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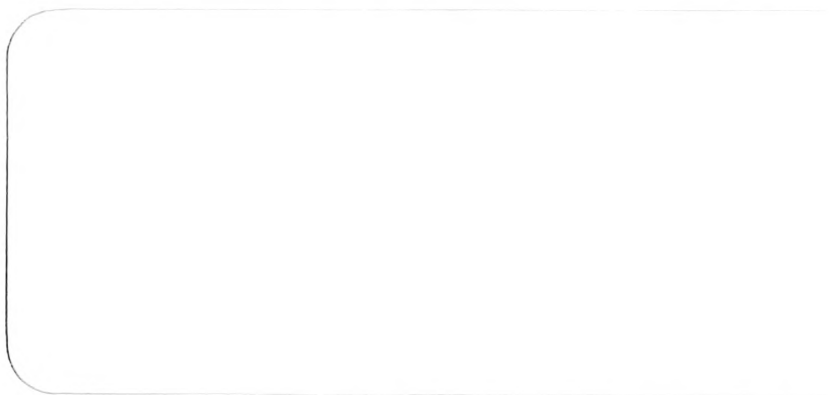
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ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE AND DEVELOPMENT:
ANNOTATED AND SUPPLEMENTAL BIBLIOGRAPHY

Larry E. Pate and Kendrith M. Rowland

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College of Commerce and Business Administration
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign



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PREFACE

This bibliography is intended as a reference source for individuals interested in both studying and improving dynamic organizational systems through primarily proactive approaches to innovation and change. It is comprehensive in nature and represents a partial synthesis and expansion of two previous bibliographical efforts (Pate 1973; Pate and Brende 1973). We have included seventy-two article reviews in the Annotated section and over 400 additional references in the Supplemental section. Articles and references are arranged alphabetically by author. References that are preceded by an asterisk in the Supplemental section have been reviewed in the Annotated section.

We consider organizational change and organizational development as overlapping yet distinctly different concepts. Neither is a subset of the other, such that one may speak both of OD as one of the ways of inducing planned organizational change and planned change as one of the activities of OD. To attempt to distinguish between them in their union is meaningless, because in this case they are defined as synonyms of one another. This union also occurs with several other concepts and activities, such as interpersonal and group dynamics, organizational design, sensitivity training, job enrichment, attitude change, behavior modification, and so forth. We have attempted to include references to each of these areas only in the sense that they fall within the domain of organizational change or organizational development.

Just as Robert Oppenheimer speaks of the world changing as we walk in it, so too do the ill-defined boundaries of organizational change and organizational development change as we study them. The boundaries are rather arbitrary at the moment. We trust that we have neither neglected too many of the relevant sources, nor included too many that are inappropriate. Comments are invited.

Champaign, Illinois
June 6, 1974

L.E.P.
K.M.R.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Anderson, B., J. Berger, B. P. Cohen, and M. Zelditch, Jr. "Status Classes in Organizations," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 11 (September 1966), 264-283.

The authors present a set of assumptions that account "for how the status structure of an organization influences how jobs are allocated to existing status classes. The key notions in the theory are the balance property, attributed to status structures generally, the diffuse property, attributed to certain status characteristics, and some ideas about how status-valued states become related." The theoretical formulation is concerned only with status in the sense of respect, worth, or esteem. From this formulation, conditions are derived under which assignment of a new job will and will not disturb the stability of an organization's existing status structure. These include: An organizational status structure is stable only if each state in it is balanced with every other state that is relevant to it; if a new state is added to an already existing, balanced, status structure, it will typically become relevant to the status classes of the organization, because it will typically be allocated goal objects already associated with its status classes; if the new state does not already have some externally given status value, it will acquire the evaluation of the status class to which it has become relevant, and hence be seen as belonging to that status class; if the new state does already have some externally given status value, the status structure of the organization remains stable if the new state is assigned to that status class with which it is balanced, or if the goal objects allocated to it are made completely independent of the status classes of the organization. Note: Article contains diagram of status state relationships; review adapted from author's summary.

Averch, V. R., and R. A. Luke, Jr. "Temporary Task Force: Challenge to Organizational Structure," Personnel, Vol. 47 (May 1970), 16-23.

Averch and Luke discuss the temporary task force, defined as "a group of employees selected from several formal organizational units and brought together to solve a specific problem, with the expectation that the group will dissolve when it finishes its work." Presumably, this design provides more flexibility in solving problems than is typically afforded by the traditional bureaucratic structure. The authors propose that organizational norms governing employee rewards, status differentials, styles of management, and utilization of innovations need to be altered to support, rather than fight, the efforts of a temporary task force. They examine the nature of these changes and some of the possible consequences for the organization and suggest guidelines for the effective use of temporary task forces. For example, in developing rapport, two steps may be needed: planning a start-up training activity and designing a continuing process in which the task force periodically considers its interpersonal maintenance needs. Other issues discussed include: costs and utilization (e.g., time invested in a temporary task force to develop new ideas is literally an investment), long-range impacts (may be an enduring change in organizational climate), role of the executive (danger in isolating the efforts of the task force), hiring a consultant (to help the members become a team), and the value of involvement of task force members in the implementation process.

Beckhard, R. "The Confrontation Meeting," Harvard Business Review, Vol. 45 (1967), 149-153.

"In periods of stress following major organization changes, there tends to be much confusion and energy expended that negatively affects productivity and organization health. The top management team needs quick, efficient ways of sensing the state of the organization's attitudes and feelings in order to plan appropriate actions and to devote its energy to the most important problems. The usual methods of attitude surveys, extended staff meetings, and so forth demand extensive time and require a delay between getting the information and acting on it. A short micromechanism called a confrontation meeting can provide the total management group with: 1) an accurate reading on the organization's health, 2) the opportunity for work units to set priorities for improvement, 3) the opportunity for top management to make appropriate action decisions based on appropriate information from the organization, 4) an increased involvement in the organization's goals, 5) a real commitment to action on the part of subgroups, and 6) a basis for determining other mechanisms for communication between levels and groups, appropriate location of decisions, problem solving within subunits, as well as the machinery for upward influence" (from article summary). Beckhard presents three actual company situations where this approach has been successfully applied, examines positive results and the possible problems that could occur through the use and misuse of this technique, and includes appendixes describing the phasing and scheduling of such a meeting. Note: This "classic" article is reprinted in Bennis, et al. (1969), in Hornstein, et al. (1971), and in Dalton, et al. (1970).

Bennis, W. G. "Organizations of the Future," Personnel Administration, Vol. 30 (September 1967), 6-19.

According to Bennis, every age develops an organizational form appropriate to its genius; the prevailing form of pyramical-hierarchical organization (bureaucracy) is out of joint with contemporary realities and is dying. There are at least four threats to bureaucracy: 1) rapid and unexpected change, 2) growth in size where volume of organization's traditional activities is not enough to sustain growth, 3) complexity of modern technology where integration of activities and persons of diverse, highly specialized competence is required, and 4) changes in managerial behavior (new concepts of man, power and organization values) based on needs to humanize and use the organization as a crucible of personal growth and development, for self-realization. Integration, distribution of power, collaboration, adaptation and revitalization are the major human problems of the next 25 years. How organizations cope with and manage these tasks will undoubtedly determine the viability and growth of the enterprise. Bennis lists some of the future conditions of the environment (e.g., interdependence rather than competition), the population (e.g., increasing education and job mobility), work values, tasks and goals, the organization (toward organic-adaptive structure), and motivation. Finally, he suggests several new and different functions (e.g., building synergetic and collaborative frameworks) in store for future directors of training and development (includes comparative chart). Note: excellent article for theorists.

Bennis, W. G. "A New Role for the Behavioral Sciences: Effecting Organizational Change," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 8 (September 1963), 125-165.

This article, based on a previous paper by Bennis and reprinted in several other volumes, is one of the author's earlier efforts to describe and analyze organizational change. Bennis discusses reasons for change, some of the traditional approaches to change, the uses of knowledge in effecting organizational change, and dilemmas in the then-new action role for the behavioral sciences (such as the work of Argyris, Blake, Jacques, and others). Much of his later writings are a restatement or reworking of many of these ideas.

I like what Bennis writes, yet I'm irritated that he chooses to publish minor rewrites of his own material in several different forms. This duplication suggests Bennis may be exploiting a good thing. In addition to the comments I've made on other Bennis articles reviewed in this bibliography, I'll cite a couple specific examples of this duplication here: his joint-article with Phil Slater, "Democracy is Inevitable," appeared in HBR (1964); later in a series of Bennis' essays under the title Changing Organizations (1966), which was recently republished in the same form under the new title Beyond Bureaucracy (1973); and as the single joint-publication in a collection of previously written essays by Bennis and Slater entitled The Temporary Society (1968). Thus, four known uses by Bennis of the same joint-article. Similarly, Bennis reused the title of his 1966 book for an address entitled "Changing Organizations" at MIT, February 1966; this address was later published under the same title in JABS, 2:3 (1966); rewritten slightly and published under the title "Beyond Bureaucracy" in the above-mentioned Bennis and Slater book (Chapter 3); included in the second edition of Bennis, et al. (Eds.), The Planning of Change (1969); and in Thomas and Bennis (Eds.), The Management of Change and Conflict (1972). That's five known uses by Bennis of the same material. Further, Bennis' books tend to be short paperbacks (e.g., Temporary Society (1968), 128 pages of text; Organization Development: Its Nature, Origins, and Prospects (1969), 82 pages of text).

However, I should also point out that Bennis is generally well-respected among behavioral scientists and that several of his articles have appeared in other readings books on organizations as well. For example, the article "Changing Organizations" also appears in Hinton and Reitz, Groups and Organizations (1971) and in Hornstein, et al., Social Intervention (1971); other Bennis articles are included in such volumes as Golembiewski and Blumberg, Sensitivity Training and the Laboratory Approach (1970); French and Hellriegel, Personnel Management and Organization Development (1971), pp. 358-376 and 445-450; Margulies and Raia, Organizational Development: Values, Process and Technology (1972), pp. 481-486; Shepard, J. M., Organizational Issues in Industrial Society (1972), pp. 107-116; Bartlett and Kayser, Changing Organizational Behavior (1973), pp. 64-83; Leavitt and Pondy, Readings in Managerial Psychology (2nd Edition, 1973), pp. 760-787; Scott and Cummings, Readings in Organizational Behavior and Human Performance (Revised edition, 1973), pp. 327-339 and 595-605; Luthans, Contemporary Readings in Organizational Behavior (1972), pp. 126-149; and Deci, et al., Readings in Industrial and Organizational Psychology (1972), pp. 191-206 and 317-323.

Bennis, W. G. "Organizational Change: Operating in the Temporary Society," Management Review, Vol. 58 (August 1969), 8-14.

Bennis discusses theoretical issues and characteristics of the Temporary Society. Among these are: temporary systems (e.g., task force or problem-solving teams), peripatetic Americans (fact: executive mobility rate has increased about fivefold since the Korean War), technology and social change (i.e., changed social patterns through such inventions of technology as commercial jets, the computer, the automobile, the Pill), mobility (positive and negative consequences), who will survive (six characteristics of people who feel comfortable in such situations), continuing education (fact: about half of the college-age population is in college), stress and group trust (e.g., the essential ingredient in this kind of group life is mutual trust), leadership and the led (fact: ours is the only nation to employ more people in service occupations than in production), collaborative leaders, and using personality effectively. This article is not substantially different from others by Bennis, for example, his "Organizations of the Future," (1967). Perhaps most useful is a list of five characteristics of the Temporary Society adapted from Bennis and Slater (1968).

Bennis, W. G. "Unsolved Problems Facing Organizational Development," Business Quarterly, Vol. 34 (Winter 1969), 80-84.

Bennis defines OD as "a response to complex environmental challenges, an educational strategy which aims to bring about a better fit between human beings who work in and expect things from organizations and the busy, unrelenting environment with its insistence on adapting to changing times." He says OD will be unable to reach its true strength unless it confronts a series of practical, tough problems, such as: (1) the politics of change (OD practitioners rely exclusively on two sources of influence, truth and love. The OD consultant tends to use the truth-love model when it may be inappropriate and has no alternative model to guide his practice under conditions of distrust, violence, and conflict. Bennis offers five guiding principles -- for example, conflict is not to be avoided, power is not a bad thing -- for the OD consultant to consider); (2) structure versus climate (OD pays lip-service only to structural or technological changes while relying only on a change in organizational 'climate.' Far more has to be done in bridging an engineering design approach with OD change strategies before the goal of socio-technical approaches can be anything more than respectable jargon); and (3) the profession of OD (There is no integrated theory of organizational change with a set of interrelated hypotheses and variables; there is no tradition of adding knowledge cumulatively to the general theory of OD practice; there is overall disinterest in long-term research projects; there is no agreed upon set of instruments to 'work up' the diagnosis; universities aren't training OD consultants, rather the organizations have 'rolled their own'. Note: Article includes a brief biographical background on Bennis; reprinted in French and Hellriegel (1971) and in Margulies and Raia (1972).

Bennis, W. G. "Will Bureaucracies Survive Much Longer?" International Management, Vol. 21 (September 1966), 75+.

The thesis of this short article is that bureaucracies as we now know them will die because they will not be able to handle tomorrow's projects and tomorrow's work force. The projects, the "fruits of the continuing technological revolution," are increasingly complex and sophisticated, and the work force is increasingly better educated and more highly specialized. For a more thorough reworking of the same material, see Bennis' (1967) article "Organizations of the Future" or his book Changing Organizations (1966), on which this article was based.

Blake, R. R., and J. S. Mouton. "Grid Organization Development," Personnel Administration, Vol. 30 (January 1967), 6-14.

