CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Neha Goyal,
Prof. Rajesh Mehrotra

CHANGE MANAGEMENT

CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Neha Goyal

Prof. Rajesh Mehrotra

CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

PROCESS MODELS OF CHANGE: UNDERSTANDING TRANSFORMATIONAL FRAMEWORKS

Ms.Neha Goyal, Assistant Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-ngoyal921@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Process models of change are structured frameworks for understanding and managing organizational change. They outline a sequence of actions or phases that support the identification, planning, execution, and monitoring of change projects. Lewin's Three-Step Model and Kotter's Eight-Step Model are popular models, focusing on urgency, steering coalition, vision, and empowering people. These models provide a systematic method for navigating change challenges, fostering cooperation and understanding among stakeholders, and facilitating clear communication. However, they must be flexible and adaptable to individual change initiatives. By using process models, organizations can improve their chances of successfully implementing change, reduce opposition, and achieve desired results.

KEYWORDS:

Change, Process, Result, System, Theories.

INTRODUCTION

All levels of change agents must be capable of seeing the need for change. They must also be capable of taking actions that will ensure transformation. Although individuals in charge of change sometimes work very hard to bring about changes, it is generally agreed that up to 60% of change programmes fall short of their intended goal. Making a mistake may be expensive. Therefore, it is crucial that people in charge of change do it right, although doing so is difficult. Change agents, whether managers or consultants, are often less successful than they might be because they do not always operate in a manner that enables them to exert adequate control over results. This is due to their failure to recognised some of the important dynamics that drive outcomes[1]–[4].

The 'how' of change and how a transformation happens are also topics that are covered in this chapter from the standpoint of the change process. After examining the parallels and divergences across different process theories, emphasis is placed on reactive and self-reinforcing sequences of events, choices, and actions and how they impact the capacity of change agents to accomplish their intended objectives. It is argued that in order to reduce any negative effects from these sequences, those driving change must be able to take a step back and observe what is happening, including their own behaviour and that of others, recognised crucial turning points and patterns that followed some of which may be challenging to discern and consider alternate course of action that might produce better results.

States and Processes

A framework for thinking about organisations and sections of organisations as a system of interconnected components that are embedded in and significantly impacted by a larger system is provided by open systems theory. The quality of the fit state of alignment between a system's internal components, such as the alignment between a company's manufacturing technology and the workforce's skill set, and the larger system of which it is a part, such as the alignment between the organization's strategy and the opportunities and threats presented by the external environment, is the key to any system's prosperity and long-term survival. Internal and external alignment, according to Schneider et al, promote organisational

effectiveness because, when aligned, the various parts of a system reinforce rather than conflict with one another, minimizing the loss of system energy the get-up-and-go of an organisation and resources. Effective leaders are those who establish a course for change and persuade others to work towards objectives that strengthen internal and external alignment.

Because perfect alignment is rarely achieved, Miles and Snow contend that it is more beneficial to view alignment as a process that entails a search for the best possible fit between the organisation and its environment as well as between the various internal components of the organisation. The difference between states and processes is further clarified by Barnett and Carroll. The state or content viewpoint concentrates on the 'what' that needs to be, is being, or has been altered. The process view, on the other hand, pays attention to the 'how' of change and concentrates on how a shift takes place. It calls attention to concerns including the rate of change and the order of events, the manner in which choices are made and communicated, and the ways in which individuals react to other people's actions. An important part of this transformation process is played by change managers[5]–[8].

The Change Process

Over 20 alternative process theories were discovered by Van de Ven and Poole based on a thorough multidisciplinary assessment of the literature. They discovered four ideal kinds via further investigation, including teleological, dialectical, life cycle, and evolutionary theories, which provide different perspectives on the evolution process:

1. these theories depict change as an evolving cycle of goal formulation, execution, assessment, and learning and presuppose that organisations are purposeful and adaptable. Learning is crucial because it might result in changes to objectives or the methods used to accomplish them.
2. Dialectical theories emphasize the competing interests of various interest groups and explain stability and change in terms of conflict and the distribution of power among the opposing parties.
3. According to life cycle theories, change is a process that develops via a required series of phases that are cumulative each step adds something to the eventual result andrelated each stage is a crucial forerunner for the next.
4. According to evolutionary theories, change happens as a result of a constant cycle of variation, selection, and retention. Variations just occur and are not thus intentional; instead, they are chosen based on how well they match the needs of the environment and the available resources. Retention is the continuation and upkeep of the organisational structures that result from these changes due to factors of persistence and inertia.

All four theories share the idea that change is composed of a series of interconnected events, choices, and actions, but they differ in how closely they portray change as occurring in accordance with a predetermined progression of stages and how much its course is constructed or predetermined.

The Ordering of Stages

The sequence of the change process's phases is emphasised more than it is in other theories. For instance, teleological theories are less prescriptive about this than life cycle theories. According to Flam Holtz, organisations go through seven phases of growth, from a new endeavour through decline and potential resurrection. He contends that the standards for organisational performance alter with each stage of growth. Survival is the primary priority throughout the early phase of an organization's life cycle, and markets and products are crucial areas for growth. Resource management and operating system development become crucial responsibilities in the second stage because resources are often strained and operating

systems are overloaded. To assure the long-term operation of the firm, more formal management procedures, such as planning and management development, are needed in the third stage of the life cycle, and so on through the remaining six phases.

The sequence of the steps is less imposed by teleological theories. According to Van de Ven and Sun on page 61, they conceptualize development and change as a cycle of goal formulation, execution, and assessment that results in the alteration of an intended end state depending on what has been learnt or intended by the participants. Although there is a logical sequence linking each of these stages and each is crucial the sequence need not and often does not unfold in the manner shown by the above-described orderly linear process. In order to obtain a desired conclusion, the process may need to unfold in a tentative manner that needs ongoing testing or even going backward to previous stages. For instance, although an initial diagnosis may elucidate a problem, it may fail to establish a desirable end state. Although the present change sequence has not yet been finished, it is usual for unexpected difficulties or new demands for change to develop and need attention even when a goal may be established early in the process.

Predetermined versus Constructed Trajectories

According to Van de Ven and Poole, theories of the life cycle and evolution depict change as a programmed process that develops through time in a predictable manner. This kind of transformation entails gradually and predictably changing organisational structures. The process may be governed by an innate code like biological evolution or by the constraints placed on it by a larger system. For instance, Greenwood and Henings contend that an organization's institutional framework might constrain the scope for change, particularly when the organisation is a part of a larger system with close connections.

While objectives and the actions taken to attain goals may be modified at the whim of people engaged in the process, teleological and dialectical theories see change trajectories as created. This viewpoint claims that the process is not overly restricted by an innate code or elements beyond the immediate system. Those driving the change have the authority to step in and take actions that might really make a difference. The quality of the strategic decisions made by the members of the dominant coalition who govern the organisation, according to the strategic choice framework, is one of the major variables influencing its effectiveness. According to teleological and dialectical theories, change agents may act to bring about change in ways that will either increase or decrease organisational effectiveness. These theories emphasize the importance of human agency[9][10].

DISCUSSION

The Impact of Sequence on Outcome

Although teleological and dialectical theories assert that individuals within a system have a great deal of freedom in constructing change trajectories and that it is possible for them to deliberately diverge from ingrained patterns and move the system in a new direction, this may not always be simple to pull off in reality.

