

BLOCK 1 CONCEPT OF MANAGING CHANGE

This Block comprises five units dealing with the concept of change i.e., what change means and how it occurs in an Organisation.

Unit 1 deals with the process of organisational change, the dynamics involved in it, and how transformational change occurs in complex organisations with rapid changes in the environment.

Unit 2 focuses on key roles in organisational change; those who are involved in initiating the change; the team, the consultants, the chief implementor, the task forces.

Unit 3 'Culture and Change, spells out the importance of social culture for the management of change with specific reference to the Indian Culture.

Unit 4 deals with how to manage resistance to change, by bringing about the positive role of resistance, the main sources of resistance and the action plan to resist the change.

Finally, **Unit 5** sets the framework for effective implementation of change.

UNIT - 1

THE PROCESS OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGES

Objectives

After going through this unit you should be able to :

- understand the dynamics of planned change
- understand the main sequential stages
- appreciate the value of transformational change

Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 The Nature of Planned Change
- 1.3 Dynamics of Planned Change
- 1.4 Sequential Process of Change
- 1.5 The Process of Transformational Change
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 Self-Assessment Test / Questions
- 1.8 Further Readings

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Change can be defined as an alteration in the existing field of forces which tends to affect the equilibrium.

Change is inevitable in the history of any organisation. Organisations that do not change or keep pace with the changing environment suffer from entropy and soon become defunct. Organisations have an internal environment but exist in an external environment. The internal environment is in terms of the task, structure, technology, social (People) and economic variables, while the external environment is in terms of the larger social, political, economic and cultural factors. To function effectively, organisations have to achieve an equilibrium within the internal variables in active interaction with each other and also with the external environment. However this equilibrium is not static but dynamic. Hence organisations have to modify and change to adopt to the changing internal and external environment.

A short list is given below regarding some of the changes which affected almost all organisations in the past few decades is given below :

- Technological innovations have multiplied; products and know-how are fast becoming obsolete,
- Basic resources have progressively become more expensive,
- Competition has sharply increased,
- Communication and computers have reduced the time needed to make decisions,
- Environmental and consumer interest-groups have become highly influential,
- The drive for social equity has gained momentum,
- The economic interdependence among countries has become more apparent.

These and many other changes compel organisations to cope with the environment and become more adaptive. If they do not adapt to the circumstances they become extinct.

1.2 THE NATURE OF PLANNED CHANGE :

Change is a complex process. Social scientists have suggested a number of models about change, one model suggests that change takes place when the forces favouring a particular innovation become stronger than those opposing it. Another model suggests that change results when an individual, a group of people or an organization recognises a problem and succeeds in finding a solution. Another model suggests that change occurs through the borrowing of ideas and practices from people of other societies or cultures. Still another is that, within an organisation, group or society, some people or institution move out a head of the rest who, eventually, imitate the innovators and general change occurs. Undoubtedly, these and other models of the change process are descriptive of the complex dynamics of change, all of the processes operating simultaneously in various segments and on several dimensions of society. Regardless of the model of change dynamics that seems appropriate in each situation, the task of the sponsor or manager of change is to stimulate, reinforce and promote those social forces and activities which seem to promise successful movement in the direction of proposed change, and to discourage those which do not. To do this with some skill, those involved in planned change need the knowledge and understanding of the dynamics of change.

1.3 DYNAMICS OF PLANNED CHANGE :

We need to know a few aspects of planned change so that planning of change can be more effective.

Significant Change is Qualitative : To understand the dynamics of successful change it is important to understand what change is effective. A head of the department may become convinced that he should be more democratic in his department so he decides to hold meetings of his people more frequently. This is a change in frequency. It may contribute nothing to more democratic management unless the nature of his relationship with his staff is changed so that they actually contribute to the departmental decisions. It may be a quantitative rather than a qualitative change. Such a change in procedure may be a necessary step towards significant change but by itself it does not constitute the kind of change that must make a long term impact.

An inspector of schools may want to encourage teachers voluntarily to request help in their teaching. Realising that they are hesitant to admit their weaknesses to him, he may use a questionnaire through which they can anonymously suggest ways in which he can assist them. This is a change in technique only. The qualitative change the inspector wants, takes place when a teacher uses the new technique to ask for help, for the first time, with the sincere desire to improve his work.

Mechanical or procedural changes may make possible qualitative change but they do not constitute it nor do they necessarily assure that it will take place. *Qualitative change takes place when clients develop the desire to change*, go through personal introspection, study and experiment, and modify their behaviour in meaningful ways. Where the individual who goes through this conscious process is a part of an organised group, such as the staff of a department, his modified behaviour and that of his associates will interact in such a way as to bring about organic change in the nature of the programme of the organisation. Change programmes which do not fully recognise qualitative organic change as their goal often result in change in the name only or in the form only. This may be part of the explanation of the fact that during the past fifteen years literally thousands of Indian teachers have attended seminars, workshops and training courses on social studies, examinations English teaching and many other topics, with little actual impact on their day-to-day work.

Unfortunately, much of the discussion of innovations and diffusion of innovations has not been adequately concerned with the actual effectiveness of results of the mechanical or procedural changes, many of which do not penetrate deeply and do not last.

In distinguishing between surface change and qualitative change the story is often told of a Pacific Island community which experienced large-scale contact with the American army during World War - II. It is said that before the war it was an accepted practice for wives of the islanders always to follow their husbands when the two were walking through the village or the fields. Following the war it was observed that wives often preceded their husbands. Some observers readily concluded that contact with Americans had resulted in a fundamental change in cultural values that the wife no longer was considered to be an inferior being who followed behind her husband of higher social standing. Closer study of the change revealed, however, quite a different reason for the new procedure - the village, roads and the surrounding fields were still full of explosive mines left over from the military action! This change is procedure, obviously, did not result from nor, represented a qualitative change in values as was first thought.