Authors present an 8-point blueprint for an effective organization and propose Grid OD as one way to get there. The goal of OD is to increase operational effectiveness by increasing the degree of integration of the seven properties of organization: purpose, structure, wherewithal, knowhow, human interaction, culture, and results. Three of the seven properties are critical for development. They are purpose, human interaction, and organization culture. OD clarifies organization purposes and identifies individual goals with them to increase efforts toward their attainment; the organization's culture may be responsible for many of the organization's difficulties and a low degree of integration within it. The following six-phase approach is one way to implement an OD program: 1) study the Managerial Grid (emphasis on managerial style, not on character or personality traits) to increase awareness; 2) work team development (to apply phase 1 learning); 3) intergroup development to achieve better problem-solving between groups through a closer integration of units that have working interrelationships (first step in Grid OD that is applied to organization components rather than to individuals); 4) production of an organization blueprint by the top-team and filtered through lower levels (individuals and work teams will have developed understanding and commitment to both general and specific goals to be achieved); 5) blueprint implementation (may spread over several years); and 6) stabilization, to involve an over-all critique of the state of the OD effort for the purpose of replanning for even greater effectiveness. "There should be complete managerial confidence and competence in resisting the pressures to revert to old managerial habits." Note: argument seems weak and unconvincing.

Blake, R. R., et al. "A Second Breakthrough in Organization Development,"
California Management Review, Vol. 11 (Winter 1968), 73-78.

Follow-up article on the Grid OD effort (now in its fourth year) within the Sigma Corporation. The Grid in brief is an intellectual framework of how men manage; it summarizes management practices and compares them with managerial science findings. Grid Seminars, the initial phase in a Grid OD effort, were taught for wage and hourly employees (previously involved only managers, supervisors, and professional staff members) by Grid-experienced line managers, not by behavioral science specialists. Materials and design were the same as those used for managers. Responses, as reported by "two outside OD researchers," included: 1) there's a whole new plant-wide climate, 2) we talk over problems, get opinions, listen, and plan, 3) we know what to do now, and we figure out how to go ahead and do it, 4) I gained personally, and 5) some resist it. The study identified dynamics of the organization changes stemming from the Grid education for wage people. Clearly visible were: 1) increased commitment to the company and its purposes, 2) increased solidarity and mutual support among those in the wage ranks, and 3) the impact of the Grid education on their personal growth and development. The authors conclude wage earners are well able to understand and apply concepts and methods learned in Grid seminars, and plant-wide practical application of cooperative effort toward greater effectiveness is demonstrated on several dimensions (e.g., greater personal involvement in the work). The authors feel the study supports the assumption that "all persons, even those at the lowest wage levels, have the capacity to become psychologically involved in their work activities in a cooperative way and can become self-motivated and self-controlled within the organizational setting of a productive industrial corporation."

Boyer, R. "Development for the New Organizational Team," Business Quarterly, Vol. 34 (Winter 1969), 64-71.

This article focuses on the use of laboratory methods in an OD program designed to enhance the effectiveness of new organizational teams. Much of the description is on a "New Plant Start-up Program" implemented by a major US manufacturing corporation. The author discusses theoretical and practical aspects of the program, and offers suggestions for the transfer of the ideas and methods utilized to other organizational situations. He suggests the new team faces a number of important dilemmas, yet the primary opportunity of the team is its newness. The list of assumptions about organizational functioning and effectiveness that were used by the OD consultants included: 1) the authority structure alone is insufficient to successful task completion, 2) interdependency among people and functions is necessary and critical, 3) management of uncertainty is a central task, 4) conflict and confrontation are inherent parts of the work process, 5) openness, trust, etc. are necessary, 6) the environment is dynamic, and 7) OD requires a systems approach. The author lists the background, prework, workshop format, training strategies and outcomes of one-week OD workshops held for each of six management teams. Results were positive. Finally, the author lists 5 principles which should be incorporated into any OD program. The program should 1) be a long time perspective, 2) be continuous, 3) build around the tasks of the organization and its members, 4) focus on the total organizational system and 5) employ systems-oriented OD consultants. Advantages and disadvantages of both internal and external consultants are also considered.

Burke, W. W. "A Comparison of Management Development and Organization Development," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Vol. 7 (Spring 1971), 569-579.

In an attempt to dispel the confusion that has arisen about the conceptualization and practice of OD, it is here compared with a more familiar strategy for change in organizations - management development. This comparison is made with respect to six dimensions: reasons for use, goals, typical interventions, time frame, staff requirements, and values. OD is defined as a planned process of cultural change consisting of two phases: 1) diagnosis and 2) intervention. The primary reason for using OD is a need to improve some or all of the systems that constitute the total organization; the main reason for using some form of management development is a need to improve some aspect of the manager. OD is viewed as a process of continual organizational renewal comprised of at least five major categories of interventions: team building, intergroup problem solving, data feedback, technostructure, and training. The author concludes that the organization of today needs both strategies and that they are, in fact, complementary. Management development is conceived to be one of several interventions available in an OD effort. An appropriate OD intervention, whether it be a management development program or a change in the organizational structure, is one which originates from study and diagnosis of current, relevant data. Note: Ross (1967) offers a review of this article.

Carlisle, H. M. "Are Functional Organizations Becoming Obsolete?"
Management Review, Vol. 58 (January 1969), 2-9.

The functional organization is gradually becoming outmoded as a result of a changing environment characterized by complexity in many forms. Carlisle lists nine basic arguments against the functional form, for example: (1) no group that effectively integrates the various functions, (2) they tend to be closed systems, and (3) it encourages conflict and develops a strong resistance to change. These weaknesses primarily show up in large corporations with many product lines, competing in dynamic markets typified by advanced technology. Organizations have taken steps to modify the functional form (e.g., establishment of interfunctional committees, training programs, job rotation, special task forces) to synthesize activities. Under systems theory, an organization is considered a social system with mutually dependent parts that are subordinated to the interests of the entire organization (viewed as a natural system that is constantly adapting to a changing environment). Program management is perhaps the best existing example of applying systems theory to organizations and can take many different forms. Although program management may suffer from problems associated with 1) duplication of facilities and resources, 2) conflict between functional departments, and 3) complicated communications, resistance to change and the tendency to closed organizations are minimized because the program organization is acknowledged as temporary, to be terminated upon completion of the project. Note: For a more recent elaboration of much of the above material, see Carlisle's Situational Management: A Contingency Approach to Leadership. (New York: AMACOM, 1973).

Costello, T. W., J. F. Kubis, and C. L. Shaffer. "An Analysis of Attitudes Toward a Planned Merger," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 8 (September 1963), 235-249.

The authors present an analysis of questionnaire data from eighty-seven middle-management personnel in a bank planning a merger with a larger bank. Attitudes toward the merger tended to be favorable, although they ranged from very favorable to very unfavorable. Favorable attitudes were related to older age, lack of previous success in the organization, high morale, and high F-scale scores (authoritarianism). Unfavorable attitudes toward the merger seemed to be principally associated with: younger age, a pattern of success in the organization, low current morale, and low authoritarianism. The article includes several tables of merger data.

Croft, J. C. "Organizational Development for Thornlea: A Communication Package and Some Results," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Vol. 6 (Winter 1970), 93-106.

The author introduces his facilitative role in OD at Thornlea School, a nongraded Canadian secondary school dedicated to the learner's personal growth, with the following two statements: "Most organizations have a structure that was designed to solve problems that no longer exist" but "I am less interested in inducing any particular change than I am in fostering and nourishing the conditions under which constructive change may occur." In one sense the author's work at Thornlea could be classed as in-service training, but as the case developed the training was found to be of a very different kind from that which school people are accustomed to or acquainted with. This case study begins with the assumptions and objectives of OD in general (e.g., to create an open, problem-solving climate throughout the organization); proceeds to some background of a school which recently participated in a very brief taste of OD; presents some essential features of the communication package itself and some of the results; and concludes, of course, with some implications (e.g., "we in education need to pay a little less attention to the setting of utopian goals and the designing of ways to evaluate whether we are attaining these goals and to deal more creatively with what is available and to build the strong relationships and organizational health necessary to creating a strong enough internal state or stamina for such an organization to flourish and grow.") The article is followed by the critical comments of Gilbert D. Moore (pp. 107-110), and John R. Seeley (pp. 111-114).

Crockett, W. J. "Team Building - One Approach to Organizational Development," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Vol. 6 (1970), 291-306.

This article is a description of the first team-building meeting (between boss and subordinates) ever held in the Department of State and perhaps in any organization of the federal government throughout the United States. The article describes the serious doubts that were in the mind of the leader at the start of the meeting, how the premeeting interviews were conducted, and how the interview data were handled. The inhibitions felt by boss and subordinates upon leveling in front of one another are revealed, and the methods used by the consultants in enabling the group to confront the data and work them through are fully described. As the author shares his own fears and experiences, one can see how a team is created by the individual members in working through the data which they themselves have had available all the time. After a description of the back-home results of these efforts, the author concludes that such a workgroup is indeed a worthwhile experience; OD is not a panacea but a tough-minded management style that appears to have worked. Note: Favorable article toward OD reprinted in Burke and Hornstein (1972); the author is a 'true believer'.

Davis, K. "Evolving Models of Organizational Behavior," Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 11 (March 1968), 27-38.

Davis sequentially discusses four evolving models of organizational behavior which determine managerial and organizational practices. The notion is that "the model which a manager holds normally determines his perception of the organizational world about him. It leads to certain assumptions about people and certain interpretations of events he encounters." The underlying model serves as an unconscious guide to each manager's (and each organization's) behavior. The models discussed are: 1) Autocratic, 2) Custodial, 3) Supportive, and 4) Collegial; each successive model serves higher-order needs and is more democratic. The collegial model is characterized by mutual contribution, integration and teamwork, responsible and self-disciplined employees, enthusiasm, and a genuine commitment to task and team. The author feels that one model of organizational behavior is not an adequate label to describe all that happens in an organization, but it is a convenient way to distinguish one prevailing way of life from another. Though one model may predominate as most appropriate for general use at any point in industrial history, some appropriate uses will remain for other models; that is, a "management according to task" practice. The long-run tendency will be toward more supportive and collegial models. Note: Davis' models closely parallel Likert's (1961 and 1967) Systems Four approach; article reprinted in French and Hellriegel (1971).

Davis, S. A. "An Organic Problem-Solving Method of Organizational Change," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Vol. 3 (1967), 3-21.

In Davis's opinion, behavioral science literature does not give proper emphasis to the principle of confrontation as it relates to the improvement and development of organizations. Furthermore, sensitivity training is not effectively put into a larger context as a means to an end. This paper describes an extensive OD effort within TRW Systems which places a heavy emphasis on confrontation and the use of sensitivity training as part of an effort to improve the culture of an organization. The improvement focuses on the quality of working relationships between interdependent individuals and groups. The elements of this organic approach to organizational change are discussed (e.g., problem awareness) and a generalized time-phased model is presented. Discussion includes importance of internal-external consultant relationship, use of consulting teams, need to focus on change and process, risk taking and the building of internal resources. Note: A classic OD article reprinted in Bennis, et al. (1969), in Margulies and Raia (1972), and in Bartlett and Kayser (1973); review adapted from article abstract.

Duerr, E. C. "Reorganizing for Higher Productivity," Personnel Journal, Vol. 43 (November 1964), 548-550+.

Duerr reports on a successful reorganization at the production level of a medium-sized manufacturing company. Over 24 weeks, production increased by 14.5% and supervisory costs decreased 7.5% (charts included), presumably as a direct result of the reorganization since "conditions were such as to provide a more nearly 'controlled experiment' than is usual in this area of management." (Note: amount of control is highly questionable.) Reportedly, under the old structure, spans of control were too large, performance and morale were low, and there was little room for advancement (especially for women); however, under the new structure communications increased, women were promoted, a new tier of management was created, and management was satisfied. The author states "there was no perceptible dip in productivity, even in the short run." The author concludes: (1) supervisory positions should be clearly separated from non-supervisory positions, (2) there should be enough levels of supervision to allow direct and effective worker communications with informed supervisors, (3) hourly workers should have more than one or two levels which they can hope to attain, and (4) organization at the production level can have a substantial effect on productivity. Note: Conclusions are both ambiguous and unsupported by data; article serves as a good example of poor research.

Dyer, W. G., et al. "A Laboratory-Consultation Model for Organization Change," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Vol. 6 (1970), 211-227.

The major feature of the project reported here is the attempt to optimize both entry methods and transfer activities by a single developmental approach which involves the use of laboratory training to build a consulting relationship between internal consultants and their operating managers in an industrial organization. The essential elements of the total design included: 1) laboratory training as an initiating vehicle, 2) the use of internal Trainer-Consultants, 3) the use of data collection and feedback, and 4) a single management and organizational conceptual framework. A single framework was used to overlay prelaboratory, laboratory, and post-laboratory activity. Data from each of the 25 participating managers were collected from peers and subordinates prior to the laboratory. The laboratory allowed each manager 1) to receive data from other participants, 2) to receive data from back-home work peers and subordinates, 3) to establish a working consulting relationship with internal consultants, and, with them, 4) to begin to formulate a plan of action for back-home application. Initial results from back-home application within the organization indicate that these design features have reduced the entry and transfer problems experienced in utilizing laboratory learnings in OD. However, problems still exist in transfer of learning, namely: uneven skill on the part of the managers to implement laboratory learnings, some lack of skill on the part of the Trainer-Consultants to intervene effectively, and the existence of certain organization conditions that do not support change.



Eddy, W. B. "From Training to Organization Change," Personnel Administration, Vol. 34 (January 1971), 37-43.