The degree to which individuals in charge of the change will be able to realize this prospect will depend on the nature of the change sequence, whether it is reactive or self-reinforcing. A transformation process involves a variety of interconnected activities, choices, and events. They are related in that each event is affected by previous occurrences and likewise influences later events.

In the order A>B>C>D>E, event B influences event C, which influences D, and so on. It also responds to event A. Depending on how other people react, an earlier incident may have an influence on subsequent ones.

Reactive Sequences

The competing objectives of persons engaged in a situation are the main focus of dialectical theories.Reactive sequences result from these conflicts, when one side opposes another's efforts to effect a certain change. In reactive sequences, later occurrences contradict rather than validate the previous ones. This pivotal point results in the transformation being pushed in a different direction. This new course, though, could not last very long. It is contested in this scenario after incident Y.It may not always be feasible for individuals in charge of a change to avoid conflict by developing a vision that takes into account the interests of several constituencies, including bosses, peers, subordinates, consumers, suppliers, and bankers please everyone, some people could object to the modification. This emphasises how crucial it is to act in a manner that will bring all parties involved together to support the change, in addition to trying to establish a workable path for it. Negative responses may sometimes only result in little detours from the leader's desired course, but they can sometimes stop the change in its tracks or drastically alter it. 'Backlash' is a term used by Mahoney, while Pierson notes that events may set off counter-reactions powerful enough to shift the system in a whole other direction. An excellent example of how the vehicle dealers objected to the importer's ideas for deification.

Self-Reinforcing Sequences

Sequences that reinforce one another arise when a choice or action results in reinforcement of previous occurrences and support for the direction of change. Further movement in the same direction is prompted by this reinforcement. While self-reinforcing sequences may be advantageous in the short run, change managers must be aware that they may lead to a route that leads to worse than ideal results in the long run. Three factors that influence self-reinforcing sequences will be used as examples to demonstrate this: growing rewards, psychological adherence to prior judgements, and cognitive biases.

Increasing Returns

Increasing returns, a notion that originally attracted attention from economists, are a significant driver of self-reinforcing sequences. According to Pierson, Arthur and David sparked early interest. They contended that a particular technology, even if it is not the most effective option, that is first to market or widely adopted by early users, such as the QWERTY keyboard and VHS video format, may generate increasing returns and achieve a significant advantage over rival technologies, such as the Dvorak keyboard and Betamax video format. According to Arthur there are four circumstances that might encourage rising returns. These criteria apply to practically every element of organisational change, not only the adoption and dissemination of new technologies:

1. **Set-Up Costs:**When they are substantial, there is a motivation to continue with a selected course of action in order to spread expenses out over a longer period of time. For instance, if new arrangements continue over time after the adoption of a new business process, greater returns from the original investment are likely to be realized.
2. **Learning:** Repeated application of knowledge may boost competence and promote ongoing development. Members of an organisation, for instance, learn by doing, and the more they practice, the more skilled they become. This learning offers a strong motivation to keep moving forward since performing more of the same results in increased gains from using these learned competencies. Changes in working methods might, at least initially, result in decreasing rewards as new skills are acquired.
3. **Coordination:** As more people choose the same course of action, the advantages of one specific activity grow. As more individuals purchased VHS video recorders, Arthur saw that video retailers found it to be more beneficial to carry VHS tapes

rather than Betamax cassettes, which in turn encouraged more people to purchase VHS recorders.

4. **Choosing the Appropriate Equine:** People are driven to choose the choice they believe will be chosen by the majority of people because they understand that solutions that do not gain widespread favor will have disadvantages in the future. They believe that sticking with this decision will eventually result in rising returns.

Psychological Commitment to Past Decisions

A self-reinforcing process is the psychological adherence to prior choices. Staw contends that, in reality, decision makers are often driven by retroactive rationality and the desire to defend prior actions, even though most decision theories assume that people are prospectively rational and want to maximise future advantage. Staw noted that leaders may invest more resources in order to defend a prior choice and show the final logic of their initial course of action when confronted with unfavourable results after making it. However, the increased expenditure may not be able to help. Instead, it can have additional negative effects, which would then prompt a second choice to spend more in an effort to achieve a favourable result. The 'escalation of commitment' to a selected path of action is how Stew describes this destructive loop.

There are two things that seem to support this increase in commitment. The first is that change managers must establish their own competency and defend a prior choice. This might come in the form of self-justification to maintain one's own self-esteem or justification to others to convince them that a previous choice was not incorrect. The second is a reaction to what one could see as consistency pressure. According to Staw, there is a belief in many organisational contexts that change managers who are constant in their activities are stronger leaders than those who alternate between different courses of action. In contrast to those who monitor performance and are prepared to change course if results are not as good as anticipated, consistent change managers who stick with a course of action in the face of early setbacks are frequently seen as being courageous, committed, and steadfast.

Cognitive Biases and Interpretive Frames

A change manager may construct and maintain visions and objectives for change that are unsuitable for their intended purpose due to their implicit theories about how things operate and their selective views of what is significant. This may lead to cognitive biases and unique ways of interpreting events. Conger contends that although change agents must be aware of the possibilities and limits present in a given scenario and attentive to the demands and priorities of individuals with a stake in the change, this may not always be the case. Change agents may get so invested in a project that they only take note of data that supports their own viewpoint. By contrasting imminent choices with analogous prior decision circumstances, Edwards contends that leaders prefer to categorise decisions into groups. This motivates individuals to assess results by concentrating attention just on those aspects of the current circumstance that are compatible with the chosen scenario category. As individuals adopt a mentality that limits their attention to those components of a situation, they judge to be significant, important but contradictory information is disregarded.

CONCLUSION

Structured frameworks for comprehending and managing change within organisations are provided by process models of change. These models provide a methodical method for navigating difficult changes by outlining the phases and processes required in the change process. Key process models, like Kotter's 8-Step Model, Lewin's Change Model, and the ADKAR Model, all have features in common, such as seeing the need for change, instilling a sense of urgency, Organising and putting the change into action, and maintaining it over time.

They stress the need of strong stakeholder participation, clear communication, and leadership support. Organisations may increase their chances of successfully implementing change, reduce opposition, and achieve desired results by adhering to process models of change. These models must, however, be customized for particular organisational settings since every change project may call for particular considerations and modifications.

REFERENCES:

[1] L. J. Peirson, K. M. Boydell, H. B. Ferguson, and L. E. Ferris, "An Ecological Process Model of Systems Change," *Am. J. Community Psychol.*, 2011, doi: 10.1007/s10464-010-9405-y.

[2] M. Magill *et al.*, "A meta-Analysis of motivational interviewing process: Technical, relational, and conditional process models of change.," *J. Consult. Clin. Psychol.*, 2018, doi: 10.1037/ccp0000250.

[3] A. Sikdar and J. Payyazhi, "A process model of managing organizational change during business process redesign," *Bus. Process Manag. J.*, 2014, doi: 10.1108/BPMJ-02-2013-0020.

[4] G. F. Latta, "A process model of organizational change in cultural context (OC3 model): The impact of organizational culture on leading change," *J. Leadersh. Organ. Stud.*, 2009, doi: 10.1177/1548051809334197.