CASE

In one Teacher Training College, because of certain traditions and leadership of high quality, the faculty took very seriously their responsibility to carry out a full programme of extension work for the secondary schools. They did so realising that experience in assisting secondary teachers should lead to improvement in their own training of future teachers in the college. From time to time, the relationship between in-service projects for the secondary school personnel and the training college programme was discussed in staff meetings.

One of the newer faculty members was interested in trying a method of evaluation to find out the extent to which participation in extension programmes led to actual changes in the college programme or in teaching methods in the college. He had learned of the method at a workshop on evaluation and had subsequently studied reports of groups of teachers who had used it in the United Kingdom. The method required each faculty member to keep a diary, and periodic analysis and discussion of the recorded changes in teaching method or content, if any, in staff meetings. This staff member discussed this technique with two of his friends; they saw the advantages and seemed interested in trying it.

A few weeks later the extension programme was once again on the agenda at the staff meeting and the diary method of evaluation was suggested. In the discussion that followed, the two friends of the person suggesting the technique and one other spoke in favour of trying it; all others were either sceptical or opposed. Two of the older staff members reported that a similar impractical idea had been suggested before but never tried. Others thought it would take too much time. One staff member in particular expressed unwillingness to discuss his teaching methods openly in staff meetings; others seemed to agree on this point. All agreed that improvement in their teaching should be evaluated; the question was how to do it? The staff member who suggested the new method was discouraged with the discussion, but he volunteered to try it himself. The principal, who was interested in using the method as a way of encouraging the staff to talk openly about their experience and problems, asked if the faculty would be interested in having a committee to observe and evaluate the experience of the one innovating member. This was generally agreed to, although a few did not say anything. The principal appointed as chairman one of the two friends of the innovator, the third person who favoured the idea, and a senior staff member who opposed the idea and who was considered something of a spokesman for the older faculty members.

The committee met twice, with active discussion, including some critical questions and comments from the old members. At the third meeting all were surprised when another committee member presented his own diary for discussion. At the next staff meeting the work of the committee was on the agenda. This led to discussion of the quality of the extension programmes; the extension coordinator suggested several ways in which greater cooperation from the faculty would be helpful. One other faculty member volunteered to join the evaluation committee and to keep a diary for discussion. Several members who had opposed the new evaluation technique when it was first discussed repeated their opposition, but their comments stirred little reaction in the face of the actual experience of the committee which indicated how the technique could be helpful.

The work of the committee continued over the next several weeks with a considerable amount of informal discussion going on among small groups. At the next staff meeting two other faculty members came forth with a tentative plan for improving the work of the science and social studies clubs they had helped to establish in several schools. In the course of discussion of their plan the principal asked whether these two members would be interested in trying a similar kind of evaluation technique covering not only the success of their idea for improving the school clubs but also covering how the work with the clubs affected the methods papers they taught to prospective science and social studies

teachers. They were hesitant, indicating that they had not thought much about evaluating their plan. The chairman of the evaluation committee invited them to meet with his committee to discuss the diary technique and this was agreed to. In due time these two members added the technique to the plan of the project to improve school clubs, and discussion of their experience was included in subsequent staff meetings.

In this way, from time to time the principal and others suggested ways in which new evaluation technique could be used, and the faculty gradually accepted this innovation. The teacher who suggested it in the first place ceased to be discouraged, and the principal reflected favourably on his early decision not to force the acceptance of the innovation nor to abandon the suggestion just because a majority initially opposed it.

What generalisation about change did the principal follow in his decision on how to handle his staff? How might the staff have reacted if the principal had imposed the new evaluation technique on everyone at once? What were some of the dynamic forces at work in this faculty which conditioned their reaction to the new idea?

Direction of Planned Change : It goes without saying that each planned change programme has goals. Each programme is based on a logic, it has a basic purpose and rationale. It is usually part of a larger plan and it fits into the overall programme for the development on an organisation, a community, an aspect of the economy, a state or a nation. It is intended to help accomplish something thought by the planners to be necessary for a better life. In other words, planned change has a positive direction, if the planning has been well done, and therefore it is desirable.

In one sense it is better to say that planned change has a direction than to say that it has aims or goals. The former implies that change is a continuing process; the latter may imply that change is accomplished when goals are reached. The major theme of this unit is that change is a continuing characteristics of all societies and all cultures; planned change is not different in this respect. In other words, *change is a process, not an end objective.*

The so-called underdeveloped countries often think of their goal as being that of achieving economic and social living standards found in the more advanced countries. Towards this goal a tremendous amount of effort is put into a variety of development schemes. It is often forgotten, however, or not fully recognised, that the so-called advanced countries are currently going through more rapid change than the underdeveloped countries. Some of their economic goals of development have been achieved for most of their people and they are now concerned with problems of leisure unemployment caused by automation. Pollution caused by affluence or how to put back into life some of the meaning that may have been lost in the process of satisfying the basic economic needs. So planned change has a direction rather than a final set of goals. Perhaps it is helpful to think that long-range goals indicate the purpose of planning, that interim or intermediate aims provide the theme of individual development projects, that specific objectives provide the day-to-day focus of activity, and that all of these several levels of planning indicate the direction of planned change.

