report?

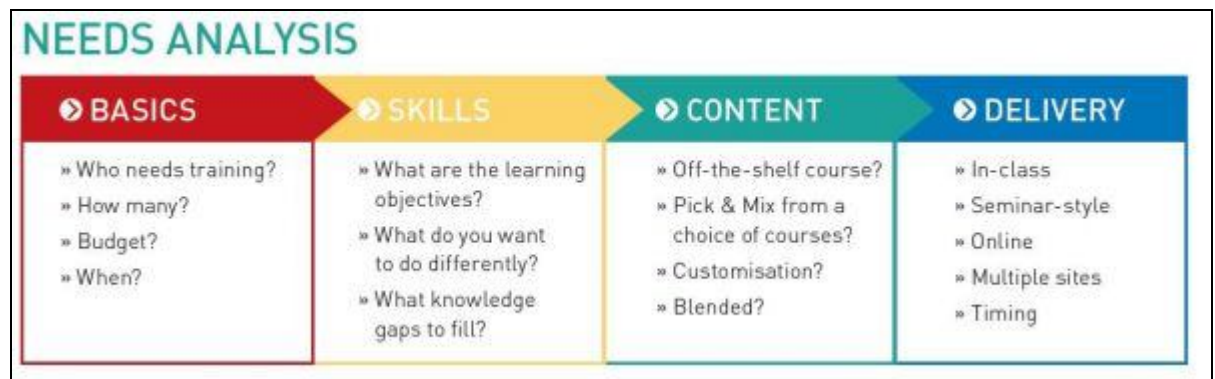


Figure 17.1

The time spent and the degree of formality will differ according to particular needs and the organization involved. There are, however, four basic steps:

1. Gather data to identify needs

This can be accomplished through:

- (i) Organisational requirements/weakness.
- (ii) Departmental requirements/weaknesses.
- (iii) Job specifications and employee specifications.
- (iv) Identifying specific problems.

- (v) Anticipating future problems.
- (vi) Management's requests.
- (vii) Observation.
- (viii) Interviews.
- (ix) Group conferences.
- (x) Questionnaire surveys.
- (xi) Test or examinations
- (xii) Check lists
- (xiii) Performance Appraisal

As illustrated in the chart below, each method has special characteristics that can affect both the kind and quality of the information obtained. For instance, an interview can reflect the interviewer's biases, while a questionnaire can have sampling biases if only a few participants return the survey. It is best to use more than one method to help validate the data as you can get different types of information from the different methods. For example, you can use questionnaires to gather facts and utilize follow-up interviews to delve more into why people answered questions the way they did.

Methods Used in Training Needs Assessment

Group or Organisational Analysis	Individual Analysis
Organisational goal and objectives	Performance appraisal
Personnel/ Skill inventories	Work Sampling
Organisational climate indices	Interviews
Efficiency indices	Questionnaires
Exist interviews	Attitude survey
MBO or work planning systems	Training progress
Quality circles	Rating scales
Customer survey/ satisfaction data	Observation of behaviour

It is also important to include persons from a cross section of the target employees for training. Sample people with varying experience levels, or you will not have a valid sample and training will only be effective for a certain part of the total population you targeted.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Needs Assessment Methods

	Method	Advantages	Disadvantages
Surveys / Questionnaires	May be in the form of surveys or polls of a random or stratified sample or an entire population. Can use a variety of question formats: Open-ended, projective, forced-choice, priority ranking.	Can reach a large number of people in a short time. Are inexpensive. Give opportunity of response without fear of embarrassment. Yield data easily summarized and reported.	Make little provision for free response. Require substantial time for development of effective survey or questionnaire. Do not effectively get at causes of problems or possible solutions.
Interviews	Can be formal or casual, structured or unstructured. May be used with a representative sample or whole group. Can be done in person, by phone, at the work site, or away from it.	Uncover attitudes, causes of problems, and possible solutions. Gather feedback; yield of data is rich. Allow for spontaneous feedback.	Are usually time-consuming. Can be difficult to analyze and quantify results. Need a skilful interviewer who can generate data without making interviewee self-conscious or suspicious.
Performance appraisals	May be conducted informally or systematically. Conducted by manager; appraisal developed by HR. Should be conducted on a regular basis and separately from merit discussions.	Indicate strengths and weakness in skills and identify training and development needs. Can also point out candidates for merit raises or promotions.	Can be costly to develop the system, implement the appraisals, and process the results. May enable managers to manipulate ratings to justify a pay raise. May invalidate the appraisal because of supervisor bias. May be prohibited for union employees.
Observations	Can be technical, functional, or behavioral. Can yield qualitative or quantitative feedback. May be unstructured.	Minimize interruption of routine work flow or group activity. Generate real-life data.	Requires a highly skilled observer with process and content knowledge. Allow data collection only in the work setting. May cause “spied on” feelings.

Tests	Can be functionally oriented to test a board, staff, or committee member's understanding. Can be administered in a monitored setting or "take home."	Can be helpful in determining deficiencies in terms of knowledge, skills, or attitudes. Easily quantifiable and comparable.	Must be constructed for the audience, and validity can be questionable. Do not indicate if measured knowledge and skills are actually being used on the job.
Assessment Centres	For management development. Require participants to complete a battery of exercises to determine areas of strength that need development. Assess potential by having people work in simulated management situations.	Can provide early identification of people with potential for advancement. More accurate than "intuition." Reduce bias and increase objectivity in selection process.	Selecting people to be included in the high-potential process difficult with no hard criteria available. Are time-consuming and costly to administer. May be used to diagnose developmental needs rather than high potential.
Focus groups / group discussion	Can be formal or informal. Widely used method. Can be focused on a specific problem, goal, task, or theme.	Allow interaction between viewpoints. Enhance "buy-in"; focus on consensus. Help group members become better listeners, analyzers, problem solvers.	Are time-consuming for both consultants and group members. Can produce data that is difficult to quantify.
Document reviews	Organizational charts, planning documents, policy manuals, audits, and budget reports. Include employee records (accidents, grievances, attendance, etc.). Also include meeting minutes, program reports, and memos.	Provide clues to trouble spots. Provide objective evidence or results. Can easily be collected and compiled.	Often do not indicate causes of problems or solutions. Reflect the past rather than the current situation. Must be interpreted by skilled data analysts.
Advisory Committees	Secure information from people who are in a position to know the training needs of a particular group. Supply data gathered from consultants by using techniques such as interviews, group discussions, and questionnaires.	Are simple and inexpensive. Permit input and interaction of a number of individuals with personal views of the group's needs. Establish and strengthen lines of communication.	Carry biased organizational perspective. May not represent the complete picture because the information is from a group that is not representative of the target audience.