[5] C. Gerth, "Business process models: Change management," *Lect. Notes Comput. Sci. (including Subser. Lect. Notes Artif. Intell. Lect. Notes Bioinformatics)*, 2013.

[6] C. Cathcart, "Gaussian Process Models of Sound Change in Indo-Aryan Dialectology," 2019. doi: 10.18653/v1/w19-4732.

[7] R. Balocco, A. Cavallo, A. Ghezzi, and J. Berbegal-Mirabent, "Lean business models change process in digital entrepreneurship," *Bus. Process Manag. J.*, 2019, doi: 10.1108/BPMJ-07-2018-0194.

[8] S. Jones and M. Harvey, "A distributed leadership change process model for higher education," *J. High. Educ. Policy Manag.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/1360080X.2017.1276661.

[9] M. G. Springer and J. W. Guthrie, "The politicization of the school finance legal process," in *School Money Trials: The Legal Pursuit of Educational Adequacy*, 2007.

[10] K. J. Warner, J. Cuschieri, G. J. Jurkovich, and E. M. Bulger, "Single-dose etomidate for rapid sequence intubation may impact outcome after severe injury," *J. Trauma - Inj. Infect. Crit. Care*, 2009, doi: 10.1097/TA.0b013e3181a92a70.

CHAPTER 2

LEADING CHANGE: A PROCESS PERSPECTIVE FOR EFFECTIVE TRANSFORMATION

Ms. Neha Goyal, Assistant Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-ngoyal921@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

A Process Perspective offers a process-focused approach to driving organizational transformation. It emphasizes the importance of stakeholder participation, communication, and leadership throughout the change process. The book also emphasizes the need for strong steering coalitions and a common vision to mobilize support and overcome opposition. Kotter believes that adopting a process view helps organizations manage change intricacies, foresee and resolve challenges, and achieve successful results. The book provides guidance, case studies, and real-world examples to help leaders understand and apply the process viewpoint in their change projects. Overall, Leading Change: A Process Perspective is a valuable tool for executives seeking to successfully steer and oversee organizational transitions.

KEYWORDS:

Change, Future, Managers, Process, State.

INTRODUCTION

Recognizing a need for change may not be enough to guarantee that it will occur, even while executives who are aware of or foresee changes in their organization's external environment may be better positioned to start the change. Lewin offered some insightful observations on the nature of change that are pertinent for people attempting to consciously alter the status quo. He maintained that a scenario in which everything is immobile is not the condition of no change. It entails a state of 'stable quasi-stationary equilibrium' similar to a river flowing in a certain direction at a specific speed. A shift in a person's, a group's, or an organization's conduct may be compared to a change in the river's flow or direction. For instance, when two groups from the marketing department get together for departmental meetings, they could act both competitively and cooperatively. They interact with one another in a manner that reflects the present stable quasi-stationary equilibrium the flow, to use Lewin's metaphor. If the head of marketing believes that there is an imbalance between friendly cooperation and disruptive intergroup rivalry, she may opt to step in to encourage more productive cooperation. In this case, they seek to change the departmental meeting's dynamics from one stable quasi-stationary equilibrium to another[1]–[4].

According to Lewin, every level of behaviour is kept in a state of quasi-stationary equilibrium by a force field made up of a balance of forces that promote and inhibit change. This degree of behaviour may be altered by either increasing the factors that promote the desired change or by decreasing the restraining or opposing forces. Lewin argues that although both strategies may bring about change, they will have distinct side consequences as a result.Tension will rise in circumstances when change is pushed forward by a greater number of factors. A reactive sequence that questions the change agent's intention may be sparked if this rises above a certain threshold because it may be accompanied by high levels of aggressiveness especially towards the source of the increased pressure for change, high levels of emotion, and low levels of constructive behaviour.

On the other hand, a condition of comparatively low tension will result when change is induced by lessening the factors that obstruct or resist it.In contrast to a high-pressured approach that primarily concentrated on boosting the forces pushing for change, Lewin's field

theory led him to recommend a strategy for managing change that stressed the need of minimizing the restraining forces a pull strategy. He stated that methods that include removing restraints from inside a person, group, or organisation are more likely to improve commitment and produce a more lasting change than those that involve applying pressure from the outside.

Lewin's Three-Step Process

Lewin proposed a three-step strategy for effective transformation that includes the phases of unfreezing, moving, and refreezing. Therefore, managing change entails supporting a person, a team, or an organisation:

1. Unlock or unfreeze the current degree of behaviour.
2. Ascend to a higher level.
3. The behaviour of refreezes at this new level.

Destabilizing the equilibrium of driving and restraint forces is necessary to unfreeze. According to Kotter, the existing equilibrium might be upset by making organisational members aware of the need for change. Restraining and driving forces may be made less and stronger by imagining a better future state and giving knowledge that makes people feel urgent. Such behaviour may inspire people and organisations to let go of old habits and motivate them to look for better options. Schein also makes reference to the way that challenging people's perceptions of the advantages of the present situation may inspire learning and change. The modification of the driving and restraining force balance to raise the equilibrium to a new level occurs in Lewin's second phase, called movement. Although these factors might take on a variety of shapes, they often show up as performance-affecting behaviours. As a result, mobility often involves changing the processes, systems, and structures that determine conduct as well as one's attitudes and beliefs[5]–[8].

To sustain new performance levels and prevent relapse, refreezing entails reinforcing new habits. New habits may be more successfully ingrained with the aid of feedback that indicates their efficacy and consistency as well as with rewards that recognised higher levels of achievement. Burnishes seen a current trend to underestimate the importance of Lewin's work for modern organisations. For instance, Kantor et al. and Dawson contend that organisations working in stormy contexts do not need to consider the concept of refreezing. They contend that organisations must be flexible and adaptive and that forcing them to work a certain manner would be counterproductive. Lewin's argument, though, is that change is all too often fleeting. After a shot in the arm, the shift is not long-lasting, and things go back to how they were. According to him, it is insufficient to conceive of change as just obtaining a new state, such as temporarily increasing the amount of participation in the marketing department's meetings. According to him, permanence must be a key component of the objective for as long as it is relevant. Before going on to yet another shift, this condition could just last a short while and include nothing more than taking stock. However, in order to reduce the risk of reverting to the previous state, it is crucial to consider in terms of consolidation[9], [10].

DISCUSSION

Stages in the Process of Managing Change

We briefly look at three additional change process models that might be seen as expansions of Lewin's core framework. Lippitt et al. expanded Lewin's three-stage model in 1958. The moving phase was naturally divided into three substages based on their evaluation of descriptions of change in people, groups, organizations, and communities. The determination or diagnosis of the client's problem. The examination of prospective deviations and objectives. The creation of goals and plans for action. Intentions are transformed into tangible change activities. They also said that change managers can only be successful if they

establish and sustain a suitable rapport with individuals participating in or impacted by the change. Due to this, they decided to add two more phases to the process of providing assistance, one of which dealt with the beginning of partnerships and the other with their end. If the impetus for change is to be sustained, termination must be properly handled. Lewin's three stages of unfreezing, moving, and refreezing were the basis for Egan's similar model. However, it places the greatest emphasis on the unfreezing and moving phases, giving careful consideration to the diagnosis of the current scenario, the creation of a preferred scenario, and the design of plans that move the system from the current to the preferred scenario planning for change.