Direction and Means : The means used to bring about change, as well as the goals, aims and objectives, are important elements in change of dynamics which influence the quality and direction of change. Let us look at several examples. One of the long-range goals of Indian development is a mature democratic system of government. Towards this end many political and educational

programmes exist to prepare the citizens to play their role in a democracy. If autocratic means of promoting these programmes and administering political and educational institutions predominate, then these means detract from the intended achievement of democratic attitudes and skills among the citizens. To be more specific schools in a developing democracy share responsibility or training the youth to participate democratically in the operations of society. If the means of running the school contain few elements of democracy the students are not likely to leave the school with orientation towards training for democratic behaviour. There is an even more tragic contradiction in the school with an apparently active student government which, on investigation, is found to be run in every detail by the headmaster and teachers. Democracy in form only adds to cynicism towards democracy; it adds little to the democratic direction of education. One of the authors listed a school recently which was well known for its student government. The government was patterned after the British Parliamentary form. On short notice, the student parliament put on a show of parliamentary debate that was animated, heated and yet handled in good order. It made a good show for visitors. Several probing questions from the visitor revealed, however, that questions and answers were memorised and the procedures clearly specified in detail, in advance by the teachers in charge. Furthermore, this student parliament never debated the real school issues.

They played no part in the running of the school. In every sense this student government was an artificial organisation. Such sham democratic forms are likely to contribute little to the development of democracy; they probably detract from this purpose.

Another long-range goal of Indian development universally agreed to by the development planners is to reduce the extent to which authoritarianism permeates the culture. One way of contributing to this goal is to build non-authoritarian methods into the development projects themselves. Involvement in planning is one such means. Another is to provide channels of communication between persons at lower levels and the administrators of projects such that the results of experience become a recognised contribution to the replanning of the project. Still another is to make sure that results from the improvement project provide early benefit to persons at the various levels in the hierarchy. Democratising human relations, giving credit where it is due, stimulating other means for de-emphasising the value now placed on authority and authoritarian patterns of behaviour. The use of non-authoritarian means in development programmes may be the best way to reduce the automatic acceptance of authoritarianism as a cultural value.

In the case cited above, the principal of the training college wanted to increase discussion, and self-appraisal among his staff. He recognised that the suggestion of using staff diaries as a basis for self-evaluation could contribute towards achievement of this aim. He could have yielded to the all-too-common tendency to impose the new evaluation scheme on his faculty. He chose otherwise because he realised that such an autocratic means would not contribute to the desirable end; in fact, it probably would have made it even more difficult to increase free discussion and self-criticism.

Other examples of the relationship between ends and means can be found in in-service training programme for the teachers. If such training is given through lectures alone, with no opportunity for the teachers to practice the skills under supervision, little skill will be increased. Both of these unintended results become a part of the social dynamics affecting the success of other attempts to improve teaching, and the effect is not on the positive side. Still another example

is found in workshops emphasising the recognition of the interests and needs of the students in teaching. In too many cases these workshops are organised without taking into account the real interests and needs of the participating teachers. This neglect colours the operations of the workshop and builds blocks and in other programmes intended to help the teachers grow. The attempts to teach the teachers to use group discussion in their classes through training courses consisting almost entirely of lectures are useless.

Contradictions between means and purposes may sometimes be unavoidable due to lack of time, shortage of facilities, and other reasons beyond the control of programme organisers, when this is true, the nature of the contradiction, the reasons for it, are discussed with the clients. Their sympathetic understanding of the inevitability of the contradiction will help to minimise the negative results, even though they come to realise more fully what is being lost through the use of inappropriate means. The promoters of change often become so enthusiastic about their answers to problems that they want to put them into effect immediately, and too often the means, that seem to promise greater speed contradict long-range purposes. The only excuse in this case is impatience, and impatience is sometimes the enemy of progress.

Adoption Rates Vary : In planning change in an organisation, we are interested in change in individual members and employees. However, in most cases a person works as a member of a group - the member of a project team, employee of a department, the staff of a school, the faculty of a college or the inspectors in the district office. Furthermore, we know that for a change programme to be effective it must have an impact on more than one person on a staff; in fact, most innovations in management bring about qualitative change in the supervision only if they are seriously taken up by the supervisors as a group or by a majority of the persons to whom the innovation applies. Not only individuals change but also the group character is altered. For this reason it is important to understand how successful change tends to spread among the members of a group. Our discussion of this process is based on that fact that : individuals differ in their tendency to initiate change, and in their rate of acceptance of innovations. Systematic studies have been carried out by the rural sociologists of communities and groups of people among which successful change has taken place. They have found that, in retrospect, those people who eventually accepted a particular change tend to fall into five categories : innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, and laggards. The innovators are those who help to initiate or adopt the innovation very readily. They are imbued with a high degree of readiness and administrators or an associates, they put the new idea or practice into operation. The "innovators" make up the first 2.5%. These are followed by the "early majority", those who are highly motivated and who need only an example or mild persuasion to step forward; they constitute 13.5% of the total group. A third group, also the "early majority" represent the first part of the preponderant group who come along after some time, and after they have been given some help in understanding and preparing for the innovation. They constitute 34%. The "late majority", the large number who are slow to change but who do respond in time to the pressures of the new conformity, represent another 34% of the total. The last to adopt the change are called the "laggards", and they constitute 16%. Depending on the period of time over which the change in a group is studied, this last group may include some who never accept the innovation. The rate of acceptance among a group tends to follow the normal distribution curve.

This analysis of people who accept change should help the agent of change in planning his work. If he realises that people normally fall into these several categories he will not feel frustrated when all members of a group do not respond with the same speed. He will recognise this as the normal situation and try to capitalise on it. He may seek to identify the potential innovators and work them first. Realising that, a beginning has been made, the potential early adopters will join the innovators, both providing the example, testing and tryout, which may be highly desirable before the innovation is adopted by the majority. Every group will have laggards and usually it is a waste of time to work with them during the early stages because so much effort is required to get results. If the laggards can be identified, may be the best the agent of change can do, is to take steps to neutralise their opposition.

A word needs to be said about the innovators. Special studies have been made of this group. As would be expected, they tend to be the more adventure some members of a group. Also, they are usually less dependent on the respect of their immediate peers. They look more to the outside impersonal sources for their ideas rather than only to group standards. They tend to be young and less conditioned by tradition. Because they tend to be non-conformists they are sometimes viewed as deviants, or radicals who have poor judgements and who are willing to flirt with new ideas. In fact, these judgements are often true of the innovators to a significant degree and these characteristics often alienate them from the majority of the group. If the agent of change recognises the potential contribution to group change which the innovator can play he will do well to work towards an increase of communication between the innovator and the total group and to build respect and, possibly, acceptance for non-conformist behaviour.