2. Determine what need can be met by training and development?

If there is indication of performance deficiency, the next step is to determine what needs can be met by training and development. If the problems relate to employee relations such as poor morale, lack of motivation or inability to learn, training is *not* a solution. Human resource professionals who use training as a motivator misunderstand the purpose of training, which is simply to pass on missing skills and knowledge to employees who are willing and able to learn. Problems arising from non-training issues such as insufficient rewards or obsolete equipment can be identified and referred to management.

3. Proposing solutions

After determining that training is a potential solution, HR professionals will need to closely examine if formal training is the best way to meet the need. You might find that practice or feedback is all that is needed.

- **Practice** is useful a particular skill was taught but not used. For example, an employee might be trained in all aspects of a word-processing program but use only a small portion of those skills. If the job requires expansion of those skills, the employee may need time to review additional word processing material and practice using them.
- **Feedback** to employees concerning their work is critical in maintaining quality. Managers and supervisors need to periodically evaluate job performance and tell employees what they are doing correctly or incorrectly to avoid work skills diminishing. If an employee was not able to perform a certain skill, using an existing program to retrain or designing a new program may be the appropriate solution.

4. Identifying the Next Step

Once needs have been analyzed and identified, the next step is to develop the training proposal itself. It should spell out the need for training, the expected results, the people to be trained, and the expected consequences if training is not conducted. A key decision is whether to use an existing program or design a new training program.

We have seen that the rationale for developing a training program relies heavily on identifying training needs and justifying the costs and benefits to the organization. Without a clear understanding of needs, training efforts are at best randomly useful and at worst, useless. The trainer will only be successful and perceived as such to the extent that needs are carefully assessed and programs developed and carried out that meet those needs. The end result is a more precise picture of training needs, which can lead to a performance improvement, oriented training program and better results from training.

These assessments are done mostly one-on-one. But, there can be other components and help on it. Perhaps an assessment center might perform the educational needs assessment – say at a community college of the local adult education program. Here is a case example; there was a company starting a new line for a new product and they had to bring in a whole bunch of workers as laborers. In the available pool they had many who were not fluent in English. To make matters worse they weren't even literate in their own

language. And they had poor math skills as well. They did the assessment on each, developed an educational needs list, and brought in adult educators to help with basic adult ed and English as a Second Language.

To make the needs assessments bridge to learning objectives, the training needs basically become learning objectives or abilities that the worker/trainee will be able to do after the training. Just like in the introductory phrase of this paper and with all learning objectives – “At the end of this training, the student will be able to...” And then we list what the skills or abilities are that the learner should be able to accomplish. Taking the forklift example, the training need was that the workers had to be able to safely and proficiently drive a specific type of fork lift. At the end of the training, the worker will be able to demonstrate the safe operation of the fork lift with no driving errors. It is surprising how often learning objectives are either ill-prepared or not at all.

The results of the needs assessment allows the training manager to set the training objectives by answering two very basic questions: what needs to be done, and why is it not being done now? Then, it is more likely that an accurate identification of whom, if anyone, needs training and what training is needed. Sometimes training is not the best solution, and it is virtually never the only solution. Some performance gaps can be reduced or eliminated through other management solutions, such as communicating expectations, providing a supportive work environment, and checking job fit. These interventions also are needed if training is to result in sustained new behaviours needed to achieve new performance levels, for an individual, an occupation, or an entire organization.

Process of Need Assessment

Step 1. PERFORM A "GAP" ANALYSIS.

The first step is to check the actual performance of our organizations and our people against existing standards, or to set new standards. There are two parts to this:

- **Current situation:** We must determine the current state of skills, knowledge, and abilities of our current and/or future employees. This analysis also should examine our organizational goals, climate, and internal and external constraints.
- **Desired or necessary situation:** We must identify the desired or necessary conditions for organizational and personal success. This analysis focuses on the necessary job tasks/standards, as well as the skills, knowledge, and abilities needed to accomplish these successfully. It is important that we identify the critical tasks necessary, and not just observe our current practices. We also must distinguish our actual needs from our perceived needs, our wants. The difference the "gap" between the current and the necessary will identify our needs, purposes, and objectives. What are we looking for? Here are some questions to ask, to determine where HRD may be useful in providing solutions:
- **Problems or deficits.** Are there problems in the organization which might be solved by training or other HRD activities?

- **Impending change.** Are there problems which do not currently exist but are foreseen due to changes, such as new processes and equipment, outside competition, and/or changes in staffing?
- **Opportunities.** Could we gain a competitive edge by taking advantage of new technologies, training programs, consultants or suppliers?
- **Strengths.** How can we take advantage of our organizational strengths, as opposed to reacting to our weaknesses? Are there opportunities to apply HRD to these areas?
- **New directions.** Could we take a proactive approach, applying HRD to move our organizations to new levels of performance? For example, could team building and related activities help improve our productivity?
- **Mandated training.** Are there internal or external forces dictating that training and/or organization development will take place? Are there policies or management decisions which might dictate the implementation of some program? Are there governmental mandates to which we must comply?

Step 2. IDENTIFY PRIORITIES AND IMPORTANCE.

The first step should have produced a large list of needs for training and development, career development, organization development, and/or other interventions. Now we must examine these in view of their importance to our organizational goals, realities, and constraints. We must determine if the identified needs are real, if they are worth addressing, and specify their importance and urgency in view of our organizational needs and requirements. For example:

- **Cost-effectiveness:** How does the cost of the problem compare to the cost of implementing a solution? In other words, we perform a cost-benefit analysis.
- **Legal mandates:** Are there laws requiring a solution?
- **Executive pressure:** Does top management expect a solution?
- **Population:** Are many people or key people involved?
- **Customers:** What influence is generated by customer specifications and expectations?

If some of our needs are of relatively low importance, we would do better to devote our energies to addressing other human performance problems with greater impact and greater value.

Step 3. IDENTIFY CAUSES OF PERFORMANCE PROBLEMS AND/ OR OPPORTUNITIES.

Now that we have prioritized and focused on critical organizational and personal needs, we will next identify specific problem areas and opportunities in our organization. We must know what our performance requirements are, if appropriate solutions are to be applied. We should ask two questions for every identified need:

- Are our people doing their jobs effectively?
- Do they know how to do their jobs?