The present situation: identifying high-impact issues or opportunities, evaluating challenges and opportunities, and establishing fresh views. Strategies and plans for moving to the preferred scenario: brainstorming strategies for getting there, selecting the best strategy or best fit package of strategies, and turning these strategies into a workable plan. The preferred scenario: developing a range of possible futures, evaluating alternative possibilities to establish a viable agenda for change, and winning support for the new agenda. A three-stage paradigm by Bechard and Harris focuses on identifying the present and the future, managing the transition, and upholding and updating the transformation. Some of the challenges connected with the moving or transitional period are given special emphasis, including the need for transitional arrangements, such as the appointment of a transition manager and the creation of transition plans, and the necessity to get support from important stakeholders. They also take into account the circumstances necessary to maintain the transformation.

Key Steps in the Change Process

Building on and synthesizing these concepts, the model shown in Figure 1 conceptualizes managing change as a deliberate, structured, and often contentious process that entails responding to seven key activities:

1. Understanding the need for change and kicking off the process of change.
2. Identifying what needs to be changed and creating a picture of the ideal state to be in the future.
3. Preparing your intervention to bring about the desired change.
4. Putting plans into action and monitoring development.
5. Sustaining the change.
6. Difficulties related to leading and managing people.
7. Learning.

Recognizing the need for change and starting the change process

The process begins with the realization that a change is necessary, whether as a result of external factors like the financial crisis or internal factors like the retirement of key personnel or the introduction of a new product. Recognition requires intricate observation, interpreting, and decision-making processes that, if not properly handled, may result in incorrect results, such as the organisation failing to change when it should or changing when it is not necessary. Leaders can miss the need for change because they don't pay enough attention to what is going on in the larger environment. Even if members of the organisation are aware of what is happening outside, they may not understand what this might mean for the organisation. Involving fresh voices in the creation of the change agenda is one method for questioning widely held beliefs. People located at multiple levels in the hierarchy, such as members of the sales team, customer service staff, or those who have close contact with suppliers, may be better informed about emerging threats and opportunities. Often, this activity is restricted to senior managers at the top of a department or the organization.

Recognizing the
need for change and
starting the process

Diagnosing what
needs to be changed
and formulating a
vision of preferred
future state

Planning

Implementing
the change and
reviewing progress

Sustaining
the change

Learning

Leading and
managing
the people
issues
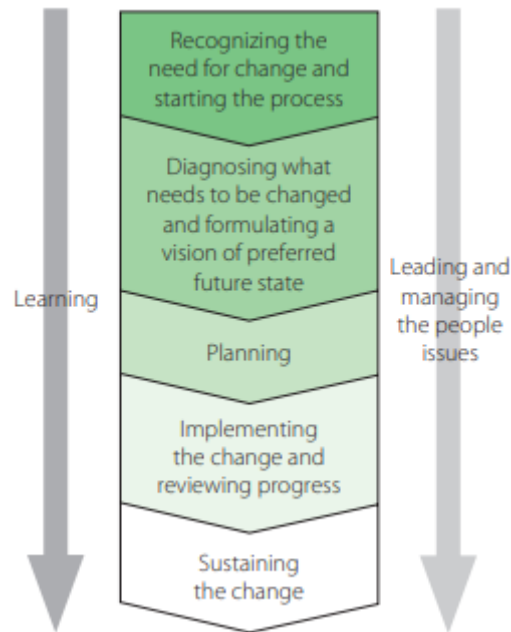
Figure 1: Represting the steps involved in the Change Process [Semantic Scholar].

Starting the Change

The process of turning a need for change into a desire for change comes once the need for change has been acknowledged. People's comfort zones might be challenging for leaders to push them out of. Making organisational members aware of the need for change and inspiring them to let go of the status quo are key to developing a willingness to change. This may be challenging for a variety of reasons, such as a track record of prior success and the absence of a pressing crisis. Change managers may react to this circumstance in a variety of ways, but a variety of criteria will determine whether a given approach will be successful. For instance, there may not be enough time to include others or try out other options if the need for change is urgent perhaps because leaders failed to recognised an impending danger. Change agents could believe that their only choice is to take a more or less directed stance. This could be effective in certain situations, but in others, it might encounter resistance, and organisational members might respond in ways that prevent the change.

To build a common understanding of the need for change, those leading the change may feel empowered to take alternate steps, such as incorporating others in a preliminary diagnosis, in different situations, such as when they have identified the need for change in good time. Choosing who will be responsible for managing the transition is also crucial. According to Kotter, the change effort is unlikely to succeed unless individuals who see the need for change can form a powerful enough guiding coalition to guide the process. Despite not having to include all top managers, he contends that this steering coalition will be considerably more successful if it is seen to represent a genuine commitment to change in terms of titles, knowledge, experience, reputations, and relationships. With regard to training and expertise, according to Clegg, it is often believed that the lead should be a technical specialist rather than the manager who would be in charge of making the change successful after implementation. He disputes this notion and contends that implementation may not be as effective as change managers hope for unless users are important to the process' management.

To ensure that there is a sufficient degree of knowledge and trust amongst all those involved, attention must also be paid to establishing successful relationships between change agents and people who will be impacted by the change. Early on in this relationship-building process, perceptions about the change agent's expertise, capacity for assistance, and

motivations are swiftly formed by others. This debate demonstrates how early process events may be especially significant from the standpoint of driving change. A poorly thought-out choice or action, a failure to see a need for change, or both, may trigger a series of responses, counter-reactions, and/or self-reinforcing sequences. These sequences can build up over time and affect the direction of change and result in unintended consequences.

1. Who creates the agenda for change? is one query that could aid leaders in reflecting on how they are handling this phase of the process. Should other people participate?
2. Do change managers acknowledge and pay attention to those with knowledge?
3. Does the desire for change match the necessity for it?
4. Exists a powerful governing alliance that can move things along?
5. Does the governing coalition include a strong enough representation of the managers who will be in charge of implementing the change?

Diagnosing

During this phase of the process:

1. Problems and opportunities are assessed, fresh viewpoints are created, and high-impact issues or opportunities are selected for attention.
2. Creating a variety of potential futures and assessing alternate scenarios in order to create a workable reform agenda.

Despite first seeming to be two different and distinct tasks, assessing the present and predicting the future are often combined in practice.These two processes usually go through numerous iterations, developing from vague ideas into a vision of a better condition that is sufficiently specific and comprehensive to be put into action. Whether the procedure should begin by examining the present or the future is a topic of considerable discussion. The justification for doing so is to prevent the shift from being seen as a utopian leap to an impossible future that cannot be achieved from the present. On the other side, a preoccupation with the present may narrow one's perspectives and cause one to set change objectives that are too cautious and confined by the present.

Reviewing the Present State

The history, the external environment, and the series of reflexive and self-reinforcing events that led to the current status of the organisation are often necessary to understand it. Depending on the kind of change being managed, specific goals for analysing the current state will need to be determined. The most frequent justifications are toprovide a baseline so that it is evident what is changing assist in defining the future directiondiagnose the source of a problem, highlight present weaknesses, or explain opportunities in order to identify the needed change. This kind of review's data may also be used to predict organisational members' and other stakeholders' reactions and to assist people be ready for change.