Diffusion is often aided by the early adopters who share some of the characteristics of the innovators but who tend to be more predictable about how long it will take for a particular change to develop through the several stages or for diffusion to permeate a group. Some study of this aspect has been done which indicates that speed is conditioned by such factors as the complexity of the new practice, the amount of risk involved in accepting the innovation, the relationship between the innovation and deeply held traditional values, the degree of readiness for the change, the amount of skill to be learned to make use of the innovation, and the kind of promotion given to the new idea or practice. Innovations which are substitute for elements in the culture are more slowly accepted than are those which require only variation or addition to the present culture.

Another caution should be voiced over the tendency to dub a person as a chronic laggard or a predictable innovator in all situations. It is true that the behaviour of a person stems from his general personality and values and therefore an innovator will tend to behave consistently. The same may be said for a laggard. But to some extent a given person may be an innovator in respect of one situation or area of his life and a laggard in others. A political liberal may dress very conservatively, for instance. A person who eschews traditional religious beliefs may be very traditional in his food habits. A teacher may be an innovator in experimenting with new teaching techniques but very hesitant to question in any way the traditional authority of the Headmaster. Or, an inspector may be ready to promote modern ideas about school administration and conservative on the language question. Human beings are complex and unpredictable. To forecast an individual's response to a new idea requires knowing him very well and even then you may err. While it is wise for the promoters of change programmes to keep in mind the ways in which persons tend to differ in their

readiness and speed of adopting new things, it is unwise not to remain open-minded as to the likely reaction of each individual.

Another caution stems from the fact that the studies of categories of adopters have resulted from the analysis of fairly large groups - whole communities or the employees of large organisations. The staff of a given school or the inspectors of a school district may be too small a group to contain representatives of all the categories. In respect of a given innovation the staff of a department may, for instance, have no innovators or early adopters. Such a department may have difficulty in carrying out improvement programmes. Among departments such a department may fall in the late majority or laggard category. On the other hand, a department may have few or no laggards because the head of the department has been selective in choosing employees over a period of years. Such a department may rank high among the departments. Because of the small size of the group or because factors have operated to give the group an unnatural composition, there is danger in generalising too readily about the overall make-up of a group. It is also true that studies of adopter groups have not been carried out extensively among teachers in India so that we do not know how they compare with the population in general or with other professional or vocational groups. There may be factors at work which cause the more conservative people to become teachers and hence teaching groups would tend to have fewer innovators and early adapters than some other groups. Or the reverse may be true.

1.4 SEQUENTIAL PROCESS OF CHANGE :

Change takes place through steps or phases. By this we mean that the process through which a given innovation becomes an accepted part of the personality and way of working of individuals, is usually evolutionary. Seldom does a new idea or practice become accepted in one step, small or large. Perhaps a better way of putting it is that people who accomplish successful change go through a number of sequential stages in reaching their goal. This latter way of putting the matter is important because it implies that people, not the innovation, go through the steps. This point is often lost sight of in large-scale development projects. Sometimes the planning is done by one group, usually a group of high-level administrators. Try-out or experimentation, if included at all, is turned over to the lower level administrators, and those who are expected to use the innovation may have experienced none of the developmental thinking involved. This is very likely to lead to uninformed, insensitive and indifferent implementation, if implementation takes place at all. The dangers of this way of handling the stages of development can be minimised by indirect involvement in planning and evaluation, and by good communications among all the people who will eventually be touched by the new practice. But the problem remains one to be kept in mind in the planning and steering of any development effort.

Several models of sequential steps or stages in change have been suggested. All these models envisage change as a continuous process involving several stages. The following eight stages are proposed here as framework of organisation change :

1. **Initiation** : Initiation is the stage of vocalisation of the need for change. Organisational change starts when someone takes the initiative of proposing that something has to be done at the level of the corporate management where the concern for some dimension of organisational functioning is shared and discussed. The idea may be

mooted at the level of the corporate management, at times based on observations or recommendations by some other level of the organisation, and sometimes as a result of discussion at the level of the organisation, and sometimes as a result of discussion at the level of the corporate management. This usually leads to the hiring of a consultant from outside, or discussion with the appropriate set of people within the organisation.

2. **Motivation :** Motivation is the stage of the involvement of people in detailed thinking about the proposed change. At this stage both the corporate management and the expert who helps in the organisational change take necessary steps to involve a larger section of the organisation in thinking about the various dimensions of the change process.
3. **Diagnosis :** Diagnosis is an attempt to search for the main cause of the symptoms encountered.
4. **Information Collection :** At this stage detailed information is collected on the dimension indicated by the diagnosis. Based on the diagnosis the necessary information is collected.
5. **Deliberation :** The deliberation stage is concerned with evaluating various alternatives generated for change.
6. **Action Proposal :** This is the stage of framing up an action proposal.
7. **Implementation :** Implementation is concerned with translating the proposal into action.
8. **Stabilisation :** Stabilisation is the stage of internalising change and making it a part of the organisation's normal life. The various stages in the process of organisational change may be useful to pay attention to the process in the beginning much more and this will help to pay less attention to the process as the organisational change proceeds further. Later much more attention can be given to the task.

It is necessary to understand the psychological processes behind each stage of change, and the behavioural outcomes or indicators. These are suggested in Figure 1.1.

Stage of adoption	Psychological (cover) Process	Behavioural outcomes
1. Initiation	Arousal	Readiness : dissatisfaction with the present state
2. Motivation	Selectivity and stimulus perception	Seeing or hearing about innovation
3. Diagnosis	Orientation, and exploration	Gathering information and data
4. Information collection	Exploration	Collecting more relevant data.