This will require detailed investigation and analysis of our people, their jobs, and our organizations -- both for the current situation and in preparation for the future.

Step 4. IDENTIFY POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS AND GROWTH OPPORTUNITIES.

If people are doing their jobs effectively, perhaps we should leave well enough alone. ("If it ain't broke, don't fix it.") However, some training and/or other interventions might be called for if sufficient importance is attached to moving our people and their performance into new directions. But if our people ARE NOT doing their jobs effectively: Training may be the solution, IF there is a knowledge problem and Organization development activities may provide solutions when the problem is not based on a lack of knowledge and is primarily associated with systematic change. These interventions might include strategic planning, organization restructuring, performance management and/or effective team building.

17.5 Summary

The purpose of a training needs assessment is to identify performance requirements or needs within an organization in order to help direct resources to the areas of greatest need, those that closely relate to fulfilling the organizational goals and objectives, improving productivity and providing quality products and services. The needs assessment is the first step in the establishment of a training and development Program. It is used as the foundation for determining instructional objectives, the selection and design of instructional programs, the implementation of the programs and the evaluation of the training provided. These processes form a continuous cycle which always begins with a needs assessment.

17.6 Self Assessment Questions

1. What is Training need assessment? Explain.
2. What are the purposes of training need assessment?
3. What are the objectives of training need assessment?
4. What are the analysis types for training need assessment? Describe briefly.
5. Explain the process of training need assessment.

17.7 Reference Books

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Unit - 18 : Methods of Training

Structure of Unit

- 18.0 Objectives
- 18.1 Introduction
- 18.2 Types of Training Methods
- 18.3 On the Job Training
- 18.4 Off the Job Training
- 18.5 Other Methods of Training
- 18.6 Management Development Programs
- 18.7 Summary
- 18.8 Self Assessment Questions
- 18.9 Reference Books

18 .0 Objectives

After going through this unit you will be able to understand:

- Different methods of training
- Different On the job techniques of training
- Different Off the job techniques of training
- Meaning of Management Development Programs

18.1 Introduction

After training needs and objectives have been determined and trainees and trainers have been selected, the next phase is to train the employees. It includes selection of content and methods to be used in the training and/or development method. A multitude of methods of training are used to train the HR. In many situations a combination of instructional methods can also be used.

18 .2 Types of Training Methods

Training methods or techniques are the medium of improving skills and imparting knowledge to the employees. Training methods and content may not be the same for different categories of employees. As such management has to train the employees of different categories in different areas and through different methods based the job analysis. Training methods and content for a few jobs are discussed hereunder with a view to giving an idea to the reader.

Supervisory Training

Supervisors mostly learn to supervise under the guidance of a manager. Hence, the emphasis should be on the on-the-job training methods. These methods can be supplemented by various off-the-job training methods. Course content of training to this category include: production control, organization methods, work/activity control, method study, time study, job evaluation, company policies and practices, personnel policies, procedures, programmes, training the subordinate, grievance handling, disciplinary procedure, communication, effective inspection, report writing, performance appraisal, personnel records, dealing with absenteeism, labor turn-over, industrial and labor laws, leadership qualities etc.

Sales Training

Emphasis should be towards on-the-job as well as off-the-job training methods in training the sales personnel. Course content include job knowledge, organizational knowledge, knowledge about the company products, Customers, competitors, sales administration procedures, law concerning sales, special skills like prospecting, making presentations, handling, objections, closing the sales etc., employee attitudes such as loyalty to the company and trust in the company products, understanding and tolerance with regard to potential and existing customers.

Clerical Training

Emphasis may be given on the off-the-job training in training the clerical personnel. The training content includes organization and methods, company policies, procedures and programmes, background knowledge of the company, forms, reports, written communication, clerical aptitude, maintaining ledgers, records etc

Clerical Training

Emphasis may be given on the off-the-job training in training the clerical personnel. The training content includes organization and methods, company policies, procedures and programmes, background knowledge of the company, forms, reports, written communication, clerical aptitude, maintaining ledgers, records etc.

Table 18.1 given below represents list of training methods that are commonly used along with their ranking based on effectiveness. More the rank 1(More No. of Y), more effective the rank is.

	Orientation of New Recruits, Developing Familiarity with innovations in Product and Services	Training to develop specialized Skills	Safety Training	Training to Develop Creative, Technical skills and Imparting Professional Education	Training to Impart Administrative, Supervisory and Managerial Education
<i>On the job Methods</i>					
Orientation training	Y	N	N	N	N
Job instruction training	Y	Y	N	N	N
Apprentice training	Y	Y	N	N	N
Internships and assistantship	N	Y	N	Y	Y
Job Rotation	Y	N	N	N	Y
Coaching	N	Y	Y	Y	Y
<i>Off the job methods</i>					
Vestibule	Y	Y	N	N	N
lecture	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Special Study	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Films	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Television	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Conference or Discussion	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
Case Study	N	N	N	N	Y
Role Playing	N	N	N	Y	N
Simulation	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Programmed Instructions	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Laboratory Training	N	N	Y	Y	N

Table 18.1 Training Methods

18 .3 On-the-Job Training

It is the most widely used method of training (formal and informal). It is observed that more than 60 percent of the industrial training occurs on the job. The employee is shown the manner in which the job is to be performed and the tricks of the trade at the work site are taught by an experienced trainer or the supervisor. This training method is apparently simple and relatively less costly, but it may suffer from three major drawbacks:

- (1) the lack of a well-structured training environment
- (2) poor training skills of managers
- (3) the absence of well-defined job performance criteria.

Therefore, if it is not handled properly the costs may escalate, machinery may get damaged during demonstration, dissatisfaction among the customers, forms may be misfiled, and safety hazards may be created or may result in poorly taught workers. To prevent these problems, trainers must be carefully selected and trained. The trainee should be placed with a trainer who is similar in background and personality. The trainer should be motivated for training and rewarded for doing it well. The trainer should use effective and compatible techniques while instructing the trainees. Different On the job training techniques are follows:

18 .3.1 Job Instruction Training (JIT) Methods

An approach to systematic on-the-job training is the job instruction training (JIT) system developed during World War II and since then continues to be a standard in evaluating OJT. It is a behavioral strategy that focuses on skill development.