The author attempts to identify the types of changes that have occurred within organization training as a result of new concepts of management and organization. These are: 1) focus is on the total system of interdependent sub-organizational groupings rather than on the individual, 2) approach to change is "organic" rather than superimposed unilaterally, 3) experiential learning techniques in addition to traditional lecture methods are utilized, 4) emphasis is upon competence in interpersonal relationships rather than upon task skills, 5) goals have to do with developing behavioral competence in addition to understanding and retention of principles, 6) value system is humanistic, and 7) less intention to refute them to augment the traditional concepts of organization (incl. chart). Some of the major thrusts are identified (e.g., Beckhard, systematic model; Blake and Mouton, Grid OD and T-Group-Consultant approach; Davis, team building; House, Management Development). Finally, the author lists points worthy of consideration by organizations contemplating a broad-gauged change program (e.g., change programs aren't successful without continued active support and involvement from top management; outcomes of training will be influenced by the total organization systems). Eddy feels successful change can be enhanced by building decisions into the management process in terms of location of training resources and utilization of internal and external resources.

Frankiel, H., and S. Eisen. "The Use of Laboratory Methods in Developing Managerial Competence," Business Quarterly, Vol. 34 (Winter 1969), 72-79.

Laboratory methods of education for developing an enhanced self awareness, and interpersonal skills and organizational competence have been in use for over twenty years. During that time these programs (T-groups, sensitivity training groups, team development labs, etc) have acquired a wide acceptance despite the not infrequent misapplication. Misapplication in part is always associated with the development of any new method. In part, misapplication has also been the result of management's decision to engage in such programs without understanding their limitations. The author views laboratory training as one of the most effectively developed strategies of an OD effort, and identifies five design-types: stranger training laboratories, cousin's training laboratories, inter-departmental laboratories, inter-group laboratories, and team development laboratories. The most characteristic feature of these methods is that they involve situations where people are almost exclusively engaged in understanding their present interpersonal relationships. Participants are engaged in ongoing experiments (hence the use of the word "laboratory"). The author describes characteristics of each type and emphasizes that each has limited utility. The choice of a laboratory training design depends on the organizational realities and the needs perceived by the manager.



French, W. "Organization Development: Objectives, Assumptions and Strategies," California Management Review, Vol. 12 (Winter 1969), 23-34.

The author lists seven objectives which typically emerge from OD programs (e.g., to increase the level of trust and support among organization members), and suggests a problem in distinguishing between appropriate and inappropriate programs, between effectiveness and ineffectiveness, and between relevancy and irrelevancy. He attempts to describe the ideal circumstances for OD programs, and to point out some pitfalls and common mistakes in organization change efforts; OD efforts are most effective when they start at the top. Assumptions about 1) people, 2) people in groups, and 3) people in organizational systems (e.g., avoid win-lose strategies) are listed, as are comments on the value and belief systems of behavioral scientist-change agents, relationship between OD and laboratory training (including objectives relating to self, role, and organization), and some conditions and techniques for successful OD programs. The key aspects of the author's action research model for OD are: diagnosis, data gathering, feedback to the client group, data discussion and work by the client group, action planning, and action. The sequence tends to be cyclical with the focus on new or advanced problems as the client group learns to work more effectively together. Successful OD tends to be a total system effort; a process of planned change - not a program with a temporary quality; and aimed at developing the organization's internal resources for effective change in the future. Note: excellent article; reprinted in Margulies and Raia (1972).

Ganesh, S. R. "Choosing an OD Consultant," Business Horizons, Vol. 14 (October 1971), 49-55.

Because a number of misconceptions exist concerning the nature of OD, prospective clients may have difficulty in choosing an OD consultant. This article identifies five questions as critical to the choice of an OD consultant. These are: 1) How is the need for help defined? 2) What is the role of the consultant? 3) How is the client system defined? 4) What is the nature of time commitment? and 5) What is the nature of the consulting activity? Two distinguishable orientations - the systemic (SR) and human relations (HR) - are identified among consultants in responding to these questions. Based on research interviews, the author lists opinions of eleven established OD consultants to the issues raised by these questions. Finally, a check list of questions is provided to help a client better define his needs for consulting services and choose a consultant with an orientation appropriate to the task. The author identifies likely characteristics of the SR and HR consultants, and concludes an SR orientation is the preferred orientation for OD work (e.g., SR orientation tends to encompass a wider spectrum of activities than an HR orientation).

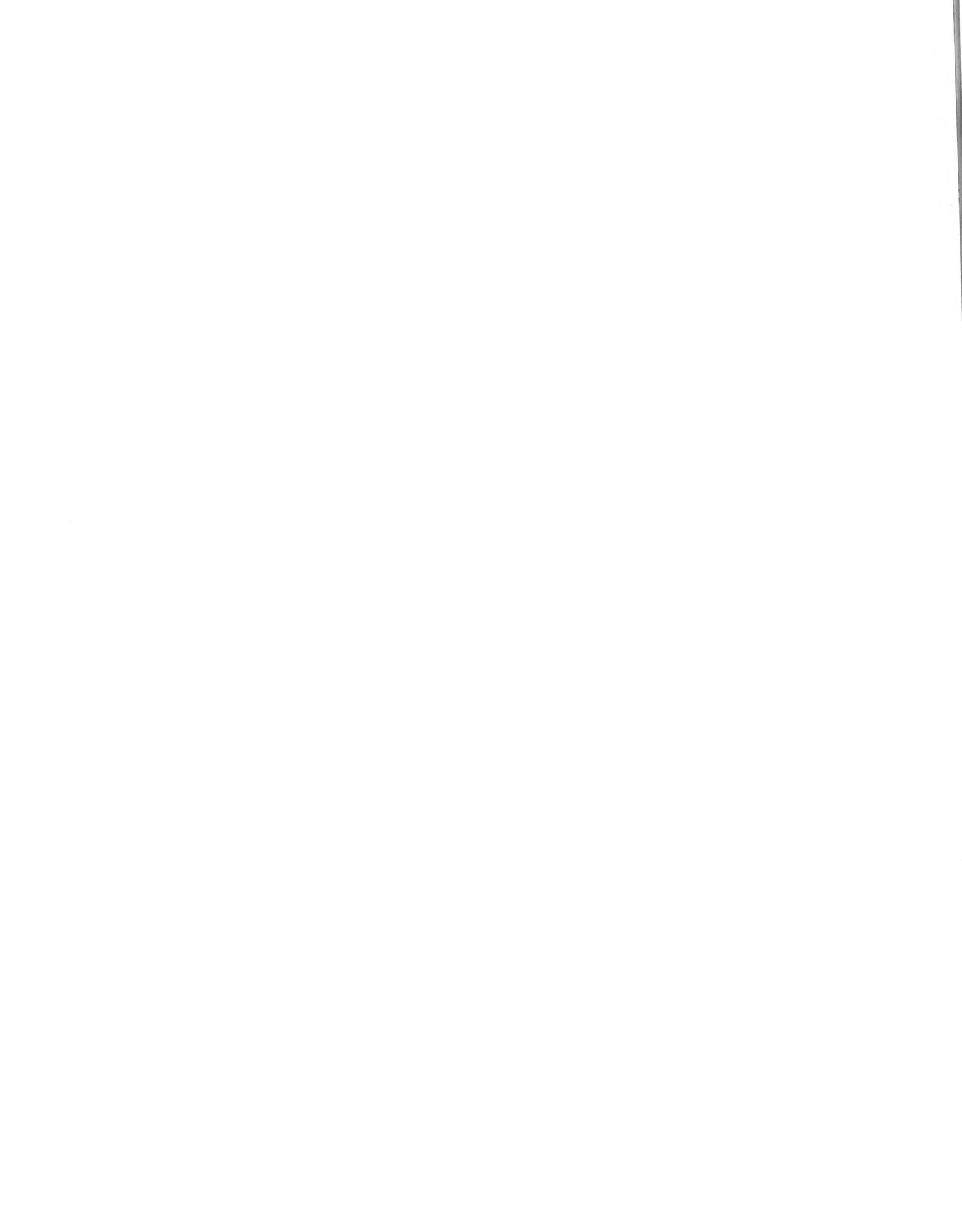


Golembiewski, R. T., and S. B. Carrigan. "Planned Change in Organization Style Based on the Laboratory Approach," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 15 (March 1970), 78-93 (bibliography).

"This study reports the design and results of an effort to change the organization style of a sales unit in a business organization. The learning design was derived from the laboratory approach to organization development, and sought to create a specific kind of social order as well as to provide experience with appropriate skills and attitudes. Changes in organization style were measured with Likert's profile of organizational characteristics. A one-week learning experience helped induce significant changes in self-reports by managers about the style of interpersonal and intergroup relations in their organization, judging from before and after administrations of the profile. The bulk of the learning time was spent in a sensitivity training session, which was intended to prepare subordinates for a confrontation with their superiors concerning the needs of both as they were variously met by their unit's interpersonal and intergroup climate. The entire managerial population was exposed to the learning design, so that there was no control group. Therefore, the changes in self-reports can only be tentatively attributed to the experimental design, rather than to random factors of the passage of time. (Note: Above review from article abstract)." Finally, this article contains charts and diagrams. The authors also discuss long-run and short-run goals of planned change and problems of measuring progress, and is followed by a harsh review by S. W. Becker, entitled "The Parable of the Pill," pp. 94-96.

Golembiewski, R. T., and S. B. Carrigan. "Persistence of Laboratory-Induced Changes in Organization Styles," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 15 (September 1970), 330-340.

Changes in interpersonal and intergroup styles in a small managerial population were observed following exposure to a learning design based on the laboratory approach. An earlier report concentrated on before/after changes over a four-month interval. Managerial self-reports on the Likert profile of organizational characteristics were used to gauge change. This report establishes the basic persistence of the initial changes over a period of some 13 months. Despite various inelegancies of the design and methods of this field study, the persisting changes strongly imply that the training design induced the changes. This report also suggests the value of a design element to help reinforce change in programs of organization development. In this case, a mild reinforcement session was held about one year after the initial training. (Note: Review from article abstract; includes tables and charts of data.)



Greiner, L. "Successful Organization Change: The Ingredients That Make it Stick," Management Review, Vol. 56 (August 1967), 48-54.

Condensed from Greiner's popular article, "Patterns of Organization Change," HBR, 1967. From a survey of 18 studies of organizational change (e.g., Blake and Mouton, 1964), Greiner found several identifiable patterns in the evolution of change. Among these are: 1) severe pressure (from serious environmental factors and internal events), 2) intervention and reorientation by an outsider, 3) problem diagnosis and recognition (through face-to-face contact), 4) solution and commitment (emphasis on collaboration and participation in developing group solutions), 5) experimentation and search (i.e. reality testing before large-scale changes), and 6) reinforcement and acceptance (result in improved organization performance). According to Greiner, the current focus of organizational change is on the organization as a whole. The three major approaches generally used to introduce organization change are those based on 1) unilateral action (decree, personnel replacement, and restructure of formal organization and layout), 2) sharing of power (group decision making and group problem solving), and 3) delegated authority (case discussion and T-group sessions). Successful change depends on a redistribution of power within the structure of an organization and this power redistribution occurs through a developmental process of change. Note: Original HBR article is reprinted in Dalton, et al. (1970) and in Bartlett and Kayser (1973).

Greiner, L. E. "Evolution and Revolution as Organizations Grow," Harvard Business Review, Vol. 50 (July 1972), 37-46.

Greiner maintains that growing organizations move through five distinguishable phases of development (creativity, direction, delegation, coordination, and collaboration), each of which contains a relatively calm period of growth that ends with a management crisis. He argues, moreover, that since each phase is strongly influenced by the previous one, a management with a sense of its own organization's history can anticipate and prepare for the next developmental crisis. Greiner's position is that the future of an organization may be less determined by outside forces than it is by the organization's history; management problems and principles are rooted in time (e.g., employee behavior becomes not only more predictable but also more difficult to change when attitudes are outdated). This article provides a prescription for appropriate management action in each of the five phases, and it shows how companies can turn organizational crises into opportunities for future growth (e.g., know where you are in the developmental sequence, recognize the limited range of solutions, and realize that solutions breed new problems). Note: excellent article and model of organizational change.