Concept of Managing Change	1.11	The Process of Organisational Changes
5. Deliberation	Cognitive reorganisation and reinforcement	Discussion and Planning
6. Proposal	Expectancy	Presenting one proposal with pay off and detailed planning acceptance by the group.
7. Implementation	Acquiring new-learned drives	Extended use of the innovation.
8. Stabilisation	Generalisation of the learned a behaviour and inhibition of older modes of behaviour : consummatory response.	Change of attitude and acceptance as a part of the total behavioural complex with secondary changes in other forms of behaviour : communication reinforcing adoption.

Fig. 1.1. Dynamics Sequential Processes of Change

As will be seen from the paradigm, the underlying psychological process at the initiation stage is arousal, resulting in readiness and characterised by dissatisfaction with the present state of affairs, more specifically with the practice being used currently. Readiness is the result of several maturational and environmental factors.

At the motivation stage, the overt behavioural characteristic is that the individual sees or hears about the innovation. The underlying psychological process is selectivity and stimulus perception, the stimulus being the practice the individual sees or hears about.

The diagnosis stage has an underlying process of orientation and exploration reflected in the behavioural characteristic of gathering more information about the practice.

At the deliberation stage, an important process takes place perceptual reorganisation. The relationships are shifting and the individual sees a number of patterns, as if he were looking at a kaleidoscope. These shifts in relationships are reflected in the behaviour of the individual who is weighing the pros and cons of adopting the practice and who meets people to check with them about his perceptions, concerns, ideas, etc.

At the stage of action proposal, the overt response is a tentative action plan in details, with its pay offs. This response is the result of expectancy of results.

At the stabilisation stage, characterised by change of attitude as a part of total behaviour, there is generalisation of the learned behaviour and inhibition of older modes of behaviour.

1.5 THE PROCESS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL CHANGE :

The process of change assumes qualitatively different dimensions in large and complex organisations. There are demands by the external environment and varying pressures from internal groups. In complex organisations, with rapid change in the environments, the process of change

is one of transition from the present to the future. In such a case vision becomes an important process of collectively creating models of the future, and helps most people to move towards these models. Changes are complex, involving the structure, systems, processes, and new norms and behaviour. Continuous monitoring is needed. Change has to continuously balance innovation with stability.

When an organisation undertakes to respond to a new challenge, to complex and changing environments, it needs to re-examine and re-define its mission, create a vision for the members of the organisation, and develop broad strategies of mobilising energies of most members of the organisation to move into the future. Such a change will be called transformational change. Beckhard (1989) suggests four types of changes as transformational : a change in what drives the organisation, a fundamental change in the relationship between and among organisational parts, a major change in the ways of doing work, and a basic change in means, values or reward systems.

Beckhard suggests 10 pre-requisites for success of (Table 1.1) and 8 steps in the process of transformational change (Table 1.2). The role of the top executives is critical in transformational change.

Table 1.1 : Pre-requisites of Success of Transformational Change

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|-----|---|
| 1. | Commitment of top leaders. |
| 2. | Written description of the changed organisation. |
| 3. | Conditions that preclude maintenance of the status quo. |
| 4. | Likelihood of a critical mass of support. |
| 5. | A medium to long-term perspective. |
| 6. | Awareness of resistance and the need to honour it. |
| 7. | Awareness of the need for education. |
| 8. | The conviction that the change must be true. |
| 9. | Willingness to use resources. |
| 10. | Commitment to maintaining the flow of information. |

Table 1.2 : Steps in Transformational Change

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| 1. | Designing the future state. |
| 2. | Diagnosing the present state. |
| 3. | Extrapolating what is required to go from present state to the transitional state. |
| 4. | Analysing the work that occurred during the transitional state. |
| 5. | Defining the system that is affecting the problem. |
| 6. | Analysing each of the members of the critical mass with regard to readiness and capacity. |

7. Identifying the power relationships and resources necessary to ensure the perpetuations of change.
8. Setting up an organisation (or structure or system) to manage the transformation.

1.6 SUMMARY :

In this unit, the process of change in organisations and the factors that are related to it are explained. The stages which are involved in bringing about the Organisational Change, the Psychological process and behavioural outcomes of it are discussed. Finally, Transformational, change and the Pre-requisites and the steps involved in it are described.

1.7 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST / QUESTIONS :

- 1) Discuss the Process of Change in Organisations and the factors that are important for it.
- 2) Discuss, with supporting practical illustratives, some of the changes confronting the work organisations today. What is the need for planned organisational change ?
- 3) Explain the stages which are involved in bringing about organisational change and the Psychological Process and behavioural outcomes of it.
- 4) Explain the Process of transformational change and the Pre-requisites and the steps involved in it.

1.8 FURTHER READINGS :

Planning of Change edited by W.G. Bennis, K. Benne and R. Chin (Holt Rinchart, first published 1961, and several revised editions) is a classic for the dynamics of change.

The Process of Planned Change in Education by W.H. Griffin and U. Pareek (Somaiya, 1970) has several chapters on dynamics and contains several "critical incidents" from Indian education (one of which has been borrowed in this chapter). The book has an extensive annotated bibliography on planned change.

R. Beckhard and R. Harris's *Organisational Transaction : Managing Complex Change* (Addison - Wesley, 1977) is an excellent source on understanding the processes of managing complex changes. Beckhard has discussed the dynamics of transformation change in his paper "A model for the executive management of transformational change" in the 1989 Annual (University Associates, 1980, pp. 255 - 256). Chapter 19 (Rawat, 1982) discusses the dynamics of management of change in large decentralising organisations.

Unit - 14, MS-10 : Organisational Design, Development and change - Change Agents : Skills, Block 5, IGNOU, New Delhi - 110 068.