In this system, the trainers first train the supervisors, who in turn train the employees. JIT includes four steps – prepare, present tryout and follow-up. The instructions given to supervisors on how to train new or present employees are as follows:

Preparation for Job Instruction Training (JIT) Method

1. Decide what the learner must be taught in order to do the job efficiently, economically, safely, and intelligently.
2. Have the right tools, equipment, supplies, and material ready.
3. Have the workplace properly arranged, just as the worker will be expected to keep it.

Then, you should instruct the learner by the following four basic steps:

Step I-Prepare (learner)

1. The learner should be put at ease.
2. Inquire what he or she already knows about the job.
3. Make the trainee interested and desirous of learning the job.

Step II-Present (Operations and Knowledge)

1. Tell, show, demonstrate, and explain in order to put over the new knowledge and operations.
2. Instruct slowly, clearly, completely, and patiently, one point at a time.
3. Ask, question, and repeat.
4. Ensure the learner really knows.

Step III-Performance Tryout

1. Evaluate the learner by having him or her perform the job.
2. Interrogate with why, how, when, or where.
3. Observe performance, identify and correct errors, and guide if necessary.
4. Continue until you know that the learner knows.

Step IV-Follow-Up

1. Let the employee perform on his or her own.
2. Ensure if the learner follows instructions.
3. Supervision and close follow-up until the person is equipped to work with normal supervision.

Training individuals to handle complaints and questions is done on the job in a number of firms. For example, General Electric (GE), and other BPOs train customer service operators on the job so that the realism of listening, thinking, and responding on the spot hits home. Each trainee is made to handle about 100 calls a day, each one lasting about few minutes. Communication and telephone skills are observed and critiqued. Exxon Mobil Oil has also adopted on-the-job training approach to achieve excellence among engineers in the exploration and producing division. It believes that the most significant development of an engineer takes place on the job. Thus, competence and expertise are accomplished through

- Offering challenging assignments.
- Presence of role models.
- Timely and comprehensive coaching.

These features were incorporated in Exxon Mobil's Leadership Development Program (LDP), through which over 2000 employees have been trained.

18.3.2 Apprenticeship Training

Another form of OJT is apprenticeship training. Apprenticeship is an age-old way of learning something new that has proven successful over the centuries. With this method, individuals entering organization, particularly in the skilled trades such as mechanist, laboratory technician, and electrician, are given thorough instruction and experience, in the practical and theoretical aspects of the work. In general an apprentice program includes two years of on the job experience and 180 hours of classroom instructions. For example, a heavy machinery manufacturing company provides employees both a strong technical foundation in the fundamentals of mechanics and a hands-on ability to operate the machinery within the plant. Ford Motor Company use apprenticeship programs

extensively for their engineers. Apprenticeship churns out a highly skilled and diverse workforce. Apprenticeship offers several unique benefits:

- An employee can "earn while learning" - making a living wage with healthcare, retirement, and other benefits while learning skills in a trade.
- Wages increase progressively as the employee becomes more skilled by learning the trade both in the classroom and working under the guidance of an experienced worker on the job site.
- After completion of an apprenticeship program, employee becomes skilled to handle job independently. Apprenticeship is one of the best ways to acquire work experience and training in initial stage of a job.

Apprenticeship programs are guided and controlled by the Apprenticeship Act and Department of Labor but Apprenticeship programs usually bring in new apprentices only when there are enough jobs to keep all apprentices working. Some trades accept applications only at certain times of the year. In order to make Apprenticeship training effective local government agencies should be checked regarding program availability. Apprenticeship is a rewarding but it requires determination, commitment, attitude, and physical conditioning to succeed. But the trainees who meet the challenges of apprenticeship may get substantial rewards.

18.3.3 Orientation training (on boarding)

Orientation training introduces newly appointed employees to the organization, the job, and their co-workers. It begins the socialization process for new employees, helping them to get introduced with the organization, its operations and values. Orientations can be short (1/2 or 1 day) or much longer (a week with periodic meetings for months thereafter). The term "on boarding" is generally used to define the longer or more in-depth orientations. Why spend time and money on an orientation? New employees will eventually learn about all the aspects of their job whether an orientation program exists or not.

To get new employees off to a good start, organizations generally offer a formal orientation program. Orientation is the formal process of familiarizing new employees with the organization, their jobs, and their work units. According to learning theory new information is interpreted and understood by an individual in the context of what is already known. Hence, the best performing companies recognize that providing new employees with the information they 'need' to understand the company and its expectations is a good investment. The new employee is initially nervous about the new organization and job and is excited about what is in store for him.

The first impression of the organization will be lasting, and it is important to orchestrate it in a manner that creates all the images and impressions that will enhance the commitment and effectiveness of the employee towards the company. The more time and effort spent in helping new employees feel welcome, the more likely they are to identify with the organization and become valuable members of it. These relationships are vital to

the socialization of new employees and contribute significantly to their long-term success within the organization

The HR department ordinarily is responsible for coordinating orientation activities. In order to make immediate and lasting impact of orientation programs, careful planning-with emphasis on program goals, topics to be covered, and methods of organizing and presenting them-is essential. In many cases, organizations devise checklists for use by those responsible for conducting the orientation so that no item of importance to employees is overlooked. The checklist would include such things as (1) an introduction to other employees, (2) an outline of training, (3) expectations for attendance, conduct, and appearance, (4) the conditions of employment, such as hours and pay periods, (5) an explanation of job duties, standards, and appraisal criteria, (6) safety regulations, (7) a list of the chain of command, and (8) an explanation of the organization's purpose and strategic goals.

At Tata Motors in Pune, the Graduate Engineer Trainees (GETs) after being selected go through an induction program. They meet senior personnel such as heads of all the major departments, viz., Pune plant head, HR head, production head, new product introduction head, and Engineering Research Center head in the induction program. After completion of the induction program, the engineers are placed in various departments for a period of one year. This training also includes plant level rotation in the various departments for a time period of one to three months. They also participate in improvement projects such as "software use penetration," "reducing technical glitches," etc., and are also trained on the "Tata Code of Conduct."