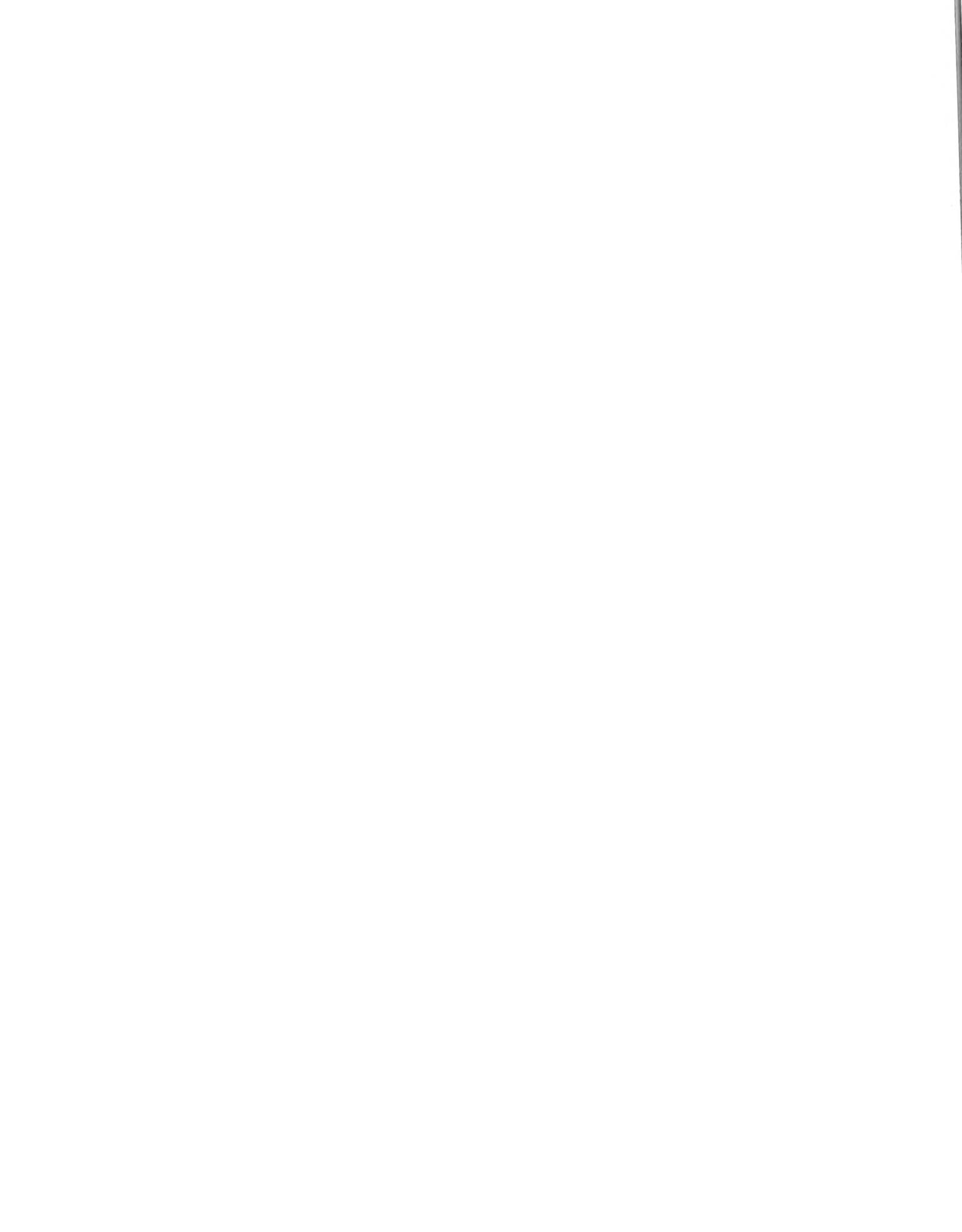


Grinnell, S. "Organization Development - An Introductory Overview," Business Quarterly, Vol. 34 (Winter 1969), 24-31.

This article discusses the development of more effective coping processes for organizations and individuals in response to change through the use of OD. Grinnell's argument is that the size, complexity, rate of change, and scope of change with which executives and their organizations must deal has made the development task both more urgent and more difficult; change is the motivator of OD. In sequence, the author considers: 1) the kinds of change to which OD efforts are directed; 2) five kinds of non-developmental responses to change that are typically made by executives and organizations (denial, working harder, more complexity, management by crisis, and individual or departmental invention); 3) the kinds of developmental coping processes that OD intends to facilitate as more effective responses to change; 4) the kinds of individual characteristics that organizations need to develop in order to support the development of more effective coping processes; and 5) some of the key strategies and assumptions that are shared widely among OD practitioners wherever they are applying them (such as optimism about people). Note: This issue of Business Quarterly is exclusively devoted to OD.

Hall, D. T., and R. Mansfield. "Organizational and Individual Response to External Stress," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 16 (December 1971), 533-547 (bibliography).

"Organizational and individual changes resulting from severe environmental stress in three research and development organizations were studied at the beginning and the end of a 20-month period. The changes were examined with both longitudinal and independent sample data. The greatest changes occurred in the way researchers perceived their jobs and their organizations rather than their self-perceptions or attitudes toward their work. Despite the greatly decreased satisfactions experienced by the researchers, their job involvement and aspiration levels did not change greatly, and their intrinsic motivation decreased in one of the two samples studied. It was concluded that this lack of expected individual coping behavior must be associated with high levels of internal strain for the researchers, although some strain was probably reduced by becoming alienated from the organization (abstract)." Note: includes figures and tables.



Helmich, D. L., and W. B. Brown. "Successor Type and Organizational Change in the Corporate Enterprise," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 17 (September 1972), 371-381 (bibliography).

"This research examines the hypothesis that corporate organizations experiencing inside succession in the office of the president exhibit less organizational change than firms undergoing outside succession. The type of succession is related to a combined measure of organizational change based on position shifts and personnel turnover in the executive role constellation. The research also controls for background effects from five potentially confounding variables: organizational performance, successor's style of leadership, intensity of operations, organizational size, and administrative growth in the industry. Measurable events of the succession process of the organization are emphasized, rather than the direct observation of social organizational patterns that emerge in the executive group itself. The data base is derived from 208 chemical and allied product corporations which have experienced presidential succession at least once in the ten-year period of analysis. The analysis of the data using the partial gamma coefficient and a modification of the chi-square statistic supports the basic hypothesis." Note: includes figures, tables and appendix; review from article abstract.

Herman, S. M. "What Is This Thing Called Organization Development?" Personnel Journal, Vol. 50 (August 1971), 595-603.

This article poses a number of questions relating to the conditions required for a successful OD effort. The usefulness of these questions lies in the fact that the answers may help to determine the opportunities for success in a particular organization, as well as help to highlight problems or obstacles to be dealt with in establishing an OD program. The author examines the nature of sensitivity training as it relates to OD, presenting both positive and negative views. He notes that OD involves not merely sensitivity training, but an effort to affect the organization culture. Some examples are presented to illustrate that the prevailing assumptions, values, and norms which comprise an organization culture provide an extremely powerful framework within which any individual member must operate. The "Organizational Iceberg" is a useful model to characterize organizational dynamics. In addressing the processes of diagnosis and change of an organization culture, the model reflects the importance of recognizing that in reality an organization is comprised of much more than its formal structure and mechanisms. All parts of the organization and its dynamics are appropriate subjects for exploration and change, not merely the organization's formal component. Finally, the author mentions some of the consequences of ignoring or denying the legitimacy of certain organizational processes-- such as differences in role concepts among organization members; power and influence patterns; competitions and alliances; and individual needs, desires, and feelings. The consequences of these informal processes being suppressed as illegitimate in a business setting are often dysfunctional. Perhaps one of the most significant negative consequences of avoiding such dynamics within organizations is that it tends to foster an environment in which there is general reluctance to ask for, receive or give help between individuals and between organizations.

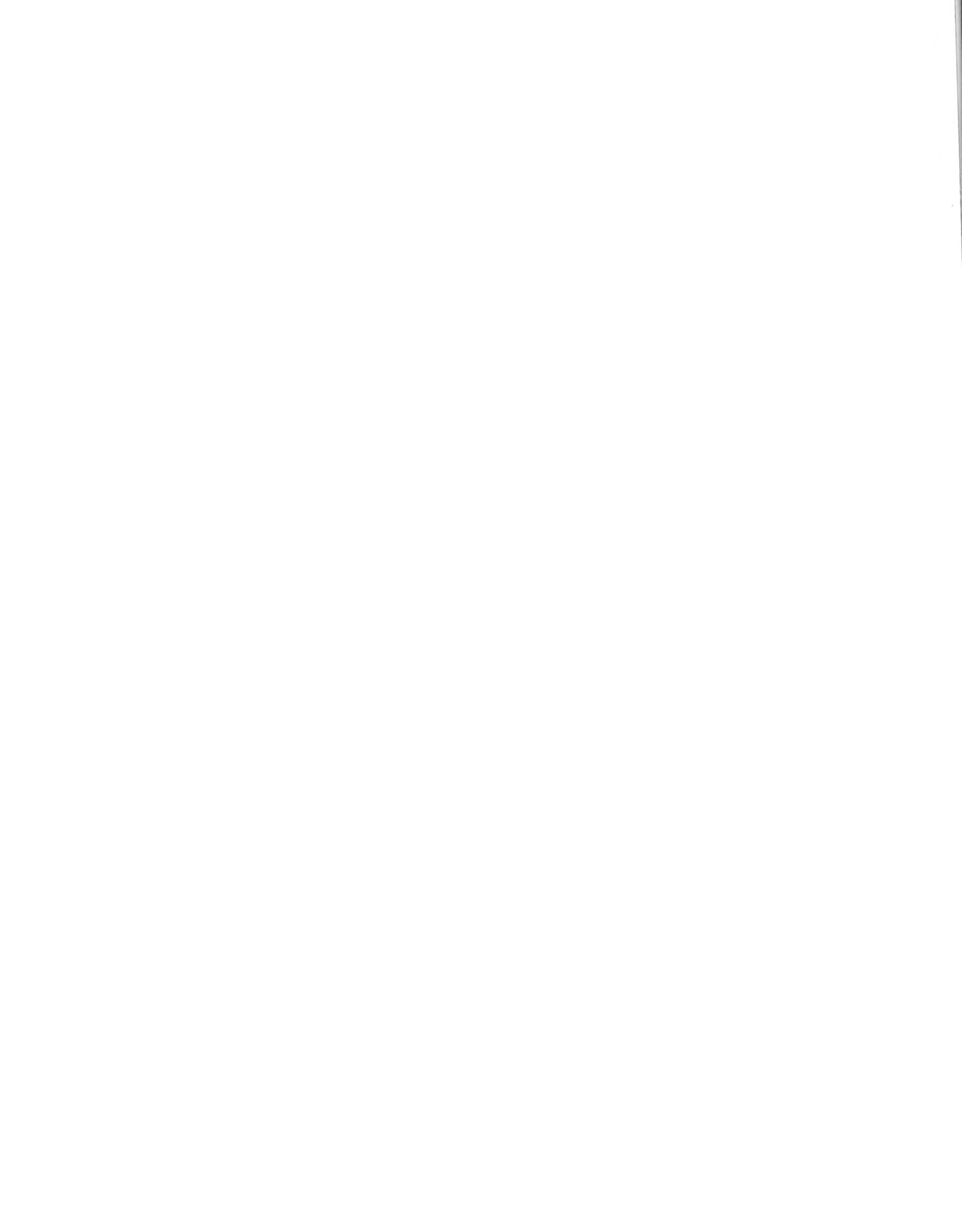


Hill, M. "Manager as Change Agent," Personnel Journal, Vol. 50 (January 1971), 60-63.

This article seeks to explore the relationships between the line manager and the management development specialist in their roles as change agents. Unnecessary dysfunctional relationships occur when these individuals hold different assumptions about what constitutes an effective organization. The emphasis should be on the effective management of conflict, rather than simply expecting conflict to disappear. Basic to this approach is the idea that the abilities needed to resolve most maintenance issues already exist within most organizations. According to Hill, the role of the change agent is 1) to focus attention on the productive use of maintenance energy, and 2) to help managers to develop understandings and interpersonal skills needed to identify and deal with maintenance issues directly and constructively. This involves examining conflicting views of "problems" and "solutions," and it involves making good decisions beginning with a thorough diagnosis. The change agent can help in several ways (e.g., help the manager develop diagnostic skills and avoid single-cause solutions). The key assumption is that the manager must learn to see problem situations for himself. Note: interesting article; author is sensitive to several key issues.

Holmes, W. F. "Preparing for Change," Administrative Management, Vol. 31 (October 1970), 80-81.

In this short article, Holmes lists training and planning as management solutions for dealing with inevitable organizational change. Holmes offers the following requirements for accomplishing change: 1) impetus must come from the top, 2) a strategy must incorporate the behavioral, structural and systems dimensions of change, 3) managers at all levels must be actively involved as change agents, and 4) the change effort must be continuous. Flexible organizational arrangements, to include task forces, project teams and problem solving groups, will be necessary in the future; even more important, however, is behavior change. This requires laboratory training, group process, team building and other behavioral-based programs. Note: weak article; says nothing that isn't said better elsewhere; e.g., Greiner (1967).



Hodgson, R. C. "Developing Human Resources in the Organization of the Future," Business Quarterly, Vol. 34 (Winter 1969), 52-63.

Despite the popularity of the behavioral sciences as topics for speeches, seminars and training programs, the author considers the actual effect on management behavior as having been quite superficial. To date, there have probably been more failures than successes in attempts to apply the behavioral sciences to the more effective management of people in organizations. Among the barriers between theory and practice has been communications difficulties between behavioral scientists and managers, and the overly-specialized, unidimensional approach adopted by many academics in addressing themselves to practicing managers. In response, the author presents a different approach to the topic and discusses its four major characteristics: 1) It takes a management point of view toward the behavioral sciences, rather than vice-versa (i.e., that it believes in nothing on the basis of theory, but only in that which produces results.); 2) It takes a multidimensional approach to the development of human resources in organizations. Ten different, but interrelated approaches are presented which are used in delineating useful ways for improving the caliber of the human organization. Those presented include job improvement, MBO, interpersonal skills, participative management, matrix organization, incentive recognition feedback systems, and OD. No one approach is considered either necessary or sufficient to produce long-term results; 3) It stresses differential diagnosis. That is, emphasis on ways of defining what "people problems" actually exist in any given organization, and picking the developmental approach that most closely relates to the nature of the problem at hand, rather than picking a technique because it is "in," or because it is the only technique in which the staff expert is interested in at the moment; and 4) Its implementation strategy puts the definition of human problems, the selection and application of appropriate developmental techniques, and the measurement of results into the long-term context of corporate policy, anticipated manpower needs and planned organization change. The relationship between line and staff managers in carrying out human resource development activities is significantly different within this framework from that prevalent today in personnel management.

"How BASF Is Bridging Its Generation Gap," International Management, Vol. 24 (August 1969), 34-35+.