Identifying the Future State

The kind of change, such as incremental or transformative, being implemented, as well as the role of change managers within the entire process, will determine what is necessary when establishing the future state.

If change managers are in charge of starting the transformation, one of their tasks will probably be to create a vision for what they and the other participants in the diagnostic process believe the organisation should look like in the future. On the other hand, if their responsibility is to carry out a vision that has been imposed from outside the organisation, their work may be more restricted to considering and imagining how the change would affect their particular area of the organisation.

Quality of the Vision

Those in charge of the diagnosis may have an impact on the vision's quality. To diagnose all the problems and picture a final result that will be acceptable to all important stakeholders, they require the expertise and experience, including an understanding of the local circumstances. This is significant because it may help concentrate attention and motivate activity if one can see a more desired future state. It may channel effort and energy.According to Locke and Latha, when objectives are specific and attainable, individuals are more driven to work towards them and are less likely to quit up. Despite the vision's evident relevance, individuals driving change may have a stake in a certain result or latch onto the first vision they come up with, which prevents them from evaluating alternatives. The initial vision could not be the greatest in terms of how desirable the desired outcome would be or how well it would motivate individuals who would need to be involved in the transformation. Whether or whether the need for change is turned into a desire for change might depend on how the diagnostic stage is handled. According to Schein, organisational members are more likely to be motivated to give up the status quo and seek a more desirable state if:

1. The diagnostic process challenges their belief that everything is fine with the current state of affairs.
2. This challenge generates enough anxiety to spur organisational members to look for alternative options.
3. The potential future has enough promise to make the effort to change worthwhile.

In summarizing these three points, Schein contends that individuals will not be motivated to change unless the unfreezing process provides a promise of psychological safety, with either some benefit or, at worst, a minimal threat to their wellbeing. This is because any disconfirmation provided by the diagnostic phase will be denied or defended against.This explanation of how diagnosis might aid in situational unfreezing and aid in fostering a ready for change serves to emphasize an earlier remark that the distinctions between the phases shown in Figure 1 are not always distinct. Later in the process, implementation and assessing change may also contribute to an emerging diagnosis when new issues and opportunities are recognised. Diagnosis has a role to play in the detection of problems and opportunities.Leaders may find it useful to ask themselves the following questions as they consider how they are handling this phase of the process:

1. Who does the diagnosis: top managers, consultants, or those who will be in charge of implementing the change?
2. Are leaders open to new information, or do they simply pay attention to facts that uphold the status quo or confirm their preconceptions?
3. Does the diagnosis provide a vision that is both attainable and motivating in order to inspire others and guide the transformation effort?

Planning and Preparing for Change

The planning stage is responsible with formulating and outlining the change objectives' methods of implementation. Sometimes those driving the change don't pay enough attention to this. Burnes makes the following observation while analysing Lewin's contribution to change management: Following unfreezing, change managers need to explore possibilities for movement by reviewing all the driving and restraining forces at work, she writes. This emphasises the idea that every stage of the transformation process includes diagnosis to some level.The choice of the overall change approach, whether push, pull, or a combination of the two, is crucial since it may significantly affect how the change turns out. The sorts of treatments that will work best must also be taken into account. The numerous jobs will each have a varied lead time, interdependencies, resource limits, and other factors. Making poor

choices now might have consequences later. For instance, in circumstances when essential resources are limited, committing resources early to a certain course of action may reduce the likelihood of changing course later since, once committed, the resources may not be reusable for another purpose.

When a change is what is commonly referred to as a blueprint change, it is feasible to engage in more thorough preparation. Changes that have a predetermined end point are known as blueprint changes. Relocation, computerization of a corporate process, or the implementation of a new grading or rating system are typical examples of blueprint changes. In certain situations, it is simpler to foresee what has to be done, and the management of change may be seen from the viewpoint of a planned change that entails a preset linear process, following the subsequent steps in the model shown in Figure 1 step by step.However, it is often impossible to define the end point before implementation. While a need for change may be apparent, for instance because the company is losing market share or unable to innovate as quickly as its rivals, it could be less clear what has to be done to make things better. It may not be feasible to offer a precise definition of what this end state will look like or what has to be done in order to attain it, even while there may be a generally defined aim and a direction for change, such as boosting competitiveness.

Because the operational environment may change so quickly in certain circumstances, it may not even be beneficial to conceptualize in terms of particular end states because the notion of a desired end state is likely to alter over time. A blueprint approach to change is incorrect in these situations. It is necessary to understand planning as a more fluid, iterative process that develops and changes over time. Before taking more action, plans are tested as they are carried out.Change managers must take into account more than just the technical aspects of planning. The concerns affecting individuals must also get careful consideration. Plans must take into account how prepared and accepting individuals are of change, as well as if the process poses any threats to them.Following are some queries that might aid executives in considering how they are handling this phase of the procedure:

1. Is the change approach, such as push, pull, or a combination of both, appropriate?
2. Is it obvious what has to be done? Are choices being made with enough consideration for their long-term effects?
3. Is it being sufficiently considered how people could respond to the change?
4. Does it seem obvious what form of intervention would work best?

CONCLUSION

In today's rapidly changing business environment, change management implementation and planning are crucial tasks for organizations to adapt, develop, and prosper. Effective change management involves articulating change goals, making a strong argument, and involving stakeholders at all levels. Effective communication and employee participation are essential for deepening knowledge, reducing resistance, and developing commitment. Lewin's Change Model and ADKAR Model are two frameworks that provide direction and resources for change management. Adopting a structured change management strategy increases the chances of achieving desired results and reducing disruption.

REFERENCES:

[1]   J. W. Harden *et al.*, "Networking our science to characterize the state, vulnerabilities, and management opportunities of soil organic matter," *Glob. Chang. Biol.*, 2018, doi: 10.1111/gcb.13896.

[2]   A. E. Boag *et al.*, "Climate change beliefs and forest management in Eastern Oregon: Implications for individual adaptive capacity," *Ecol. Soc.*, 2018, doi: 10.5751/ES-10355-230401.

[3]   C. Ippoliti, "Extreme Makeover: A Blueprint for Redefining the Role of the Liaison Librarian in the Academic Library," *Int. Inf. Libr. Rev.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/10572317.2017.1383743.

[4]   A. Kluge and N. Gronau, "Intentional forgetting in organizations: The importance of eliminating retrieval cues for implementing new routines," *Frontiers in Psychology*. 2018. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2018.00051.

[5]   D. Rosenbaum, E. More, and P. Steane, "Planned organisational change management: Forward to the past? An exploratory literature review," *Journal of Organizational Change Management*. 2018. doi: 10.1108/JOCM-06-2015-0089.

[6]   S. T. Hussain, S. Lei, T. Akram, M. J. Haider, S. H. Hussain, and M. Ali, "Kurt Lewin's change model: A critical review of the role of leadership and employee involvement in organizational change," *J. Innov. Knowl.*, 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.jik.2016.07.002.

[7]   S. T. Hussain, S. Lei, T. Akram, M. J. Haider, S. H. Hussain, and M. Ali, "Journal of Innovation Conceptual paper Kurt Lewin ' s process model for organizational change□: The role of leadership and employee involvement□: A critical review," *Suma Negocios*, 2016.