Positive Outcomes Possible from an Effective Orientation

Reduced anxiety	A better understanding of expectations and formalized meeting of co-workers results in reduction in the level of anxiety of new employee associated with feeling of unknown during initial few days on the job.
Reduced role ambiguity	Offers an opportunity to determine the job requirements and develops a comfortable feeling about approaching the supervisor and co-workers to raise query and clear up any misunderstandings in relation to job.
Reduced turnover	An effective orientation develops mutual trust and reduces employee turnover.
Improved job performance	Enhances understanding of job requirements and the willingness to seek assistance results in fewer errors and the ability to rise to higher levels sooner, contributing to improved performance.
Higher level of commitment	Effective orientations makes employee more committed, more involved in their jobs, and more likely to take on the values of the organization.
More effective/efficient organization	The organization with committed employees to achieve optimal performance, operating at a higher level of performance, concerned to their responsibilities, and being more committed to the values and objectives of the organization are valuable to shareholders.

18.3.4 Internship and Assistantship

Internship programs jointly sponsored by colleges, universities, and a variety of organizations, offer students the chance to get real-world exposure and finding out how they will perform in work organizations. Organizations are also benefited by getting student-employees with new ideas, energy, and eagerness to accomplish their assignments. In the US, many universities and community colleges allow students to earn college credits on the basis of successful job performance and fulfillment of established program requirements.

Internship Program of IBM Software Ltd takes students on board for a period of six months for doing their engineering projects. The students whose skill matches with the project's requirement and those who are keen to work on these complex issues and problems as part of a team are approached. Amazon India's requirements for interns include analysis, design, programming, quality assurance or all of the above. It wants interns to be "open-minded, take initiative to try new things, take risks so that they can handle real project right away.". It also motivates them to attend its brown-bag sessions with business leaders and ask questions related to probable situations that might be faced by them in future. In 2009 Samsung Electronics had announced its "Global Scholarship Program" to aid ambitious graduates and undergraduates to study master's degree program in business administration (MBA) from Sung Kyun Kwan University, South Korea, an affiliate to the MIT Sloan School of Management, and offered that later be the part of the Samsung Electronics Global Family.

18.3.5 Coaching

Coaching is the process of providing one to one guidance and instruction to develop knowledge, skills and enhance efficiency in work performance. It may also include hiring an external consultant to assist upper level managers in public speaking solving particular type of business problem or facing specific problems. The general concepts of coaching are the same but there is a substantial difference in the coaching at the lower level of management.

Coaching is directed at the KSA deficiencies of the employees. However it can also be used as a motivational tool for the employees who are performing satisfactorily. An advantage of this method is it can be done in short meetings, phone conversations, and Internet communications when the executive has the time.

The process of coaching is as follows”

1. identifying the executive's specific developmental needs, the KSAs which can be determined through 360-degree performance reviews.
2. The coach and executive should mutually determine the performance objectives.
3. Mutually arrive at an action plan and set the schedule to meet the objectives
4. Followed by successive meetings and counseling by the coach.
5. Observe the trainee performance and provide feedback. Step 4 should be followed until performance improves.

For employee, it is much more likely that any coaching would be done by his supervisor, although outside consultants are sometimes used for up-and-coming managers. The supervisor can continuously analyze the subordinate's performance and could motivate him to improve by creating a supportive climate and mutually acceptable action. Similarly, the personalized approach helps the manager focus on specific needs and improvements.

18.3.6 Mentoring

Mentoring is a form of coaching in which stress is laid on developing or strengthening ongoing relationship between a senior and junior employee. But coaching and mentoring are different on the points that mentoring is generally more of an ongoing relationship, and coaching is often for a shorter, more specific length of time. Coaching focuses on skill development and technical aspects of the job whereas mentoring focuses on attitude development and improving the employee's fit within the organization.

Moreover in coaching the meetings between a coach and the employee are generally more structured and regular than in mentoring. Another difference for executives is that someone inside the company generally does the mentoring and an outside consultant often does coaching.

"Being a mentor" is an important developmental tool for the executive as he can learn a great deal. By dealing with different mentees, the executive gets an opportunity to grow professionally by learning how to work with various personality types and background. Executives sometimes also have mentors. In cases where the executive is new to the organization, a senior executive could be assigned as a mentor to help and get the new executive settled into his new role. For managers who are potential executives, being mentored is a valuable method for preparing them to be future executives. This one-on-one interaction allows the mentor to determine what is required to improve the mentee's effectiveness. Once the mentor identifies an area or competency that requires work, he can suggest relevant training. Also, the mentor can provide opportunities to work on special projects that require use of the competency. The value of mentoring program is evident from the experiences of 'headhunting' firms that without institutionalized mentoring program there may be dramatic defection of middle level managers.

18.3.7 Job Rotation

Job rotation is a management technique that assigns trainees to various structures and departments over a period of a few years. For the executive, the job rotation takes on a different perspective. Job rotation is not simply going to another department but it aims at providing, training through a variety of work experiences, the broadened knowledge and understanding, required to manage more effectively. In some vertically integrated organisations (e.g., where the supplier is actually part of the same organization or a subsidiary), the job rotation might be to the supplier to see how the business operates from the supplier's point of view. Learning how the organization functions in related area broadens the executive's perspective on its operation. A rotation to a foreign office would provide an international perspective to the trainee.

This approach allows the manager to carry out different roles and understand the different issues that arise in different jobs. This also prepares them to take up the similar jobs as and when required in the organization. The manager becomes multi skilled and versatile through job rotation.

18.4 Off the Job Training

This is a form of training which takes place away from the immediate workplace. Off-the-job training includes more general skills and knowledge useful for work, as well as job-specific training. Training may be provided by specialist trainers working within organization or by a consultant hired to help with training. Off-the-job training is particularly effective for non-technical skills, as employees can use these across different areas of the company.

Off-the-job training is conducted in a location specifically designated for training. It may be near the place of work or away from work, at a special training center or other venue like hotel, resort etc. Conducting the training away from the workplace minimize distractions and allow trainees to devote their full attention to the contents of the training. Different methods of off the job training are as follows:

18.4.1 Vestibule training

Vestibule Training utilizes equipments that are similar to actual ones used on the job. This training takes place in a separate room in which similar setup is made as found in actual production area. The trainee then learns under simulated conditions, without disrupting ongoing operations. Vestibule training emphasizes learning of skills required by the job. The primary advantage of vestibule training is that it relieves the employee from the pressure of having to produce while learning. Secondly, it creates an environment similar to real situations without incurring high costs and avoiding problems related to 'on the work site' training. The disadvantage of vestibule training is that (i) it is difficult to duplicate the pressures and realities of actual decision making on the job (ii) individuals often act differently in real-life situations than they do during simulated exercise or training.