Unit - 11, Managing Change, Block 3, MS - 1 : Management Functions and Behaviour, IGNOU, New Delhi - 110 068.

UNIT - 2

KEY ROLES IN ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Objectives:

After going through the unit you should be able to :

- understand change as a collaborative effort by several individuals and teams in an organisation.
- appreciate the function of different levels of individuals and teams.
- have ideas on improving effectiveness of the key roles.

Structure :

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Corporate Management
- 2.3 The Consultant(s)
- 2.4 Internal Resource Persons
- 2.5 Implementation Team
- 2.6 Chief Implementor
- 2.7 Task Forces
- 2.8 Summary
- 2.9 Self-assessment Test / Questions
- 2.10 Further Readings

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In order to speed up organisational change and help it to be implemented smoothly, several roles play their parts. These include both outside and internal roles. Six main roles, relevant for organisational change are discussed here. They are :

1) Corporate Management 2) Consultants 3) Internal Resource Persons 4) Implementation Team 5) Chief Implementor 6) Task Forces. Organisational change is a collaborative effort, in which several roles and individuals are involved. Various roles perform different functions. They make their specific contribution to the designing and implementation of organisational change. Various functions of the key roles are discussed below.

2.2 CORPORATE MANAGEMENT :

Corporate management includes the chief executive and several top executives who are involved in policy decisions.

The following are the main functions of corporate management in relation to organisational change.

Legitimising function : Corporate management legitimises the change being planned, recommended and implemented. The more actively the corporate management promotes the change the more legitimate it becomes and the quicker it is likely to be accepted. If the corporate management does not clearly indicate its interest and support for the change, the change is likely to be slowed down. The concern on the part of the corporate management and the visibility of such concern are very important for organisational change.

Energising function : Organisational change is a very difficult process. It may be slowed down at several stages. In many cases the enthusiasm may go down. In other cases some difficulties arising in the natural course may discourage people who may find it difficult to deal with such problems and may like to take the course of least resistance by reverting to the older methods or ways of management. The role of the corporate management at such critical points is crucial. Corporate management energises the slackening pace and interest by taking up problems for discussion and by showing concern.

Gate - Keeping function : Corporate management helps in establishing the relationship between the consultants and various groups in the organisation. This is usually done by calling various meetings in which the purpose is explained and then the consultants get an entry into the organisation.

2.3 THE CONSULTANT(S) :

A consultant or a team of consultants usually comes from out-side but they can also be insiders. The consultant's role is that of experts, who have both knowledge and experience in the field in which change is proposed. There are some advantages in having outside consultants for some time. The internal persons, even though they may have the necessary expertise, are likely to be inhibited to have their own perception of the problem. Also, they may be restrained by the internal dynamics. This may make the internal people less effective. Therefore, even organisations with a very high quality of expertise in a particular field invite outside consultants for sometimes. The following functions are performed by the consultant(s) :

Implanting function : The consultant does not supplant the internal expertise available but supplements such expertise. It is necessary that the consultant carries along with him the various people at different states of the process of organisational change. Then the consultant is able to make change a part of the organisation.

Transcending function : One great advantage of the consultant is that he is not bound by the constraints of the organisation. He takes an overall view. He transcends both the ecology of the organisation, i.e., the various units and department, to be able to take an overall view of the organisation, and also transcends the time and people into the future of the organisation. This transcending function makes the role of the consultant more creative. He thinks about the total organisation, not only as it is now, but as it is likely to be in the future. This helps to give a wider perspective to organisational understanding.

Alternatives generating function : The consultant is not as much for working out a specific

solution as for helping the organisation develop the capability of evolving solutions. The consultant does this by generating several alternatives. He also develops the ability to design interventions and ways of solving problems.

Process facilities function : The consultant is primarily a process facilitator. He has to be perceptive of the reality in the organisation. There is nothing like an ideal or a best one. The consultant may see the repercussions of the solution, and may like to make the necessary modifications to suit the situation. The consultant also helps in developing various roles as the change programme proceeds and the change is being implemented. The process facilitating role helps the consultant to move towards self-liquidation. He helps the relevant people in the organisation to take over the role as the programme is being implemented.

Shock absorbing function : During the planning of change and making necessary recommendations, much unpleasant feedback may be required to be given to the organisation. It is difficult for internal people to do so. They cannot take the risk necessary to make some things explicit. The consultant can take such risk. He can effort to absorb the shock created by the change and can help the system to confront reality and discuss certain processes which may be quite unpleasant but without which it may not be possible to move towards the solution.

Resource sharing function : The consultant brings with his background the latest knowledge and a wide variety of experience, which he uses in making organisational change effective. He collects such resources and shares them with the internal people so that the knowledge can be utilised for making the change effective.

Resource building function : The consultant helps in generating resources within the organisation by building the necessary expertise as he works with the organisation. This does not mean that he makes people dependent on him. By sharing his knowledge and experience and by continuously discussing matters with the concerned people he helps in building internal resources.

Self-liquidating function : By building internal expertise and resource he is working towards withdrawal from the organisation and liquidating his role and indispensability. In many cases the consultant enjoys the influencing function so much that he may continue to play this role in the organisation. This is bad both for the organisation and the consultant. The consultant deliberately refrains from using undue influence on internal executive decisions. And as the work of the organisational change is over he takes definite and deliberate steps to withdraw and wean the organisation from depending on him. The self-liquidating role is very difficult. Once a consultant is successful and effective, he may have the temptation to continue to influence the organisational decisions. If the consultant is not perceptive enough, and in his eagerness to be helpful he makes the organisation dependent on him, and enjoys this dependency, the results may be bad for the organisation as well as for the consultant.

The organisation should have the capacity to assimilate the influence and expertise of the outside consultant and necessary preparation should be made to make use of the consultant in the organisation. It is important that continuous communication is maintained by the consultant at all stages of the change process.