[8]   S. Cummings, T. Bridgman, and K. G. Brown, "Unfreezing change as three steps: Rethinking Kurt Lewin's legacy for change management," *Hum. Relations*, 2016, doi: 10.1177/0018726715577707.

[9]   A. Kritsonis, "Camparion of Change Theories," *Int. J. Manag. Business, Adm.*, 2005.

[10]   E. Rosch, "Lewin's field theory as situated action in organizational change," *Organ. Dev. J.*, 2002.

CHAPTER 3

IMPLEMENTING AND MAINTAINING CHANGE: SUSTAINING TRANSFORMATIONS

Ms. Neha Goyal, Assistant Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-ngoyal921@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Implementing and maintaining change is crucial for organizations to adapt and thrive in a constantly changing world. A methodical approach involves a clear vision, a well-defined plan, effective communication, engagement, and flexibility. A thorough action plan is created, considering potential hazards and impediments. Strong leadership and change management abilities are essential, as well as the freedom to own the process. Maintaining change requires constant work and focus, assessing progress, building feedback loops, celebrating milestones, and aligning systems, structures, and policies with the intended changes. Investing in training and development ensures staff are equipped to adopt new working practices. Overall, a culture of continuous improvement and acceptance of change are essential for long-term success.

KEYWORDS:

Change, Feedback, Leaders, Process, Planning.

INTRODUCTION

The emphasis switches from planning to action as whatever has been prepared now needs to be put into practice. Change managers often neglect to give managing the people problems enough attention, which results in change plans not being executed as planned. Even if a change manager may see clear advantages for the organisation as a whole from the change, certain organisational members may not perceive many advantages for themselves, which will influence their desire to support or oppose the change. The communication of the change, inspiring people and groups to support the change, and managing stakeholder interests all need careful consideration[1]–[4].Reviewing the modification and keeping track of progress must also be given attention. Change may need a lot of retracing, according to Buchanan and Story. According to Burke, who shares this viewpoint, the change process often resembles a series of loops rather than a straight line because things seldom go as planned and because even when plans are carried out as intended, there are frequently unintended effects. The ongoing need to fix things in order to keep the change on track is something change managers regularly mention.

It was said before during the discussion of planning that, in certain situations, change entails taking cautious incremental steps in what is considered to be the proper direction and, after each step, examining the step itself to see if it worked and whether the direction still holds true. To determine if the change plan is effective, leaders must actively seek out and respond to input. Change managers need to be aware of the risk that, even if planned actions are carried out as intended, they could not have the desired outcome. A lack of commitment and motivation on the part of those who will be directly impacted by the change, reward systems that penalize new behaviour, rigid organisational structures, a lack of political support from those who could sabotage the project, or a lack of resources, among other things, could be the cause of this. It's also possible that some of the early advantages of the implementation's first steps may fade when rigidities brought on by path-dependent behaviours reduce the options for action. Feedback on how the change is going might indicate that the change plan and the manner it is being carried out need to be reviewed.All too often, persons in charge of

implementing change fail to actively seek out accessible input and become aware that the change is having unintended effects until a third party or unanticipated event brings it to their notice[5], [6].

Change managers may still run into problems even after understanding how important it is to assess and track progress since the essential data may not be accessible or may be challenging to utilise. The fragmentation of the transition process is one of the causes of this. The phases of strategy, feasibility, conceptual design, detailed design, programming, implementation, usage, and maintenance are characteristic of the software design process, according to Clegg and Walsh.Each of these phases often involves a variety of participants, each with their own objectives and concerns. This dispersion compromises the feedback procedure. One group may push the project in a certain way without realizing the need to alert others to this, or it may face and solve an issue without considering how its actions would affect end users.

Even when they are aware that others may need to be informed, they might not always specify who needs to be informed, and those who are informed might not understand the relevance of what they have been told. This lack of consistency and feedback, according to Clegg and Walsh, might make it challenging for people participating in the change process to influence and learn from one another. It's crucial to coordinate. Everyone in a leadership position has to encourage alignment and interact with others in a manner that motivates them to band together to support the change. 'Expert' change agents often determine when and where change is necessary and set change goals without considering stakeholder concerns or taking into consideration the ways in which they might support or obstruct the change process.Following are some queries that might aid executives in considering how they are handling this phase of the procedure:

1. Do change agents articulate a compelling vision and provide practical objectives?
2. Are stakeholder relationships being handled well?
3. Is commitment maintained when uncertainty is managed?
4. Do change managers ask for input to get rid of implementation roadblocks?
5. Does everyone engaged in putting the change into place have enough coordination?

Sustaining Change

Lewin asserted that transformations are all too often fleeting. After receiving a shot in the arm, life resumes its previous state. According to him, thinking about change as just entering a new condition is insufficient. The goal should be to preserve this new condition for as long as it is advantageous to do so; nevertheless, it is crucial to note that there are instances in which maintaining a change may not be advantageous due to recent changes.A sustained shift is one in which new ways of working and improved outcomes become the norm, where the thinking and attitudes behind them are fundamentally altered, and the systems surrounding them are transformed in support, according to the NHS Modernization Agency. Numerous things may have an impact on sustainability. One is the manner in which the whole transformation process is handled from the outset. While more involved techniques may garner a greater degree of commitment that is more likely to be maintained, tough top-down strategies are more likely to produce compliance, which can disappear when the pressure to maintain the change is relaxed[7]–[10].How leaders behave after the primary transformation objectives have been reached is another consideration.

A change objective has not become the new norm just because it has been accomplished and is producing better results. Kotter issues a warning against prematurely announcing triumph since, in his opinion, doing so might kill momentum before the thoughts and attitudes necessary to sustain the new style of working have taken root. He also believes that after implementation, leaders should use every chance to demonstrate to people and organisations how their work is generating advantages. He demands that organisations provide members

with timely, clear, and targeted feedback so they may concentrate their efforts on the areas that are really making a difference. According to a number of authors, customized feedback methods may aid in maintaining change in addition to facilitating monitoring and control throughout the implementation phase. In order to create feedback mechanisms, they can use for themselves to monitor and manage the situation over the longer term, change managers can collaborate with operational managers, who will continue to be responsible for day-to-day management once the change has been implemented.

'Churn' is another element that Kotter says might thwart change. According to significant study conducted in the UK's National Health Service (NHS), Buchanan et al. found that once leaders left, their successors often had different priorities and desired to pursue their own agendas. The next generation of leaders must be carefully chosen to guarantee that the new strategy is supported in order to reduce the effects of turnover. Even when leaders stay in place, turnover may still be an issue if some of the other participants in the shift go and their understanding and experience with the new methods of working is lost. According to Buchanan et al., this issue may be made worse if replacements bring attitudes and work practises that are inconsistent with the change. In these situations, careful consideration of selection and induction might be helpful.Following are some queries that might aid executives in considering how they are handling this phase of the procedure:

1. Do change managers work to enact change in a way that gains enduring support?
2. Do they follow-up on adjustments made after implementation?
3. Do they refrain from claiming success too soon?
4. Is mitigating the effects of churn given enough thought?