18.4.2 Lecture Method

It is the most commonly used training method. It includes verbal presentation of information by the instructor to a large number of trainees. It aims at developing knowledge among trainees to a considerable depth of the subject in hand. Since a large number of employees can be trained at the same time hence the cost of training per employee is very low.

The major steps involved in lecture method are as follows:

1. **Planning** - The effectiveness of the plan depends on the competence of the trainer. Planning should include determining objectives of training and the present skills of the trainees and the job they are in. Framing out the lecture accordingly. Combining other methods of training and training aids to create interest in the

learning process. Deciding method of assessment of learning of the trainees and method of taking feedback.

2. **Conducting lecture** – Informing employees about learning objectives, providing information in logical and sequential manner. Sharing experiences and success stories of great managers. Assigning activities to apply learning in practice.
3. **Assessment of learning** – Using assessment tools to identify the level of learning of employees. Diagnosing learning problem and solving it accordingly.
4. **Application of learning** – Allotting assignments and assessing their output and recognizing for achievement. Taking feedback

18.4.2 Case Method

Case method is a widespread technique, which uses a written description of a real business situation in the organization or a situation that had occurred in another organization. Managers are asked to study the case to identify the problems, analyze the problems for their significance, propose alternative solutions, choose the best solution, and implement it. More learning takes place if there is interaction between the managers and the instructor. The instructor's role is that of a catalyst and facilitator. A good instructor involves every trainee in solving the problem. Sometimes the case method is more effective in certain business situations. For example, with analysis of business policies, case studies work better than more rigidly structured approaches. Good instructors could make the case method is a very effective device for improving and clarifying rational decision making.

- The cognitive skills that can be developed using case method are as follows:
- Identification or exploration of problem
- Analysis of problems, situations or behaviors
- Generating models of solution
- Forecasting risk and identifying threats.
- Relating theory with practice
- Evaluating present practices and designing follow-up actions
- Communication and presentation skills
- Responding to queries

The trainer using the case method must guard against (1) dominating the discussion, (2) permitting a people to dominate the discussion, or (3) leading the discussion toward his or her preferred solution.

The case method should have following characteristics to produce intensive learning.

1. Description of real business situation
2. Match with learning objectives of the training.
3. Related with current business environment
4. Concise and Interesting
5. Fosters thinking and creativity
6. Creates challenge for learning
7. Matches trainee profile and vision

18.4.3 Role playing

Role playing is a cross between the case method and an attitude development program. It is a versatile method to produce learning in the affective domain by focusing on emotional issues rather than actual ones. Role playing is often done in small groups of a dozen or so. Each person in the group is assigned a role in a situation (such as a case) and asked to play the role and to react to other players' as per their respective role. The player is asked to pretend to be a focal person in the situation and to react to the stimuli as that person would do in a real situation. For example, a male worker may play the role of a female supervisor. The players are provided with background information on the situation and the players. The success of this method depends on the ability of the players to play the assigned roles. If done well, role playing can help a manager become more aware of and more sensitive to the feelings of others. It helps in promoting better interpersonal relations.

18.4.4 in-Basket Technique

Another method used to develop managerial decision-making abilities is the in-basket technique. Here real life critical situations or problems (simple to complex) are given to the trainees. The participant is given materials (typically memos or descriptions of things to do) that include typical items from a specific manager's mail, e-mail, and a telephone list. Important and critical matters, such as out-of-stock positions, complaints by customers, and a demand for a report from a superior, are mixed in with routine business matters, such as a request to speak at a dinner or a decision on the date of the company picnic four weeks hence. The trainee is evaluated and critiqued on the number of decisions made in the allotted time, the quality of the decisions, and the priorities chosen for making them. In order to generate interest, the in-basket materials must be realistic, job-related, and not impossible to make decisions on.

18.4.5 Management Games

Management games describe the operating characteristics of a company, industry, or enterprise. These descriptions take the form of equations that are manipulated after decisions have been made. In this method the trainees are divided and each employee assumes a different role and takes decisions that best suit the prevailing equations or situations. Thus management games emphasize development of problem-solving skills.

For example, in a computerized management game procedure, teams of players are asked to make a series of operating decisions. Trainees are asked to decide on such matters as the price of the product, purchase of raw material, production scheduling, funds borrowing, marketing and R&D expenditures. When each player on the team has made a decision, the impacts of these decisions are computed (manually or by computer) in accordance with the model. For example, if price is linearly related to the quantity, a decrease in price of x percent will affect the quantity, subject to general price levels. Players on the team discuss and reconcile their individual decisions in accordance with other team members before arriving at a final decision. Then each team's decision is

compared with those of the other teams. The result of that team's profit, market share, and other facts are compared, and a winner or best team performance is determined.

Gaming Technique	Description
Ice breakers	Games to make team members acquainted with each other
Leadership games	Exercises to teach different styles of leadership
Skill Games	Developing analytical skills
Communication Games	Bias free listening and talking
Strategic Planners	Games to test ability to plan ahead
Team building games	Games fostering collaborative efforts
Role reversal	Exercise to teach plurality of views
Doubling	Brings out ideas that are not often expressed
Tag teams	One role played by two participants alternatively
Mirroring	Training with an external perspective
Monodrama	Insight into given interaction

Advantages of games include the integration of several interacting decisions, the ability to experiment with decisions, the provision of feedback on decisions, and the requirement that decisions be made with inadequate data, which usually simulates reality.

The limitation of management game is that novelty is to be included while developing each game that may cause deviation from the purpose of training, the high cost of development and administration, the unreality of some of the games (some factors cannot be simulated in games), and the negative and disturbing tendency of many participants to search the key to winning the game instead of realizing the objective of game and concentrating on making good decisions. Many participants seem to feel that the games are rigged-that a few factors or even a single factor may be the key to winning.

18.4.6 Conference

A conference is a meeting of a large group including resource experts to discuss the matter of common interest and express their views on the issue. This method helps the employees to be up-to-date and informed about new developments related to their fields. Experts in their respective fields speak about contemporary issues and suggest alternatives to face the upcoming challenges. They also share real time business experiences of success. The participants also exchange their ideas through networking and support the growth of their organization. This method is best suited when any issue is to be evaluated and analyzed from different view point. The participants are able to share their view and make modifications in their view.

18.4.7 Incident Method

This method was developed by Paul Pigors. It aims to develop the social awareness, intellectual judgment and practical judgment of the trainee. Here the employee is trained through a group process. Incidents are prepared on the basis of actual situations that had occurred in different organizations. Each employee in the training group is asked to study the incidents and make short term decisions in the role. Thus method is similar to a combination of case method and in basket method.