Dr. Timm, BASF's top manager, discusses the organizational changes (both proactive and reactive) that have occurred within BASF since World War II. BASF's 1968 sales were about \$1.4 billion and, with the help of a management consultant firm (McKinsey & Co.), BASF is energetically expanding both the scope and nature of its business to include international markets. Organizational strategy between 1945 and 1960 was to reconstruct the company and catch up with technological progress. Since then BASF has made continuous organizational changes, to include: acquire other companies, regroup the internal structure of production and sales, cooperate with competitors, and compete with customers. Timm feels organizational problems can be treated more objectively with the help of an outside consultant. BASF's current major problem is to train a new generation of leaders to fill the soon-to-be-vacant upper management positions.

"How Companies Overcome Resistance to Change," Management Review, Vol. 61 (November 1972), 17-25.

The author (unknown) lists seven ways of overcoming resistance to change based on interviews with consulting firms. These are: 1) avoid surprises, 2) make your change their change, 3) promote real understanding, 4) bring in a new man, 5) spot change agents strategically, 6) stand ready to pay the price of change and mistakes, 7) set the stage for change. Types of changes discussed from case examples include: conversion of product line from dealer-distribution to in-house sales, change in piecework incentive system, implementation of EDP decentralization plan, major change involving several key men and their jobs, retirement of the company president, new general manager hired from the outside, expansion, merger, abandon one product line and develop another, major reorganization, and adoption of new customer-services program. Other issues discussed include: plant grievances, communications and interchange, leadership, feedback, rate of change, use of competitor as partner in bringing about change, individual career opportunities. Finally, six steps are listed (e.g., rotate line and staff assignments to broaden managerial scope and stimulate imagination) that a company can take to prepare its people for change. Note: weak argument.

Huse, E., and M. Beer. "Eclectic Approach to Organizational Development," Harvard Business Review, Vol. 49 (September-October 1971), 103-12.

As OD methods have developed over the past 20 years, they have generally been described and taught one at a time for management audiences. The result is that many managers have come to equate OD with a particular technique, and if it is one with which they feel uncomfortable, they may think they have to reject the whole concept. This article, in describing the OD approach used in a company which manufactures laboratory electronic instruments, points out that increased organizational effectiveness does not depend on the use of particular tools. The OD approach which continues to be used at the plant has been eclectic since the beginning, and is based on four basic beliefs: 1) Employees desire responsibility, challenging work, and an opportunity to grow and develop; 2) No single OD technique can be completely effective by itself; different managers should be expected to employ different methods, and their choice of method can be expected to change depending on circumstances; 3) Operating managers will continue to use those techniques and approaches that help them perform their jobs more easily and effectively; and 4) The role of the change agent should be to help the operating manager do his job better, by acting as a resource, but not tell him how to do his job.

Although the managers used a number of OD approaches, the article mentions three in particular: 1) job enrichment (changing the structure of jobs to provide individuals with more opportunity to handle work with responsibility for planning, doing, and evaluating their own work), 2) autonomous or integrated work teams (creating cohesive work groups around interrelated or interdependent jobs), and 3) the principle of the "integrator" (integrators are used to bring together more closely work groups with differing goals and objectives). Jobs, communications, and organizational structure, to identify just a few dimensions of the program, were shaped by the managers to allow employees to satisfy their work needs. The result was increased involvement in work, commitment to the organization, motivation, and personal growth, and an overall increase in the effectiveness of the plant.

Kegan, D. L. "Organizational Development: Description, Issues, and Some Research Results," Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 14 (December 1971), 453-464, (Bibliography 463-464).

Kegan defines OD as "an educational strategy employing experienced-based behavior in order to achieve a self-renewing organization." The growth of OD from sensitivity training is discussed, and various issues in current OD practice are raised--including spontaneous and planned approaches to organizational change. The author believes that elements of both planning and spontaneity contribute to successful change efforts. Specifically, while the overall goals of an OD effort and some of the strategy may be planned before the organization becomes intensively involved with the OD program, it is likely that the program will be more effective if many of the tactics and micro-strategies evolve during the development of the change program. Some results of a research project in the R & D departments of two large industrial companies are reported, which supported the hypothesis that a "proper" OD program (one in which competent applied behavioral scientists believe to have met previously established preconditions for success) will increase individuals' feelings of trust toward their own work group and toward others, while keeping the individuals aware of the demands of their tasks. However, supplementary research information indicated that OD's norms of confrontation, choice, and collaboration may conflict with traditional bureaucratic values, such as conformity and obedience. On the basis of these additional findings, the author concluded that some evaluators tended to rate as less effective individuals who were aggressive and confronting, in spite of the organizational benefits of such behavior. Managers were also liable to be ambivalent about new mechanisms of control, even in change programs of which they explicitly approved. Participants in an OD program should be aware that other members of their organization may be hostile to the OD program, and the strategy of the program should reflect an awareness of the organizational climate.

Kolb, D. A., and A. L. Frohman. "An Organization Development Approach to Consulting," Sloan Management Review, Vol. 12 (Fall 1970), 51-65.

Kolb and Frohman present a model of consultation which is intended to increase the effectiveness of the consultative process. They observe that planned change is most appropriate in the context of a total OD program, and when the consultant's interventions are directed not only at solving the organization's immediate problem, but also at improving its ability to anticipate and solve similar problems. The model has seven stages, which are not clear-cut in practice and which may occur sequentially or simultaneously: 1) Scouting (both client and consultant explore the potential relationship); 2) Entry (client and consultant establish a collaborative relationship, share expectations, and agree on individual contributions); 3) Diagnosis (focus on identifying the interrelationships in the client system, defining its goals, determining where to intervene, and assessing client's and consultant's resources); 4) Planning (generate alternative solutions or change strategies, attempting to anticipate the consequences of each); 5) Action (implement the best change strategy; the failure of most plans lies in the unanticipated consequences of the change effort); 6) Evaluation (in terms of the specific objectives defined during the planning phase, determine whether to terminate or return to planning, and perhaps to the entry stage for further contract negotiation with the client); and 7) Termination (according to conditions and agreements in the initial entry contract).

A feedback loop, from planning to entry, defines the need for continuing re-negotiation with the client, in the light of diagnosis and planning activities. A second loop, from evaluation to planning, defines the need for using the evaluations of previous actions to modify planning activities. The most effective developmental path of a consulting relationship is derived when the issues of each stage are resolved before confronting those of the next.

Kolb, H. D. "What is the Role of the Director of Personnel in Applying Theories of Organization Development?" Personnel Administration, Vol. 29 (May-June 1966), 41-42.

A short article in which the author attempts to answer the question posed in its title (see also Neustadter 1966). Kolb feels the personnel director has a specific responsibility to bring about improvements in the effectiveness of the organization, rather than being just an administrator of personnel procedures. To do this requires innovation and creativity in ways to strengthen the organization both in terms of the people it has and their behavior as a group. The personnel director should also be concerned with the concepts of development that are based on studying the way the organizational unit as a whole is functioning and getting a better resolution of how to move toward greater effectiveness. He needs 1) to increase his own knowledge of the principles underlying such developmental activities, 2) to be able to steer his company into sound ventures, avoiding ill-advised "fads", 3) to promote management's awareness of the potential in this activity, 4) to contribute continuity of effort that will avoid the "flash-in-the-pan" moves which raise expectations of better working relationships, but fail to sustain such expectations. Kolb concludes that progress toward utilizing the newer approaches to OD will depend greatly on the extent to which the personnel director is experimentally minded and seeks to make a contribution in that direction.

Levinson, H. "Easing the Pain of Personal Loss," Harvard Business Review, Vol. 50 (September 1972), 80-88.

Levinson's thesis is that management is increasingly aware that in pursuing traditional organizational goals it can leave a wake of human costs (exacted in terms of employee alienation and reduced productivity). The experience of loss is a subtle, often overlooked, phenomenon that robs people of psychological stability and deprives organizations of effective human resources. In this article, Levinson maintains that loss is precipitated whenever people "lose" their psychological attachments to familiar people, places, and managerial practices. Any change, even promotion, can have a severe loss component. After describing the four most critical types of psychological deprivation in organizations, the author presents some very humanized measures that management and individuals can take to facilitate a process of adaptation and restitution. These are: become aware about the problem and talk about it, provide relocation and guidance, match jobs and people (toward behavioral consistency), and maintain the organizational ideal.

Lindgren, N. "Organizational Change Has to Come Through Individual Change," Innovation, No. 23 (August 1971), 36-43.

An interview with Bob Tannenbaum, OD consultant, who suggests that although an organization takes on a life of its own - in terms of norms, values, history, technology - real organizational changes don't come about through shuffling the organizational structure, but through individuals changing their attitudes and behavior. Tannenbaum briefly discusses consultative style, charm schools, "Dale Carnegieism", consultant-client relationship, T-group trainers, characteristics of effective consultants, methods, techniques and skills needed, and cites examples of his consultative style to illustrate. Tannenbaum states that 1) not enough real concern has yet been focused on the growth of individuals within their social and organizational contexts, 2) the route toward greater effectiveness (toward improved styles), is through us as individuals, through our becoming more effective human beings, 3) the way we talk about our styles often does not accurately reflect what in fact we do, 4) interpersonal effectiveness depends upon being both sensitive and flexible, 5) we tend to see what we want to see or have to see, we tend to hear what we want to hear or have to hear, 6) the main source of a person's security is his trust and confidence in himself, what he knows, who he is, and 7) the two processes - individual growth and organizational growth - are interrelated and reciprocal, and must be worked more or less simultaneously. He speaks of personal needs interfering with one's behavioral flexibility and how quickly the organization binds the individual and conditions him into a narrower mode of behavior. The article includes a brief background on Tannenbaum.

Luckham, A. R. "Institutional Transfer and Breakdown in a New Nation: The Nigerian Military," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 16 (December 1971), 387-405 (bibliography).

"The breakdown of discipline in the Nigerian Army during the two coups of 1966 is examined in order to elucidate problems which arise in the creation of new organizations in new nations. Stress is laid upon factors, such as high mobility rates, which are likely to characterize most newly created organizations, as well as upon the special problems which arise from reconciling latent, primordial identities with organizational loyalties. It is suggested that conflict was particularly severe because the Nigerian Army, like other militaries, is an organization in which the charismatic authority of the heroic leader is developed at the lower levels of the hierarchy, giving rise to stress when the charisma of subordinate commanders comes in conflict with that of their superiors and with the need for disciplined control and use of the means of violence." Note: Article includes several tables; review from article abstract.

Margulies, N. "The Myth and Magic in OD: Powerful and Neglected Forces," Business Horizons, Vol. 15 (August 1972), 77-82.

The purpose of this article is to offer another slightly different perspective of OD. The author suggests that the effects of OD are based partially on the elements of magic and spiritualism provided in the client-consultant relationship, and that what is currently being done in OD cannot be viewed as solely and entirely a rational scientific process. As it is now described in the literature, OD is less a science than an art, and less an art than a magical, spiritual process between consultant and client. The OD consultant's actions and intentions are those of spiritual healer, and his motivations are directed through therapeutic channels.

There are two major dimensions of the magic of OD -- the placebo and doctrinal compliance. In the case of the placebo, the client is already enthusiastic and committed to change; OD is simply the psychological force that initiates the process. Under doctrinal compliance, the force is the client-consultant relationship and the implicit desire on the part of the client to act in terms of the doctrine prescribed by the consultant. Even if the changes made are surface ones, potentially real organization change is now possible.

The article concludes with descriptions of four myths which have developed around OD, and which help block out the magical, spiritual qualities. The myth of the OD discipline emphasizes the fact that OD is based on rational scientific principles, and as such is a discipline in embryonic form. But the evolving issues seem to resemble, for the most part, older problems which have come from a variety of other practices and a variety of other disciplines. The myth of nonresearchable variables has to do with the general resistance toward traditional research in OD. This myth is reflected in the contradiction between the covert claim of OD consultants that what they do is based on solid scientific knowledge, and, at the same time, the fact that they resist the use of scientific methods of inquiry for research and study of OD phenomena.

The myth of newness adds a dimension to OD which, in some sense, facilitates the process of change. This quality arises from the idea that since the methods and techniques are new, they must be more effective. In many instances, it appears that the processes and methods of OD are simply older, well-established methods which have taken on new names and new labels, and are being applied in different situations. The myth of increased effectiveness reflects the argument that moving in the direction of OD values can improve the organization's ability to meet its goals. So far, however, little evidence has been presented to demonstrate that this hypothesis is true. For example, more authentic relations do not necessarily mean an increase in organizational profits.

McAllister, J. "Managerial Grid: The Pursuit of Excellence," Sales Management, Vol. 96 (March 13, 1966), 81-98.

Another account of the effectiveness and popularity of the Blake-Mouton Grid. The author presents an overview of Grid OD, described as "a kind of road map" which "gives us a fix on where we are and it tells us where to go." The article lists several satisfied users of the Grid, for example Simmonds Precision Products (see: Simmonds 1967), Pillsbury Co. and Humble Oil. The author describes the Grid, Grid seminars, the "in-basket" problem, the re-entry problem of Grid-trained managers (including a Blake-Mouton solution on two levels), and the Six-Phased Plan (see: Blake, et al., 1967). Comments from all admirers are favorable, and the author concludes "In any case, the Grid system is working fine for Drs. Blake and Mouton. Since Scientific Methods was incorporated in 1960, the operation was doubled by any yardstick you want to pick..Sales of 'The Managerial Grid' textbook have reached 30,000."

McNulty, J. E. "Organizational Change in Growing Enterprises," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 7 (June 1962), 1-21.