2.4 INTERNAL RESOURCE PERSONS :

Even if the expert is from the outside, some people from the organisation work with him. These people represent the same expertise as the consultant has, or, at least, they propose to develop that expertise. In many organisations, these persons are called Internal Resource Persons (IRP) or Facilitators. This role may already exist in an organisation, or this may have to be created. For example, if the management information system is to be introduced, people with enough technical experience and expertise may be involved, and, if such people do not exist in the organisation, they may have to be recruited. In several organisations HRD facilitator role is being developed as a part of implementation of the HRD system.

The IRP's help in implementing the policies and details of the organisational change as worked out and accepted, and in stabilising these in the organisation. It is only through the Internal Resource Persons that the change becomes a part of the organisation. Much more attention needs to be given to the role of the IRP. Several relevant questions in this regard are : Should the IRP be an independent individual or group as should members from different groups constitute a team to function as the IRP ? How to legitimise the IRP role in the system ? How much time is required for the IRP to develop the expertise? and so on. In many cases jealousy develops when the IRPs become successful and effective. Their success produce some feeling of threat in other members of the organisation, leading to various prejudices and jealousies. This issue needs to be discussed. Enough attention should be paid to the development of the IRP. Without such resources, the organisation may not be able to stabilise the changes. Several important aspects of the development of the IRP deserve attention, these are mentioned below :

Support of the community : The role of the IRP has to be legitimised in the organisation. It is necessary for various important roles in organisation to sit together and define the role of the IRP. The legitimisation process can be accelerated by discussing the role openly in the system rather than only appointing persons in this role by the head of the organisation. Role Analysis Technique can be used to clarify and work out the role in details. It is also useful for various members in the organisation to project their expectations from such a role. The person to be selected for such a role should have some qualities of functioning as a change agent. There should be enough time for the preparation of the person for this role.

Linkage with Consultants : The persons who grow as IRP should have linkage with several outside consultants. The initial linkage should be with the external consultant associated with the change from the beginning. The external consultant can help the IRPs through several programmes as well as by giving them graduated readings. The linkage can be established by the IRPs becoming members of some professional bodies like the Indian Society for Applied Behavioural Science, and the National HRD Network.

Stabilisation of the role : It is necessary that the role is stabilised in the system through sharing of successes and failures of this role. The review of the IRPs work can be done from time to time by the organisation.

Professional development : It is necessary to attend to the continues professional development of the internal OD facilitators. This can be achieved by helping the IRP attend some advanced programmes, become a member of the professional organisations and work with other organisations

in a helping role.

2.5 IMPLEMENTATION TEAM :

The implementation team consists of a group of people from various departments or areas of the organisation who are given the responsibility for monitoring, deliberating and making necessary recommendations from time to time. Such a team ensures proper motivation of people throughout the organisation, and takes necessary steps for effective implementation. This has been discussed at several places in this block. The following are the main functions of the implementation team.

Collaboration building function : The implementation team helps to build collaboration amongst various sections and departments of the organisation for the change programme. It should therefore be a real team, every member having respect for the other, and collectively thinking and evolving a consensus in spite of differences of views. An effective team is one which has representation of various expertise and diverse experiences relevant for the change. And yet people are prepared to listen to each other and take collective decisions which are not necessarily unanimous or by majority, although enough consensus develops.

Gate-keeping function : The implementation team helps to keep the communication between those who are planning and implementing change and the rest of the organisation open. This is done by developing liaison between the various departments and sections of the organisation. Since the team has representatives from such departments and sections, it is able to carry various matters to the departments and raise various questions there it similarly, carries back some feedback from the departments for discussion by the implementation team.

Reviewing function : The implementation team reviews from time to time the progress of the change programme, and makes necessary adjustments in the programme so that the implementation becomes effective. The reviewing function is both to take stock as well as to make necessary modification so that implementation is not hampered.

Policy formulating function : The implementation team, in the light of the review, makes necessary recommendations and formulates policies to ensure that the programme of change is both effective and smooth. This helps in making the change programme more realistic.

2.6 CHIEF IMPLEMENTOR :

Organisational change has to be implemented and this need not be done by those who are working in a particular area. In fact it is better to make implementation independent of the functional responsibility in an organisation. The chief implementor is usually the chairman of the implementation team. But his responsibility is not confined only to discussing the problems and making recommendations. He takes the responsibility of monitoring and ensuring proper implementation. The main difference between the role of the chief implementor and the implementation team is that a group can never take on executive responsibility. This can be taken only by an individual, and the group can help him to perform his function more effectively in several ways. The following are the main functions of this role.

Monitoring function : The chief implementor monitors the programme of change. He has to be a tough person, a go-getter so that he relentlessly keeps the programme on the schedule, he ensures

that the programme design that has been prepared and the time schedule that has been laid down are followed.

Diagnostic function : From time to time the chief implementor looks at the programme to find out what is preventing the smooth functioning and progress as planned. This is the diagnostic function of the chief implementor, he collects the necessary information through specially designed questionnaires or through interviews and uses these to discuss with the implementation team to be able to take necessary action for either modifying the programme or for providing additional input for the proper progress of the programme.

Executive function : The chief implementor has the responsibility of implementing the programme. This is an executive function, it involves not only making recommendations but ensuring that action is taken on whatever has been decided. He mobilises the necessary resources and works on the implementation of the programme.

The chief implementor should be systematic in his approach, he should have great concern for systematic planning and going into the details of the various steps planned. At the same time he should be flexible. If the chief implementor has his own strong views and ideas and finds it difficult to accept other's points of view he would not make a good implementor. In one organisation, an otherwise very effective implementor developed his own prejudices; and this resulted in unintended delay in the implementation of the change.