18.4.8 Sensitivity Training

It is also known as laboratory training or T – groups. Here trainees are trained in a group of less than 12 members. They meet with a passive trainer to gain an insight into their own and others behaviour. Such meetings are held away from the workplace. Members interact among themselves and questioning about ‘here and now’ of the group process. Discussions focus on ‘why do employees behave as they do in certain situation, how do they perceive about one another, their feelings and emotions for one another.

18.4.9 Programmed Instruction

In this method the training is imparted without the intervention of a trainer. Mode of imparting training is either a book or a teaching machine or Computer based technology. Material to be learned is grouped into chunks of closely related information. The trainees are presented with a chunk of information and then feedback and test on their retention of that information. In this process learner has to answer questions after going through the learning material whatsoever be its form. Feedback is in the form of correct answers for each response. If the trainees have not retained the material, they are referred back to the original information. If they retained the information, they are referred to the next chunk of information to be learned. Advantage of PI is self paced as it does not pressurize the trainees, they can progress through the program at their own pace. Learning material is self contained and structured. The limitation of this method is that the scope for learning is less and strong motivation is needed to maintain learning. Moreover cost of preparing IT based learning material, manual, handbook etc. is quite high. The different types of PI are as follows:

18.4.9.1 Intelligent Tutoring Systems (ITS)

An intelligent tutoring system is a sophisticated form of programmed instruction. It uses artificial intelligence to facilitate coaching for the trainee. ITS provides guidance and selects the appropriate level of instruction for the trainee. In addition, an ITS can learn from its own process what worked and did not work in the training process. Based on this information, the ITS improves its methods of coaching the trainee. Intelligent tutoring can be a text-based system or a combination of text with graphics and other types of audiovisual aids.

ITS consists of mainly five components:

- an expert knowledge base - The expert knowledge base is the set of knowledge about what is correct and appropriate.

- a trainee model – This component stores information about how the trainees are doing during training and what they seem to know.
- a training session manager - The session manager may act simply as a reference source or possibly a tutor or coach (suggesting an appropriate response).
- a scenario generator - The training scenario generator is the component that sequences the chunk of information and decides the order and level of difficulty of the problems that are presented to the trainee.
- The user interface – It is the equipment that allows the trainee to interact with the ITS. It commonly includes a computer keyboard, mouse, or joystick.

ITS is different from simple programmed instruction because it can do the following.

- Generate instruction that matches the individual trainee's needs,
- Communicate and respond to trainee questions,
- Model the trainee's learning processes according to current level of knowledge and learning needs,
- Determine sequence of information to be shared based on previous trainee responses,
- Determine the trainee's level of understanding of the topic
- Improve its strategies for teaching the trainee based on the trainee's responses.

18.4.9.2 Interactive Multimedia (IM) Training

IM use programmed integration of text, video, graphics, photos, animation, and sound to produce a training environment with which the trainee interacts. In this method the learning material is converted into a multimedia format to facilitate learning. For example, the trainee is put into a real-life job situation in a multimedia environment and asked to solve a specific problem. Once the trainee solves the problem by interacting with simulated workplace situation, he can receive immediate feedback as to the effectiveness of his decision. Typically, trainees become very engaged in this interactive multimedia learning because they get psychologically involved into the situation.

18.4.9.3 Virtual Reality

Virtual reality (VR) training is used in dangerous work set ups (police car chases, hostage situations) and situations that are very expensive to be used in reality (flying aircraft, operating heavy equipment). VR puts the trainee in an artificial three-dimensional environment that simulates events and situations that might be experienced on the job. The trainee interacts with these images to accomplish specific goals. In these respects VR is not much different from the more advanced forms of IM. The difference is in how the trainee experiences the simulation. In VR, the trainee experiences a physical involvement with and a presence in the simulated environment. That is, the trainee psychologically experiences the environment as real. To experience a computerized VR, the trainee must wear devices like a headset that provides visual and audio information, gloves that give tactile information, and treadmills or other types of motion platforms for creating the

sense of movement. Many advanced forms of 1M use artificial intelligence to portray situations more realistically and manage interactions with the trainee.

18.4.9.4 E-learning

E-learning is a simple, audiovisual, programmed, and computer-oriented training method that covers a wide variety of applications such as Web-and computer-based training (CBT) and virtual classrooms. It includes delivery of content via the Internet, intranets and extranets, satellite and broadcast interactive TV, DVD, and CD-ROM.

E-Learning makes it possible to provide, problem solving, simulation, gaming forms of instruction, and certain very sophisticated forms of individualized tutorial instruction in a way that is more engaging for learners than traditional classroom instruction. It is also inexpensive as it can be delivered directly to employees' systems via LAN and WAN. E-Learning allows the firm to bring the training to employees rather than vice versa.

E-Learning also allows employees to search through a virtual sea of information in order to customize their own learning in their own time and space.

18.4.10 Simulation

Sometimes it is either impractical or unwise to train employees on the actual equipment used on the job. For example initial training of employees to operate aircraft, or preparing an astronaut for a journey by spacecraft, or training to operate on highly technical and expensive equipment. The simulation method emphasizes realism in equipment and its operation at minimum cost and maximum safety. It duplicates nearly all the possible real conditions encountered on job. It thus creates realistic decision making environment for the trainee. Trainee takes those decisions that may be taken by him in actual situation. The result of these decisions is reported back to the trainee, with the feedback that what has been done and what should have been done. This feedback helps him in improving his subsequent simulation and workplace decisions.

With e-learning and computer-based training, the distinction between simulation and computer-based training has blurred. For example, a simulation developed by Wicat in partnership with Airbus and Singapore Airlines runs on an IT based system and replicates a cockpit with control displays and throttle/flap controls. Pilots are taken through a self-paced program that simulates "taxi, takeoff, climb, cruise, descent, approach, landing, and go-around." These types of technologies are making it easier to offer training in a new and different ways.

18.5 Other Types of Training

18.5.1 Diversity Training

The makeup of the workplace continues to change due to globalization. This diversity creates tension and conflicts in the workplace, as it is common practice that ratings of performance, promotion recommendations, and such are often biased in favor of those who are most similar to the person making the evaluation or recommendation. When employees observe that these are decisions affecting their pay or status such as race or

gender, they become upset. In order to create conducive work environment diversity training becomes important.