McNulty attempts to assess the effects of one kind of environmental change, that involving substantial growth in markets, on administrative organization, with a view to finding out something about dynamical propositions, notably the extent of adaptation - whether it appeared to have the Simon "satisficing" flavor (and the broad methods used for changing organization), whether they were especially developed for the occasion or whether they were built into existing organization systems. By means of questionnaire and interview techniques used on a cross section of thirty southern-California-based companies which participated in the growth of that area during the period 1947-1955 (charts included), the two special subjects of interest are: 1) the extent of administrative adaptations to growth in operations, and 2) the extent to which associated changes were explicitly introduced. The results indicate a high incidence of "paper" changes in administrative arrangements. Of greater interest is the suggestion that adaptation was not clearly better in the case of companies which explicitly introduced organization changes than it was for companies which did not. A number of implications of both theoretical and practical significance follow, among them the notion of relying in the future more on "built-in" mechanisms for organizational change rather than on ad hoc solutions.
Note: excellent article.

Nedd, A. N. B. "Simultaneous Effect of Several Variables on Attitudes toward Change," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 16 (September 1971), 258-269 (Bibliography).

This study determines whether selected personality variables (psychological differentiation, motivator-hygiene orientation, interpersonal trust and risk, and relative masculinity) and situational variables (subject's level in the organization hierarchy, length of service, pressure to meet production goals, degree of bureaucratization, and proximity to the change) were predictive of the rationality of subjects' responses to changes introduced into an organization. The changes involved somewhat novel approaches to production management and employee compensation. A conceptual framework suggested by Barnes (1967) was used to construct a measure of the rationality of subjects' responses to the changes. The study was guided by a systemic conceptual framework which posited that organization outcomes are multidetermined and that variables do not necessarily interact in a unidirectional manner. The findings indicated that personality factors, specifically the subject's affective and cognitive styles, as indicated by his propensity to take risks rather than his environmental circumstances determined the relative rationality of his responses to the changes. This study constitutes an exploratory exercise in the use of econometric procedures in the behavioral sciences, and attempts to synthesize the theoretical formulations developed by Barnes (1967) and Herzberg, et al. (1959). Note: Article includes figures, tables and appendix; review expands on article abstract.

Neustadter, A. (Ed.). "Viewpoints on Issues of the Day: What Is the Role of the Director of Personnel in Applying Theories of Organization Development?" Personnel Administration, Vol. 29 (March-April 1966), 51-3.

The editor lists three brief, nonetheless excellent views of the role of the Personnel Director in applying theories of OD. S. Levy, a Personnel Research and Manpower Development Manager, suggests the role starts with the issue of how the personnel director defines his own role within the organization. He states the personnel function should be a force striving to create a climate and a culture within the organization to optimize organizational and personal achievement. To do this, the personnel director should 1) have exposure to OD literature by Argyris, Tannenbaum, et al., 2) participate in an NTL-type laboratory, and 3) insure that key figures in the organization similarly have the opportunities to increase their own knowledge and experience and understanding with respect to these theories of OD. Walter Mahler, President of Mahler Associates, pessimistically suggests that most directors of personnel do not play any role in applying theories of OD. Mahler says he needs an "integrative" or "systems" approach (i.e., incorporate leadership theory, management processes, and personnel function) to critical business problems. (Note: Such things as 'Drucker' misspelled twice as 'Durker' and the statement "...few talented behavioral scientists can help managers..." cause me to question Mahler's knowledge of behavioral science.) Henry Tosi, University of Maryland, says the personnel executive has two general responsibilities regarding change. The first revolves around those technical areas involved in the personnel function, such as appraisal, compensation, and so on. Secondly, he must concern himself with his executive responsibilities in the management of the personnel staff. Tosi feels internal rather than external influences on individual behavior provide the personnel executive with his greatest opportunity in the change process in organizations. In short, Tosi proposes that he must implement and utilize the same techniques he is attempting to sell others.

Oates, D. "New Shapes for the Organization," Management Review, Vol. 60 (September 1971), 30-32.

Short article condensed from International Management (July 1971) describes a few organization structures that are being used to overcome the inadequacies of the pyramid, the most traditional of all hierarchical designs. These structural variations aim primarily at toning down the strict autocratic nature of the pyramid accentuated by its sharply defined apex. Described are: Beehive (3-dimensional structure attempts to indicate human relationships that do not show up in the pyramid), Doughnut (circular organization, adopted by CIT Financial Corporation, which purports to eliminate the notion of subordinate), Ladder (places all management services in a neutral ladder apart from the hierarchy), Super Griddle (3-dimensional structure allows salesmen to specialize in the type of selling they do best), Stretch (whereby most successful managers are leap-frogged over the backs of more senior men into comparatively top positions), Bottom-Up Management (each executive is the first assistant to the person in line below him). According to the author, companies are beginning to think of themselves as part of a larger social system and open to the surrounding influence of the outside world; most have sought to modify rather than abandon the pyramid.

"Organizing for Change," Nation's Schools, Vol. 88 (November 1971), 57-61.

An overview of OD for an inexperienced reader; article remains simplistic, naive, non-scholarly, hopeful. Excellent example of some of the misconceptions about OD. Author (unknown), apparently a non-OD practitioner, acts as a reporter (non-theorist) of information on OD in the school systems, viewing OD as a synonym for "human relations training." Unlike several other articles, this one seems to view OD as a 'cure all' and spends a lot of time around the notion of OD as a way of integrating black and white students into the same educational system. The author interviews individuals from Dade County (Fla.) School District, who initiated a token OD program which reportedly received a number of positive results (e.g., "...I think we have achieved more true integration than would have been possible without human relations training."); and discusses the beginning stages of an OD program at Dartmouth High School (Mass.), the first school in the country to hire an OD consultant. The article lists NFL's nine objectives for OD (Note: refer to Croft, 1970), discusses the shift in T-group emphasis from individual to group training, and briefly traces the development of sensitivity training and T-grouping. The article is followed by an informative half-page report entitled "OD Spurs Teacher Appraisal Plan," which describes the South Brunswick (N.J.) three-year OD project funded under Title III of ESEA. Note: non-scholarly article that misrepresents OD; for a more thorough examination of OD in schools, see Schmuck and Miles (1971).

Patten, T. H., Jr. "OD, MBO, and the R/P System: A New Dimension in Personnel Administration," Personnel Administration, Vol. 35 (March-April 1972), 14-23.

According to the author, personnel administration has made visible strides in improving its contribution to the overall management of organizations of all types within the past ten years. This progress has been strongly influenced by OD, MBO, and the R/P system (defined as a return to the serious study of pay and the total reward and penalty system within organizations). The author elaborates on each point of Beckhard's (1969) definition of OD as "an effort that is planned, organization-wide, and managed from the top to increase organizational effectiveness and health through planned interventions in the organization's processes, using behavioral science knowledge." The author feels that despite the growth of OD, many personnel administrators and training directors are not fully comfortable with the concept because they do not have a context for understanding it and often cannot relate it to MBO, the R/P system, and all the other innovations in the personnel field. Patten proposes Herman's (1971) "iceberg" as a graphic way of viewing OD in context with MBO (coined by Drucker in The Practice of Management, 1954) and the R/P system; MBO is viewed as a part of "true" OD. The author elaborates on the three systems and offers a schematic diagram of changing organizational culture and employee behavior, in which combinations of the three systems are compared over time. The optimal pattern, according to Patten, appears to be OD-MBO-R/P. Patten concludes that the great debate between Argyris and Odiorne of the early 1960s (which, essentially, pitted social-emotional and rational considerations in human resources development) can now be put to rest because OD and MBO are not perceived any more as opponents but rather as complements. The R/P system now needs to be explicitly dealt with together with OD and MBO, for when properly integrated, he asserts, they serve as "a springboard for advances in personnel administration in the middle and late 1970s."

Petrow, C., T. Stern, and H. Levinson. "Quiet Revolution at Foggy Bottom," Management Review, Vol. 60 (December 1971), 4-14.

The authors describe the recent reform of the State Department, which included the creation of 13 task forces to study organizational problems (e.g., excessive compartmentalization, poor information system, and pressure toward conformity) and implementation of several new programs (e.g., Policy Analysis and Resource Allocation, or PARA). The authors state that the bureaucratic organization cannot be changed from the top, that it may merely shift boxes on the organization chart or change functions - the work continues in the same way. Similarly, it is difficult for change to come from the inside or the outside; effective change requires the convergence of all three forces - pressures from the top, from the inside, and from the outside. Essentially, the Department of State examined its own institutional behavior for ways to encourage openness and creativity and for ways to involve the internal staff in the change process. The simultaneous task force method presumably set in motion a continuous process of self-correction and created an atmosphere in which people within the system are expected to work on their own organizational problems. Note: interesting propaganda; potentially useful to organizational design theorists.

Portis, B. "Management Training for Organization Development,"
Business Quarterly, Vol. 30 (Summer 1965), 44-54.

As a member of a research team from the University of Western Ontario, the author presents a preliminary evaluation of the suitability of a Grid OD training program to providing assistance in organizational problem-solving. One region of a large Canadian organization had undertaken an extensive program of management training for the purpose of OD. The data presented here indicate that in the coming years this region wants to improve managerial performance. The author addresses three questions: 1) What are the objectives of the Blake program? 2) How do its methods for achieving these objectives differ from other training programs? and 3) Does it lead to solving of important organizational problems? Essentially, the objectives of this training program include both individual development and organizational development. According to the author, the crux of the matter is not how training methods differ but how the effects of different training methods differ. This experiment seems to show that the distinctive benefits of laboratory training are in increased personal satisfaction and better understanding of others rather than in improved managerial skills as decision-making or delegating. The author discusses Grid OD, instrumented task groups, multiphased training (see: Blake & Mouton, 1967), the card sort on managerial practices (including individual effort and coordination, and intergroup conflict), and lists Blake & Mouton's seven changes or developments in training design, methods and scope of application. Listed as the three types of problems to assessment are: 1) How much effort do individual managers exert and how well do they coordinate with others? 2) How well do groups or departments coordinate with one another? 3) How much understanding and agreement is there about company policies? The author concludes that managers have become better able to distinguish integrative management from compromise or polarized approaches to problems, and that top management in this region must make sure that barriers to change are removed and that full potentialities of OD are realized.

Raia, A. P. "Organizational Development: Some Issues and Challenges," California Management Review, Vol. 14 (Summer 1972), 13-20.

Raia raises a number of issues and challenges which confront the theory and practice of OD today, and which must be met if OD is to take its place as a relevant and useful discipline for practicing managers. A major challenge is to focus laboratory training activities on changing behavior in the work environment in a way that improves individual and group performance. The emphasis in OD must be placed on integrating the technological, administrative, and human systems. A second challenge is seen as a need to develop professionalism in the field of OD, primarily by encouraging the formulation of a specialized body of knowledge and techniques through systematic research and formalized methods of study. Another challenge is to develop the internal capability of client systems to use OD consultants more creatively, and to develop more effective working relationships between their internal and external consulting resources. A fourth challenge is found in the need to develop more appropriate technology and models of change that can be successfully applied in non-hierarchical systems where there are pluralistic power and authority systems, diverse and often conflicting goals, and different systems of values and norms. The article points out, for example, that there are presently no OD models for dealing on a large scale with relationships between nations, political parties, races, or even between management and labor unions.

Randall, L. K. "Common Questions and Tentative Answers Regarding Organization Development," California Management Review, Vol. 13 (Spring 1971), 45-52.

This article lists a number of questions commonly asked about OD. The answers are tentative simply because the field is still emerging, and the conclusions are not final. The author includes such questions as: (1) Briefly, what is Organization Development? (2) Is OD simply the Human Relations Movement in a new format? (3) On what concepts is OD based? (4) How do many OD efforts get initiated? (5) Is it true that OD must always begin at the top of the organization? (6) Does OD have a beginning, middle, and end like most programs? (7) Must a manager attend a T-Group or Management Training Laboratory before he can undertake OD in his group? (8) If OD is so promising, why aren't more groups or organizations practicing it? (9) What are the most common obstacles to OD? (10) How can you evaluate the pay-off of an OD effort? While the answers are said to be tentative, the OD process, the concepts upon which it is based, and the difficulties commonly encountered in OD, are presented in a perspective which correspond to the most widely-accepted views found in the literature on the subject.

Ross, R. "OD for Whom?" Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Vol. 7 (1971), 580-585.

The author critically comments on the two preceding articles in the same issue of JABS by 1) Burke and 2) Hornstein, Bunker, and Hornstein. He argues that practitioners and researchers in the OD field bear a peculiar burden of ethical responsibility which stems from two aspects of their work. First, among diverse groups of educated people the OD field has taken on a patina of humane enlightenment; second, it goes on within those institutions which are the primary instruments of power and purpose in the society. Ross observes the OD profession is either unconcerned with, or supportive of (in value terms), what the client organization actually does (i.e., process is more important than purpose), and suggests this would make organizations less effective, increasing waste, and encouraging discontent and disruption within them. Ross feels that "despite their relative clarity on a number of value issues, the two articles remain representative of the silence in the OD field on several other critical problems, and that the pity of it all is that it appears that some powerful technologies for the management of change do now exist; yet the technological preoccupation evidenced in these articles results generally in a more privileged clientele. Without strong value or political criteria or perspectives, OD specialists become social scientists for hire. The ability to hire them, distributed as it is, too frequently puts them to work for those who need and deserve their aid the least." Note: unfavorable article toward OD written by a socialist.

Rourke, F. E., and G. E. Brooks. "Managerial Revolution in Higher Education," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 9 (September 1964), 154-181.