The chief implementor needs to be creative and imaginative. He comes across several problems and has to find solutions to them. He should search various ways of dealing with the problems sometimes even unconventional ways. He should also be resourceful, and should have an eye for the resources available in the organisation.

The chief implementor should have high acceptance in the system. His role requires a high level of rapport with various persons in the organisations, so that he can find out their problems, and people feel free to talk to him. He should have high respect in the system and should be known for his qualities for implementation, and for his concern for the organisation and for the people.

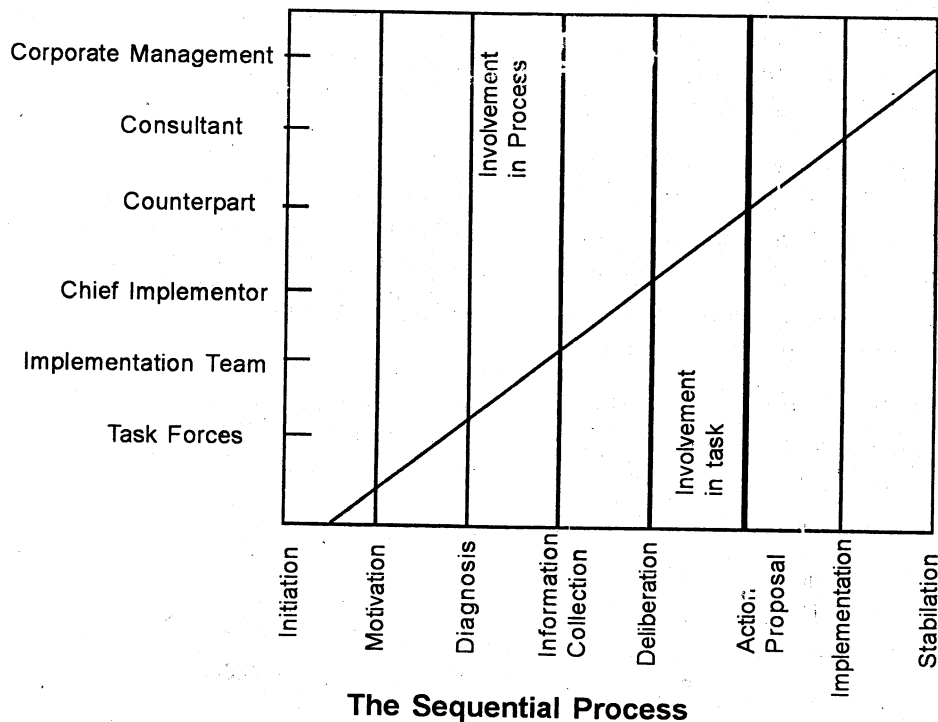
2.7 TASK FORCES :

The task forces are set up for specific purposes in order to prepare material, collect information, generate ideas, and take specific responsibility which is time bound and which is completed very fast. There may be many task forces, which get dissolved as soon as a particular task is over. The task forces help in making use of the various kinds of expertise and skills available in the organisation.

The six roles suggested above are involved both in the process and the task. However, their emphases differ. For example, the corporate management and the consultant are primarily contributing to the process. Their major function is to facilitate the process of that the necessary movement towards organisational change is possible. The internal resource persons also contribute to the process, although their preoccupation with the task increase. The most concern for and involvement in the task is by the task forces and implementation team. The chief implementor of the organisational change is certainly involved in the achievement of the task, he is also involved in the smoothening of the process.

Although, every role is concerned with the process as well as with the task, the difference may lie in terms of the emphasis. Some roles are primarily involved in the process while others are in the task, it would, for example, be dysfunctional if the chief executive or the corporate management are concerned directly with the task. Similarly, the focus of the outside consultant may be on developing the necessary understanding through diagnosis and preparation of the recommendations. But the involvement of the outside consultant in implementation of the task may not be useful, it does not mean that the corporate management or the consultants are indifferent to the task or implementation of the recommendations. They are not directly involved in action, nor do they take the major responsibility for implementation; they provide the necessary climate and support. Figure 2.1 shows this.

Fig. 2.1 : Key Roles in Sequential Process of Organisational Change



The figure also indicates the relative involvement in the process or task, that is likely to make a role effective at different stages of the change process (see unit 1). At the initial phases involvement required in the process is greater than that in the subsequent phases when gradually more involvement in the task will be possible. When the change process is being started, all roles concerned with it should pay more attention to the process and if it is properly done, the task performance becomes easier. Towards the end all roles can pay attention to the task. Moreover, the exhibit also indicates that, even towards the end the top management has to be concerned with the process though the intensity and the time spent by them will be less. As a matter of fact the involvement of the top management will be predominantly on the process only whereas that of the task force would need to pay attention mainly to the emergent tasks. The relative focus of the different roles in orienting themselves in this proportion of the process-task continuum will be useful

2.8 SUMMARY :

In this unit the key roles involved in Organisational Change are explained. How the Internal resource persons help consultants in bringing about change is described. The main functions of the implementation team and the role of the chief implementors are explained.

2.9 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST / QUESTIONS :

- 1) Explain the key roles in organisational change.
- 2) How do the Internal Resource Persons help consultants in bringing about change ?
- 3) Explain the main functions of the implementation team.
- 4) Explain the role of Chief-Implementor.

2.10 FURTHER READINGS :

Most references (suggested readings) cited at the end of unit 1 contain material on the various roles in organisational change. However, chapter 9 in *Managing Organisational Change* edited by Somnath Chattopadhyay and Udai Pareek (Oxford & IBH, 1982), from which material has been heavily borrowed in this unit, discuss the roles in details, chapter 12 discussed some issues in the role of the chief executives.

Chapter 23 of U. Pareek's *Organisational Behaviour Processes* (Rawat, 1988) and Chapter 11 of Chattopadhyay and Pareek's *Managing Organisational Change* discuss how internal resource persons can be effective and can be developed.