There are basically two types of diversity training:

- (1) Training to create awareness – After such training employees appreciate the benefits of diversity
- (2) Training to develop skills - It develops the KSAs necessary for working with people who are different. For example, a skill-building diversity program might teach managers how to conduct performance appraisals with people from different cultures or teach male supervisors how to coach female employees toward better career opportunities.

But in the designing diversity training program all the diverse dimensions-race, gender, age, disabilities, lifestyles, culture, education, ideas, and backgrounds-should be considered.

In India organizations such as Hyatt, JW Marriott, Patni Computer Systems, and Tata Consultancy Services have made huge investments to train their workforce on handling diversity. The client profile of TCS requires TCS consultants to talk, read, and write in as many as 25 different languages. Across locations, cross culture sensitizations sessions for different geographies are carried out to enable the employees to work in diverse environments and cultures

18.5.2 Team Training

In the last few years organizations across the globe have developed exercises to generate enthusiasm and enhance team participation. Organizations rely on teams to attain strategic and operational goals. Whether the team is an aircrew, a research team, or a manufacturing or service unit, the contributions of the individual members of the team are a function not only of the KSAs of each individual but the level of interaction among team members. Teamwork behaviors that differentiate effective teams are shown in the figure given below. They include both process dynamics and behavioral dynamics. The fact that these behaviors are observable and measurable provides a basis for training team members to function more effectively in the pursuit of their goals.

18.5.3 Cross-Training

Closely related to team training is cross-training. In cross-training employees learn how to do different jobs within an organization. Workers are trained to become cross skilled and efficient in performing multiple tasks. For example a technical personnel can be trained to enhance managerial skills so that be a good manager along with being a technical expert. Such cross trained employees can be dynamically shifted when and where they are needed through cross training. It keep workers interested and motivated, and helps to cut turnover, increase productivity, reduce labor costs, and lay the foundation for careers rather than dead-end jobs.

18.5.4 Refresher Training

It is a short term training to recall and refresh the previously acquired skills and knowledge of the employees. The purpose of refresher training is to ensure that skills among the employees remain sharp and that skills and knowledge required to perform the job is retained and kept current and up to date. For example an IT engineer may undergo refresher training to to update his IT knowledge and learn to develop software systems based on new programming languages.

18.6 Management Development Programs

Managers are the key to the success of the organization who shoulder the responsibility of achieving the objectives and goals of the organization. This makes the process of their development vital to the organization. There are many limitations due to which they cannot trainings like objectives of the training, purpose of the training, timing of the training and target employees of the training.

Hence development programs are organized to exclusively for Managers known as Management Development Programs (MDP). MDPs provide a broader understanding of management and leadership and in a way that bring real business benefits to participants and their organisations. It equips managers the necessary competencies to implement in their organisations' strategic objectives. It helps to develop a basic understanding of the different fields of management to ensure that managers do not perform their own management functions in isolation. The MDP address the need of competency development, refinement, skills improvement, knowledge enhancement etc.

18.6.1 Types of Management Development Programs

18.6.1.1 Knowledge/Skills Development: Conceptual

Conceptual skills in managers can be developed through:

1. Management/business games, simulations, and case studies.
2. On-the-job training: Mentoring, coaching, action learning, job rotation, etc.
3. Decision making: Situations are diagnosed to determine the best approach to take a decision. Manager learns the relevant situational variables that determine whether the decision should be made by the manager alone or should be delegated to subordinates, or handled jointly. Another approach to decision making is rational manager training which uses simulations to develop managers' problem-solving and decision-making skills.
4. Managerial roles: This approach, based on Mintzberg's model aims to provide managers with an understanding of what they are doing and why they are doing through self-observation and understanding their roles. Accordingly they can develop the skills needed to perform the monitoring and controller's roles.

18.6.1.2 Knowledge/Skills Development: Technical.

1. **Degree and certification programs:** Degree programs in business and technical disciplines provide the technical foundation for most managers. In addition, technical knowledge and skills specific to a particular discipline are developed through these certified training programs. For example, the Indian Society for Training and Development provides training programs that prepare HR managers to take the certification exam.
2. **Workshops and seminars:** These are offered on a wide range of topics via internally developed workshops and seminars or events arranged by outsourcing agencies. These programs can be easily tailored to fit the managerial needs of the firm.

18.6.1.3 Interpersonal Skills and Management Style

Management styles are often addressed in training through emphasizing one or more interpersonal skills which are as follows:

1. **Interactive skills training:** This approach uses simulations and provides feedback to trainees with ways of interacting more effectively with others. The approach makes managers more aware of how their behaviour influences others, how people perceive about them and react to them.
2. **Grid management :** The two most important managerial characteristics in this approach are the managers' 'concern for work outcomes' and their 'concern for people' The proposition here is that managers who have strong concerns in both of these areas are the best managers. Training focuses on developing the manager's ability to display these characteristics simultaneously.
3. **Workshops and seminars:** These programs typically focus on a particular skill area, of the trainees.

18.6.1.4 Developing Personal Traits

Development of personal traits can be a part of many management development programs. A few programs that focus specifically on trait development are listed below.

1. **Role motivation:** The object of this program is to develop six motivational states in managers:
 - favorable attitude toward authority and commitment
 - desire to compete assertiveness
 - desire to exercise power
 - desire for distinctiveness
 - sense of responsibility

These motives help managers to meet organizational criteria for effectiveness It includes development of interpersonal skills and development of internal values.

2. **Need for achievement:** The program of self-evaluation, goal setting, and case method is designed to provide managers with an understanding of their need for achievement and develop them on constructive behavior. This approach yielded success to managers at the early stage of their career.

18.7 Summary

Training is integral part of any organization. There are broadly two methods of imparting training - On the job method and off the job method. Techniques of on the job method includes Orientation training, JIT, Apprentice training, job rotation, Coaching, mentoring etc. Off the job methods include vestibule training, conference, role playing, management games, in basket exercises, case method, simulation etc. The MDPs are aimed at addressing specific needs of managers like developing interpersonal skills, technical skills, conceptual skills EDPs help to develop the executives' leadership skills through action learning, job rotation or special job assignments.

18.8 Self Assessment Questions

1. What is on the job training? Discuss different techniques of on the job training?
2. What is on the job training? Discuss different techniques of on the job training?
3. Discuss in brief:
 - (a) MDP
 - (b) Programmed Instruction
 - (c) Management games

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