"Recent innovations in the management of institutions of higher education represent a sharp departure from the traditionally conservative style of university administration. In a sample of state universities, the trend toward scientific management is illustrated by the emergence of offices of institutional research, the increasing reliance on quantitative data in policy analysis, and the use of computers in administration. Supporters of the new techniques contend that they will enhance the rationality of university decisions, while opponents charge that scientific management is irrelevant to most academic problems. New styles of management have had their most pronounced influence in institutions with recently acquired university status. In more established universities, scientific administration is attenuated by the simultaneous growth of faculty power and independence. But the new techniques have created an aura of managerial efficiency which aids all university administrators in their dealings with state legislatures and the public at large." Note: Review from article abstract.

Rourke, F. E., and G. E. Brooks. "Computers and University Administration," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 11 (March 1967), 575-600.

The authors illustrate how "computers are now being used for a wide variety of administrative purposes in the operation of institutions of higher education. Questionnaires sent to 436 institutions reveal four areas in which computers are being used very heavily: (1) student affairs; (2) financial management; (3) physical plant administration; (4) general policy planning. While computers have mainly been employed to handle administrative routines, there is growing interest in the use of computers for research connected with policy development and for making non-programmed as distinct from programmed decisions (from abstract)." Three key findings have emerged from this survey of computer use in academic administration: 1) the potential of computers in universities is still largely unrealized, 2) new designs for administrative organization have appeared along with the introduction of computers, and 3) the evidence suggests that the introduction of computers frequently influences the distribution of authority and the shaping of policy within an academic institution. "The growing use of computers has wide-ranging effects upon the structure of university administration. The possibility of a total information system threatens to erase traditional jurisdictional lines between organizational units. Centralization of authority is greatly facilitated by the establishment of a central computer office. Finally, the computer is a useful means of impression management for a university in dealing with its outside publics (from abstract)." Some tables are included.

Rush, H. M. F. "A Case for Behavioral Science," National Industrial Conference Board Record, Vol. 5 (September 1968), 47-52.

The author traces the development of an effective Grid OD program from its conception at the Raymond Corporation (\$23 million in sales in 1967). The article serves as a classic example of the effectiveness of OD when the top man is committed to the program (See: French, 1969).

Raymond Jr. inherited from his father the "benevolent dictatorship" position as President of the corporation which initially contained no written policies or operating guidelines; managers had nothing to follow except past practices - when they remembered them. Raymond first tried a scientific management approach, described as managing through systems and procedures, with no real evidence of change in the basic fabric or climate of the organization. After a positive experience at a sensitivity training laboratory, and with the aid of an OD consultant, Raymond put together an implementation strategy for organizational change. The organizational diagnosis revealed, in part, the past lack of communication (practically none upward) was a partial consequence of an ineffective reward and punishment system; an examination of individual and group perceptions, via surveys and interviews, revealed glaring differences in the ways managers characterized themselves and the way others saw them. Rush describes confrontation of interpersonal issues at an off-site conference which lead to implementation of a Grid OD program (Note: excellent footnote explanations of sensitivity training and the managerial grid). The case raises an important question as to the relevance and utility of Grid training for non-managerial employees (Note: later tested by Blake, et al., 1968), and lists measurable pay-offs--in terms of work performance, subsequent upward mobility, and improved stability and financial gain--to an application of behavioral science (not purely to Grid OD). The article ties together much of the OD literature: e.g., Lewin's (1947) notion of force field analysis, and the importance of training internal consultants to take over the OD effort.

Schaffer, R. H. "Management Development Through Management Decisions," Personnel, Vol. 49 (May-June 1972), 29-38.

According to the author, OD made two significant advances over the management development efforts of the previous decade: The focus shifted from the individual manager to the management group or team, and it became more an empirical activity and less a purely intellectual one. Today, however, a closer and more critical look finds really no evidence that the OD approach generally produces significant or lasting improvement in the ability of managers to set and achieve an organization's goals. On the contrary, there is mounting evidence that the initial sense of excitement and discovery associated with the first steps of OD often fails to translate into substantial, tangible achievements. The reason for this failure is seen as a result of the problems created by the complex superstructure of "unsound operating assumptions that now characterize much of the OD field." From Schaffer's pessimistic point of view, OD overemphasizes human relations problems and ignores the possibility that they may not be the causes of the organization's ineffectiveness. Instead, the problems may be symptoms of the frustrations of managers who are unable to achieve the results toward which they strive because of external inhibiting factors. He states that many organizations have tried the reform route, but are not more productive for it; and many have found ways to become much more productive without the reforms advocated by the OD practitioners.

He further characterizes the OD approach as "cleansing and reform today, progress tomorrow," or, alternatively, "progress first, reform later." OD is presented as requiring managers to reform before progressing, and modifying the climate or culture of the organization by confronting people with the attitudes that others may hold toward them. He attempts to disprove the assumptions underlying OD by stating, for example, that "to get a management group moving more rapidly, diagnosing what's wrong with it is not a prerequisite. Such diagnoses can, in fact, be highly diversionary, with managements' devoting their energies to 'improving problem situations' instead of clarifying the main tasks that need to get taken care of, identifying resources that can be mobilized, and organizing to do the jobs." Schaffer prefers an "achievement-based development" process, in which "breakthrough projects" are explicitly documented and programmed--producing the readiness, the motivation, and the sense of direction for moving to more ambitious goals or projects involving more parts of the organization, with increasingly long time spans. This results-oriented technique is viewed as a reversal of the OD attempt to "fill all the gaps and overcome all the problems diagnosed in an organization by inserting new information and planning systems and injecting managers with new know-how and 'human relations skills'."

This article is essentially an emphasis of the concept that an OD effort should consider intervention strategies other than strictly interpersonal ones. To anyone even vaguely familiar with the field, the author obviously holds a number of misconceptions regarding the nature of OD as it is commonly described in the literature.

Schiff, A. L. "Innovation and Administrative Decision Making: The Conservation of Land Resources," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 11 (June 1966), 1-30.

"Problems of organizational innovation have been examined from the perspectives of incentive management and limited cognition theory. This study, however, points to the significance of certain fundamental value orientations, often suprainstitutional, for an understanding of decision making. It examines the impact of an orientation toward change, shared by resource management agencies, upon biological science, resource economics, and administrative practices. It compares agency positions along a change spectrum to explain varying resistance to innovation. Possibilities for further research into the role of this variable in other substantive areas are advanced in a concluding evaluation of its significance for the study of innovation." Note: Review from article abstract.

Schwartz, A. C. "Planning for Change: What's the Best Technique?" Personnel, Vol. 47 (July 1970), 47-54.

According to Schwartz, a major problem of a rapidly changing environment is that managers simply don't have enough time to keep up with the change. Schwartz reviews four methods that have evolved to help managers get additional time for planning without neglecting his operational activities. These are: 1) Lean on Lower levels - based on the inaccurate assumption that subordinate managers will always act in the best interests of the organization; this method places similar time constraints on the lower levels; 2) Rely on EDP - computer systems analysts play lead role in determining requirements (which requires more analysts); the training this requires is in itself time consuming and costly; 3) Committee Concept - increases the number of men assigned to carry out responsibilities of a particular management area collectively; problems of conflicting loyalties and poorly defined responsibilities in the operations area; and 4) Corporate Office - several top executives (usually 2-8) share the chief executive responsibilities for the entire company; usually divided into a planning phase and an operations phase (policy once determined should be carried out by one man). Schwartz concludes the corporate office may be used at other levels, particularly those close to the top, depending on the amount of 1) interaction among and 2) complexity and change within lower departments. Note: mediocre article.

Scurrah, M. J., S. Moshe, and C. Zipfel. "Influence of Internal and External Change Agents in a Simulated Educational Organization," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 16 (March 1971), 113-120.

The authors describe an experiment involving the introduction of two different budgeting methods (PMB and conventional) into a simulated educational organization (based on case study materials of a graduate college), in which graduate business and public administration students (acting as internal and external change agents) were asked to role play faculty positions. The hypothesis that external change agents would be associated with a greater level of threat to the harmony, authority structure, and overall effectiveness of the organization was confirmed. Results, based on each S's rank-ordering of other group members, were significant at the .01 level (Note: questionable significance; e.g., number of Ss is not given). Other hypotheses unconfirmed were that external change agents would be associated with more conflict and a lower level of acceptance of the budgeting method introduced. Explanations of the findings of superior performance in groups with external change agents and possible implications for actual situations are suggested. Note: horrible research; interesting design.

Simmonds, G. R. "Organization Development: A Key to Future Growth,"
Personnel Administration, Vol. 30 (January-February 1967), 19-24.

This article describes the experience of Simmonds Precision, an electronic manufacturing company, with the Managerial Grid approach to OD. In order to provide various types of management training for internal promotions, a number of programs were undertaken and special courses conducted within the company. The most successful of these was the Managerial Grid. The important benefits which were provided, and the new knowledge gained, were reflected in the understanding that: (1) preparation for meetings in industry is generally poor, (2) in a group, people with the most seniority, or those who talk the most, do not necessarily possess the most knowledge, (3) a good manager asks questions more than he makes statements, (4) in order to achieve maximum team effectiveness, we all need to learn to talk in a nonargumentative and non-attacking way; and to listen in a non-defensive way, (5) conflict between individuals or within a group should not be suppressed, smoothed over, buried or avoided, (6) when opinions are wrapped in hierarchy too often they are accepted as fact, (7) one-alone and one-to-one problem-solving is not always best, and that one-to-all under certain conditions is the right approach.

In addition, the company had a better understanding of the importance of planning, and increasingly rejected compromise as a way of reaching business decisions. Some of the negative aspects of the program were: (1) It was quite time consuming and expensive. (2) A substantial number of key management people were taken off their jobs simultaneously, creating additional planning requirements. (3) Some individuals who were too talkative, aggressive, or opinionated, left the way they arrived. (4) Perhaps 30 percent of the people at the lowest level of management found difficulty in working with those who had college degrees, larger vocabularies, and were more articulate. (5) Sometimes family problems made it very difficult to get key people away for a continuous week's education. The author concludes that the advantages of the program have substantially outweighed the disadvantages.

The author's work team decided that the greatest barrier to their improved effectiveness was the lack of candor; the second most serious barrier was seen as the lack of creativity. They concluded that, as a team, the lack of candor was also the principal limitation on creativity. If people feel more free to be candid, because the right environment for it exists, the flow of managerial innovation, experimentation, and creativity will increase.

Sorcher, M., and S. Danzig. "Charting and Changing the Organizational Climate," Personnel, Vol. 46 (March 1969), 16-22.

These authors report on a study undertaken at a General Electric plant in Syracuse, N.Y., in which managerial manipulations of organizational climate presumably resulted in increased motivation (measured by performance) of workers. However, the study does not support this conclusion. Using Meyer-Litwin's 8 dimensions of organizational climate (e.g., cohesiveness, pay and promotional opportunity, recognition and support) a questionnaire was developed and administered to groups from three operations in the same organization (Note: sample N is unknown; ". . . the number of individuals in most groups was small."). The questionnaire was readministered 6 months later and mean responses (4 possible responses to each question) were compared with the initial means. This information was fed back to the respondents and to management. Three conditions of managerial behavior were then compared, from which the authors conclude, "a manager can control the climate of his group and . . . an instrument to assess climate can be very useful." Note: another good example of poor research.

Sperling, K. "Getting OD to Really Work," Innovation, No. 25 (November 1971), 38-45.

This article was generated by editor Ford Parks from a taped discussion with Ken Sperling, an internal OD consultant. Sperling discusses the values, process and technology of OD, and says that OD goes beyond managing a firm's human resources or finding the right structure for it; the central thrust of any OD effort should be to help managers shape and attain their goals. He lists several myths about internal OD as problems to the establishment of healthy consultant-client relationships. These are: 1) If you don't have active, overt commitment in terms of heavy involvement by the top man in the organization, you really can't do anything meaningful in OD; 2) To be effective, an internal OD man has to be manipulative - in the covert sense; 3) The only good managerial style is a participative one; the corollary myth is that managers who behave in an order-giving, authoritarian manner are necessarily bad managers; 4) For OD to work, there has to be a formal program of some sort to develop managers or develop the organization; 5) OD consultants function like any other kind of consultant; and 6) OD is the solution to all organizational problems (OD is a panacea). Sperling says OD is concerned with both the individual and the environment within which he functions, and proceeds to list environmental problems of being an OD consultant and noticeable signs that indicate OD is working. These signs include repeat business, managers acting independently, new business, experiencing success in reaching goals, and managers beginning to raise questions at the value level about what's important. Sperling stresses the need for synergistic collaboration between the OD practitioner and client managers. Article includes a brief biographical background on Sperling, and is followed by 1) some important questions raised by Parks from the discussion, and 2) a listing of then-new books and articles on OD.

"Teamwork Through Conflict," Business Week, (March 20, 1971), 44-50.

Author (unknown) briefly describes the OD effort, and some of the logic behind it, at TRW Systems over the last decade. He describes the link at TRW between Matrix Management (includes organization chart), whereby work is organized around temporary teams, and OD, which uses behavioral science techniques such as sensitivity training and confrontation sessions, to 1) reduce conflict, 2) keep communications channels open, and 3) make those teams operate more efficiently. The matrix management concept is described as effective only after OD, described as "a way of working on the way people work together," was put to use; most TRW executives agree it takes a technique such as OD to make a complex Matrix-based organization work. TRW executives acknowledge that OD techniques are controversial because they touch on sensitive ground. Thus, the guidance Ruben Mettler, then President of TRW, gave was: "Try things. If they work, continue them. If they don't modify them, improve them, or drop them." After the T-group experience they learned that there had to be more emphasis on changing the on-going organization on a day-to-day basis, and the OD effort began to focus on the work group itself rather than on individual hangups. Although strong proponents of both the Matrix and OD, TRW recognizes OD is no panacea and is aware of difficulties (e.g., the loss of clear and permanent lines of authority). The article presents an overview of background, techniques, new structure, theory and practice, how its done, and the payoff (e.g., low voluntary turnover rate). Note: Interesting overview of a classic OD program; includes comments from Shel Davis, Jim Dunlap, Stan Herman, and others.