DISCUSSION

Leading and Managing the People Issues

When creating and executing plans for change, those in charge of it can take a strictly technical approach and pay inadequate attention to what some refer to as the softer human concerns, like divergent aims and prioritiesinternal politics and the ability of stakeholders to effect outcomes the way leaders engage with the intended beneficiaries of change communication and commitment support for people who will be affected by the change.

An excellent illustration of how challenges with stakeholder management, motivation, and communication may impact the success of a change projecting this instance, the procurement of components from nations with competitive prices is the Triumph scenario from the Introduction to Part IV.

Recognizing the need for change, identifying what needs to be altered, and creating change plans are not easy tasks. Stakeholders may oppose any attempt to even explore the notion that change may be necessary, refuse to collaborate with management to develop change plans, and make significant efforts to thwart changes that are already being implemented. When considering how they are handling this part of the change process, persons in charge of the change might ask themselves the following questions:

1. Do leaders comprehend how others may feel and how they could respond to the prospect of change?
2. Do they behave in a manner that will gain commitment and foster trust?
3. Do they recognised and include the people and organisations who have the power to influence the success of the change?
4. Do they communicate well?
5. Do they encourage others to help bring about change?
6. Do they stand with those that the change threatens?

Learning

Effective leaders are individuals who are able to draw lessons from their mistakes and use those lessons to alter their conduct in order to perform better. The two types of learning are single-loop and double-loop, according to Argyris and Schön.

Single-Loop Learning

When leaders concentrate on seeing mistakes and acting on this feedback to change their own and other people's conduct, single-loop learning (see Figure 1) takes place. It encourages ongoing development based on extrapolating historical tendencies. This may not be ground-breaking since it may not result in much change in the fundamental ideas and assumptions that govern conduct, but it may be beneficial over the short and long terms. New methods of action are likely to be constrained by accepted norms and ways of thinking.
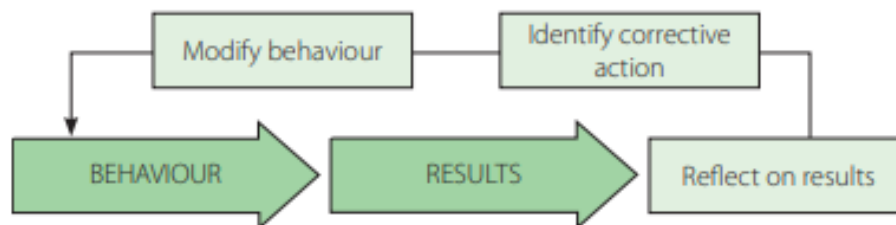
Figure 1: Represting the overview to Single-Loop Learning [Research Gate. Net].

Existing practises often become reinforced when leaders operate in a way that generates positive feedback via continual development. When faced with pressure to provide higher profits, a leader may look for methods to streamline processes through enhancing internal organisational fit. For instance, training might be suggested as a way to enhance the alignment between workers' skill sets and the competencies required to operate the current manufacturing system effectively, and reorganizing departmental structures might be suggested as a way to resolve jurisdictional conflicts that impede the manufacturing process. Despite the fact that these and similar actions can result in efficiencies, it is also possible that short-term gains could be negated if leaders' actions lock the system into a path that involves producing the same products for customers in traditional markets using existing technologies, albeit more efficiently, and lock out the possibility of acting in ways that can facilitate the exploitation of new opportunities as and when they arise.

Double-Loop Learning

Double-loop learning (see Figure 2) happens when leaders are able to think outside the box by analysing results, recognizing and questioning the presumptions and beliefs that guided the choices and actions that resulted in these results, and, when necessary, revising their presumptions in a way that makes it possible to try out novel behaviours.For instance, leaders at the Midland Bank in the UK were among the first to question the business model that presupposed that the only way to connect with retail customers was through an expensive branch network. As a result of their bold thinking, First Direct, the first telephone bank, was introduced. At a less strategic level, leaders could make an effort to relate to individuals impacted and comprehend why they objected to the change after considering how people responded to the implementation of a new performance management system. When leaders consider the situation from this angle, they may realize that their management approach may be a contributing factor, which may lead them to reevaluate some of their presumptions about the dedication and drive of their employees.
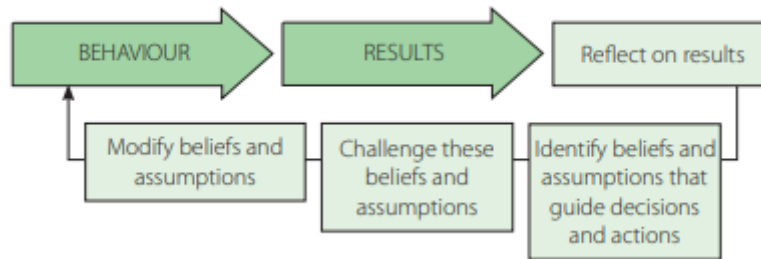
Figure 2: Represting the overview to Double-Loop Learning[Research Gate. Net].

While leaders believe they are objective and see things as they are, according to Covey, they really see what they have been conditioned to see. In the performance management example, a newly hired HR director may have relied on prior expertise in a different organisation without realizing that assumptions made on the basis of that experience are unfounded in the present context. According to Covey, the more aware we are of our fundamental paradigms, maps, or assumptions, and the degree to which they have been shaped by our experiences, the better we are able to accept responsibility for those paradigms, examine them, test them against reality, listen to others, and be open to their perceptions, resulting in a more comprehensive and objective perspective. The assumptions that leaders make about time are one area that often goes unnoticed. Huy makes the case that a leader's view on time influences how they priorities problems, allot resources, and gauge the urgency of tasks.

While leaders with a longer time view are more likely to strive towards obtaining long-term, enduring achievements, leaders with a shorter time perspective are more likely to select activities that yield quick, visible benefits and pay less attention to longer term objectives. Leaders may be more susceptible to the route dependencies that might result in inefficiencies in the long run when they are unaware that they have a limited time perspective. Double-loop learning offers a fresh perspective on circumstances and occurrences while challenging conventional ways of thinking and doing. Through this insight, leaders may be able to prevent unproductive route dependencies and the need to spend time and resources overcoming unwarranted opposition from other stakeholders.

1. Do people participating in the change anticipate how others would react to events before determining what to do? is one question that could help leaders reflect on how they learn from the process of managing change.
2. Do they keep tabs on the results of their acts and utilise this data to shape their future choices?
3. Do they accept criticism from others?
4. To what degree do they see errors made by themselves and others as teaching moments?
5. Do they make an effort to recognised and question the presumptions that guide their behaviour?

6. Are they aware that choices that have favourable short-term effects may have negative long-term effects on performance?

Improving Leader Performance

It has been suggested that leaders may improve their effectiveness if they take a step back and observe what is happening, paying close attention to how people respond to their actions and how their choices affect short- and long-term consequences. They can then use these observations to inform their conduct. But all too frequently, this does not occur because of the following:

1. Leaders are so enmeshed in a flurry of activity that they have little chance for observation and reflection Leaders are so steadfast in their commitment to a course of action that they fail to notice information that contradicts their worldview
2. shielded from knowledge about the effects of their decisions by organisational structures, policies, and management practises that obstruct upward communication and foster a climate of organisational silence.
3. Harbor beliefs about the competence and motivations of others that make it easy for them to dismiss their feedback.
4. Because they are too engrossed to take an outward-looking viewpoint, are so entangled and tied by a route that gradually reduces their ability to make decisions that they become path dependent to the exclusion of path-breaking activity.