"Three-Dimensional Management Cuts Red Tape, Boosts Morale," Modern Manufacturing, Vol. 3 (March 1970), 64-65.

Author (unknown) describes the 3-D matrix management concept (see also Oates, 1971) implemented by Boyertown Auto Body Works, Inc., PA. As the title suggests, this method presumably increases both efficiency and morale of the workers. The company president says the concept, a basic matrix organization modified to fit the needs of the company, was initially difficult to get across. required "extensive orientation", had its greatest success with newer employees, and its greatest resistance from older employees (Note: concept as presented is difficult to follow). The organization chart rather than traditional-vertical is dynamic-spherical. The board of directors constitute the magnetic nucleus around which line (6 production departments) and staff (6 separate departments) groups orbit (continuous rotation)--staff groups in larger, elliptical orbits to emphasize effects of external forces. Presumably, the value to this concept is that each employee can relate his responsibility not only to his foreman and superintendent, but also to executive management. Note: another weak article; e.g., the statement, ". . . the first reaction or skepticism changed to enthusiasm once the matrix was understood. Result: improved morale, greater efficiency and productivity."

"Today's New Managers Are Changemakers," Management Review, Vol. 53
(November 1969), 29-35.

An exaggerated, dramatized account of management's increased reliance on more sophisticated mathematical tools, such as risk analysis and sensitivity analysis techniques of operations research, and computer systems. The author (unknown) briefly traces the history of the application of computer and mathematical tools to business problems; a PEI survey indicates computer simulation models, for example, are on the rise. This "new management" (as typified by such companies as TRW, Xerox, ITT, and Polaroid) seeks optimum use of corporate resources through the new techniques. Examples are given for Boise Cascade, DuPont, Owens-Illinois, McKinsey and Co., Pillsbury and others. Issues discussed include: reorganizations, multi-executive structure (see Schwartz, 1970), time sharing terminals, organizational development, and decision-making. Note: naive author; OR, for example, is referred to as "mathematical wizardry"; article condensed from "New Management Finally Takes Over," Business Week, (1969).

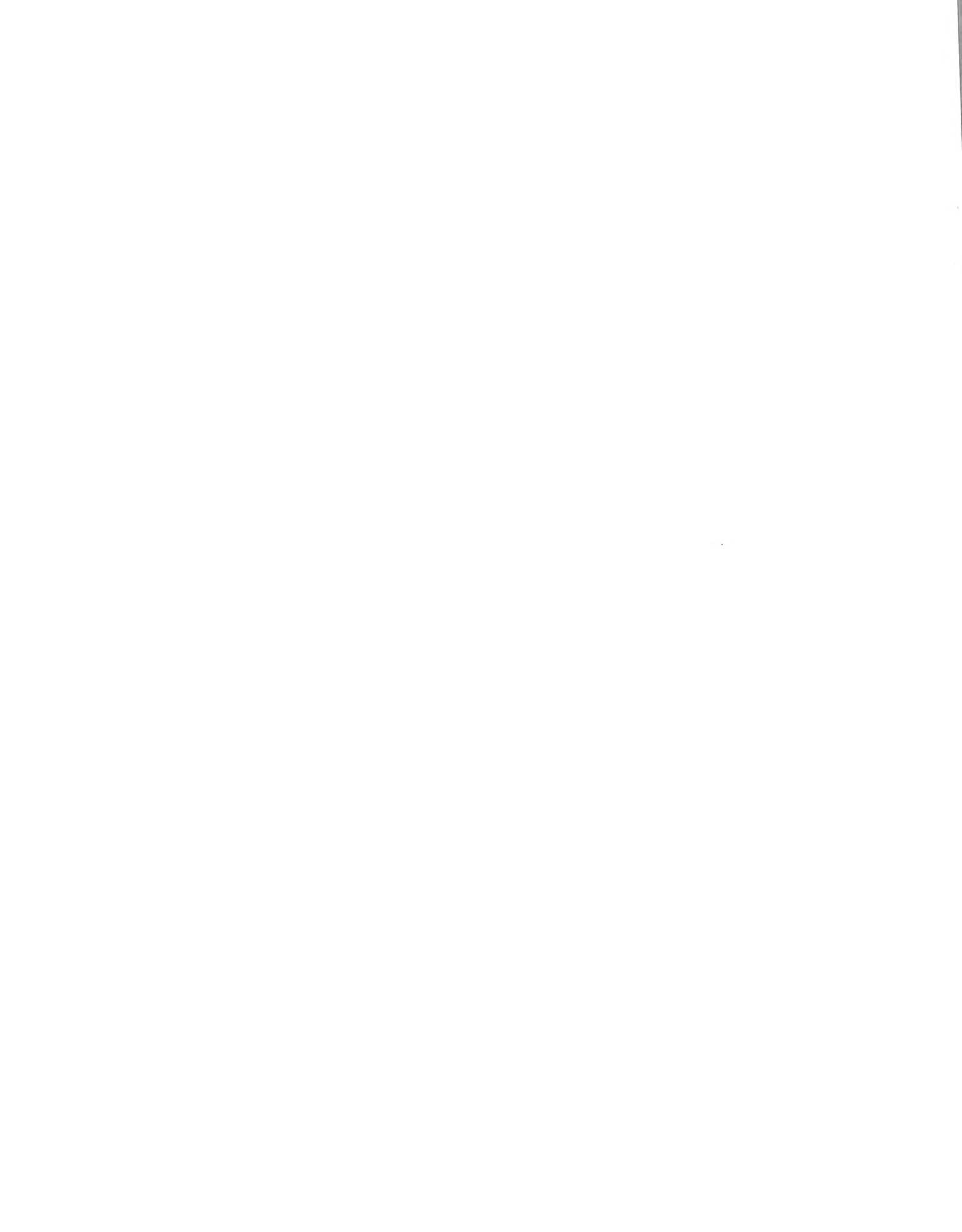
Winn, A. "Some Aspects of Organization Development in Alcan: Canada," Business Quarterly, Vol. 34 (Winter 1969), 46-51.

The author describes, as the title suggests, the OD program in Alcan: Canada (ALC), which incorporates the belief that an effective organization is a consequence of highly developed skill and competence in interpersonal and intergroup relations. It rests on the assumption that an effective network of communication and decision-making depends upon a high degree of confidence and trust among members of the organization, and that the principle of interdependence and of shared, rather than divided, responsibility is recognized. Consequently, conflicts of interests and goals among the individuals and groups forming the organization are resolved by the use of problem-solving methods rather than by coercion, arbitration or war. Winn traces the history of the ALC OD program from an early educational program begun in the 40's, to the use of the case method (including some 40 participants from the ranks of the company's middle management and lasted four to five weeks) and, to some extent, role playing as ways of teaching administration and human relations in the 50's, and finally to the initiation of T-groups in 1961. The work-related teams laboratory, which is gradually becoming the pivotal component of planned change, has been the primary medium of the organization's OD effort. To paraphrase Fromm-Reichmann, a successful participant, as he knows himself at the end of his T-Group experience, will be much the same person as he is known to others. The ALC experience tends to question the view that there is obvious correlation between insight and organizational change; the point is that we may have 'insight to spare' and suffer from many of the organizational diseases. Winn makes the point that 1) an effective work team does not automatically develop just because none or all of its members participated in a stranger or semi-stranger lab, 2) the culture in most organizations tends to undermine new learning the participant brings back from the laboratory, 3) the organizational family T-Group experience does not have to reshape the individual's underlying personality characteristics, but it does alter his expectations of himself and others about what is legitimate behavior, and 4) programs in team development contribute substantially to individual growth but the reverse is not necessarily true (echoing McGregor). The author contrasts the laboratory approach with the scientific management school, discusses internal and external consulting resources, and offers some comments on organizations of the future (see also Bennis, Bus Q., 1969).



Zand, D. E., F. I. Steele, and S. S. Zalkind. "The Impact of an Organizational Development Program on Perceptions of Interpersonal, Group, and Organization Functioning," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Vol. 5 (July 1969), 393-430.

The authors see two central tasks in the OD field today, one of which is to sort out factors which seem to make a difference in the change process. This article presents some of the findings of an organization change effort in a large research and engineering company. The first part of the OD program offered a series of five-day training laboratories, using a combination of techniques: unstructured T-Groups, lectures, and group exercises. One of the major concerns in this research was to evaluate the effects of these laboratories on the way people looked at relationships among one another--with respect to both the immediate impact of a laboratory, and its effects on long-term organizational change. Perceptions of managers were measured before laboratory attendance, on the last day of each laboratory, and again one year after the start of the change effort. The authors conclude that the immediate effect of attending a relatively unstructured lab seemed to be to alter the standards a participant used to evaluate various dimensions of his relations with others. In particular, there were declines in perceptions of one's trust of others, openness in communication, seeking and accepting help, and receptivity of one's superior to the ideas of others, which could be attributed to the use of more stringent standards of behavior. A year later, there were significant increases (for participants compared with nonparticipants) in perceptions of the extent to which managers were facing up to conflicts and were seeking help. For most other items, there were no differences in the changes of laboratory versus nonlaboratory participants. Ratings by other members in the same T-Group of one's behavior and learning at the laboratory seem to be a useful predictor of the likelihood that a manager will be involved in follow-up activities with his work team. Note: The study suffers from several design problems, some of which are discussed by Berkowitz (pp. 411-428) and Stephenson (pp. 428-430), and does not differ substantially from the many others that have already been done.



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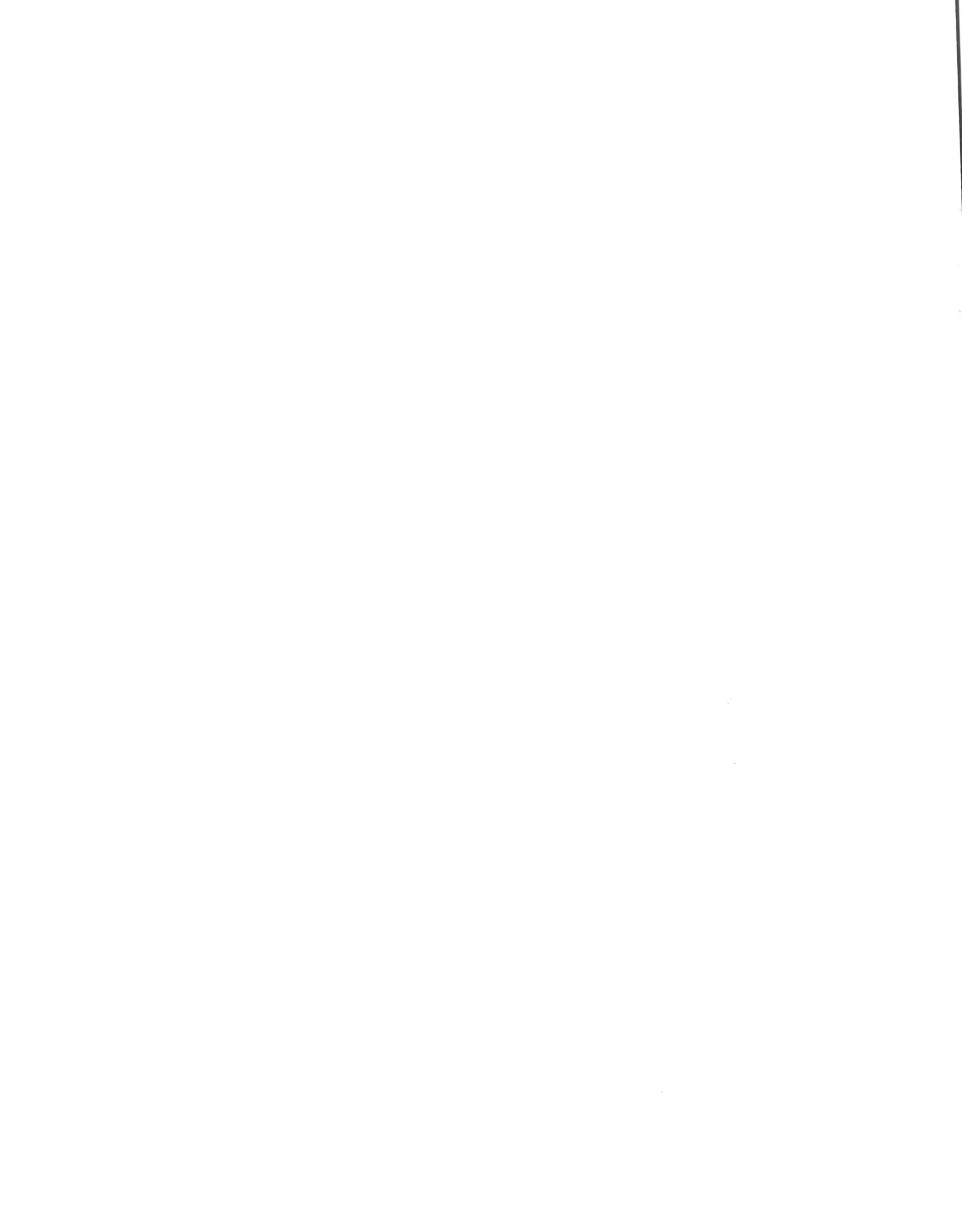


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