Leaders must be aware that these obstacles might make it difficult for them to switch from an instant doing mentality; instead, they must make a concerted effort to adopt a observing mode and apply a critical perspective to their daily job. Leaders are more likely to be able to take action and intervene in ways that can break inefficient patterns and move the change process in a direction that has a higher likelihood of producing superior outcomes when leadership is seen as a process and when events, decisions, actions, and reactions are seen to be connected.

CONCLUSION

Organizations must enhance leader performance by providing them with the necessary skills and qualities to manage and inspire their teams. This includes professional growth, coaching, and mentoring. Double loop learning helps leaders critically analyze underlying assumptions, attitudes, and values, fostering a culture of continuous improvement. This reflective and iterative approach allows leaders to identify and solve structural problems, promoting original problem-solving and cooperation among leaders. By investing in their development, organizations can develop flexible, imaginative, and innovative leaders capable of achieving strategic goals.

REFERENCES:

[1] J. Ploeg *et al.*, "Contextual factors influencing the implementation of innovations in community-based primary health care: the experience of 12 Canadian research teams," *Prim. Health Care Res. Dev.*, 2019, doi: 10.1017/S1463423619000483.

[2] L. Hjarnoe and A. Leppin, "What does it take to get a healthy diet at sea? A maritime study of the challenges of promoting a healthy lifestyle at the workplace at sea," *Int. Marit. Health*, 2014, doi: 10.5603/IMH.2014.0018.

[3] M. J. Colloff *et al.*, "An integrative research framework for enabling transformative adaptation," *Environ. Sci. Policy*, 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.envsci.2016.11.007.

[4] R. L. Pressey, M. Cabeza, M. E. Watts, R. M. Cowling, and K. A. Wilson, "Conservation planning in a changing world," *Trends in Ecology and Evolution*. 2007. doi: 10.1016/j.tree.2007.10.001.

[5] S. Oddie and P. Rhodes, "Barriers to deferred cord clamping in preterm infants," *Arch. Dis. Child. Fetal Neonatal Ed.*, 2014, doi: 10.1136/archdischild-2014-305968.

[6] R. C. Austin and T. A. Murray, "Don't Go It Alone: The Importance of Community and Research in Implementing and Maintaining Innovative Pedagogy," *ACS Symp. Ser.*, 2019, doi: 10.1021/bk-2019-1337.ch011.

[7] P. Senge *et al.*, "The dance of change: The challenges to sustaining momentum in learning organizations," *Perform. Improv.*, 1999, doi: 10.1002/pfi.4140380511.

[8]   B. B. Lillis and M. Szwejczewski, "Sustaining change in manufacturing companies," *Manag. Serv.*, 2015.

[9]   D. Buchanan *et al.*, "No going back: A review of the literature on sustaining organizational change," *International Journal of Management Reviews*. 2005. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-2370.2005.00111.x.

[10]   R. P. Krakowsky, "Sustaining change in higher education administrative student services.," *Diss. Abstr. Int. Sect. A Humanit. Soc. Sci.*, 2008.

CHAPTER 4

PATTERNS OF CHANGE:RECOGNIZING TRENDS AND DYNAMICS IN TRANSFORMATIONS

Ms. Navita Roy, Assistant Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-navitaroy27@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Patterns of change are present in various aspects of life, including personal behavior, organizational dynamics, and societal changes. The S-curve represents the course of growth and development, with gradual growth followed by an acceleration phase. The ripple effect helps stakeholders anticipate and manage potential problems. Resistance and adaptation are common patterns, with individuals and organizations showing resistance to new ideas or practices. The boomerang effect highlights the potential for setbacks or reversals in change projects. Emergent change emphasizes the importance of adaptability and agility in dealing with unforeseen changes and opportunities. Leaders must be equipped to deal with these obstacles, reevaluate plans, and redouble efforts to advance the transformation.

KEYWORDS:

Change, Equilibrium, Organizational, System, Transformation.

INTRODUCTION

An effective conceptual framework for seeing organisations as a system of interconnected components that interact with a broader environment is provided by open systems theory. The focal system, whether it be a work group, department, or organisation, is a component of a bigger system that provides it with the resources, information, and feedback it needs to function.

This larger system is known as the external environment. An organisation may be conceptualized in its most basic form as an open system that interacts with its surroundings, receiving numerous inputs that it turns into outputs (see Figure 1). When an organisation creates products or provides services to third parties, the money made from the sale of these outputs may be used to pay for the purchase of new inputs, such as personnel, raw materials, tools, and facilities, which may be used to create further outputs. Feedback from customers and other external stakeholders may indicate that an organisation needs to change how it produces the goods and services it exports or that new products need to be developed in response to market changes, which may have an impact on the organization's need for environmental inputs[1]–[4].

The strategy of an organisation may be impacted by changes in the cost and accessibility of inputs. The majority of organisations work in dynamic environments, and in order to thrive in this evolving world, they must be aware of new possibilities and risks and be able to act on them. The ability of an organisation to react to opportunities and dangers is examined in this chapter. However, this is the exception rather than the rule. It is believed that the best answer is a continual stream of incremental changes that guarantee the organization is always in alignment with its environment.

The standard is that due to internal factors that encourage inertia, many organizations take a long time to adjust to new situations. Strategic drift and a growing mismatch with their external environment are the results, and they are ultimately forced to engage in dramatic reform[5]–[8].
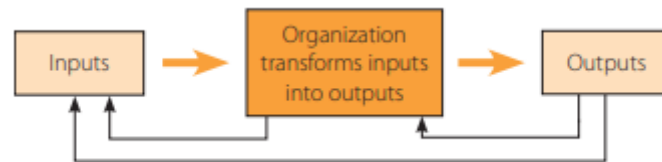
Figure 1: An Organization Transacting With its Environment [Research Gate. Net].

Adapting to Change: The Gradualist Paradigm

According to the gradualist paradigm, organisations adapt to opportunities and dangers by making gradual changes over time. Their reaction is changing, and as time passes, these ongoing modifications add up to restructure the organisation (Figure 2). This viewpoint is supported by Brown and Eisenhardt, who mention organisations like Intel, Walmart, 3M, HP, and Gillette as examples. They argue that these organizations' cultures are built around their capacity to adapt quickly and continually. They cite Bargeman and Chakravarthy who contend that firms adapt and sometimes transform via a process of continuously updating their goods, and that continuous change is often played out through product innovation. HP is seen as a typical instance. Instead of a dramatic abrupt transformation, the corporation transformed from an instruments company to a computer firm via quick, continual product innovation.When it happens, continuous change necessitates ongoing revisions to societal norms and business procedures. In the lack of a change agent's a priori objectives, Weick and Quinn contend that this produces new patterns in how an organisation organizes itself. It is emergent in the sense that change has not been purposefully orchestrated. It is ongoing and the result of management's routine operations. They cite Orlikowski (1996), who contends that continuous change requires people and groups to experiment with and accommodate commonplace breakdowns, opportunities, and unintended consequences before repeating, sharing, and amplifying them to create noticeable and striking changes.
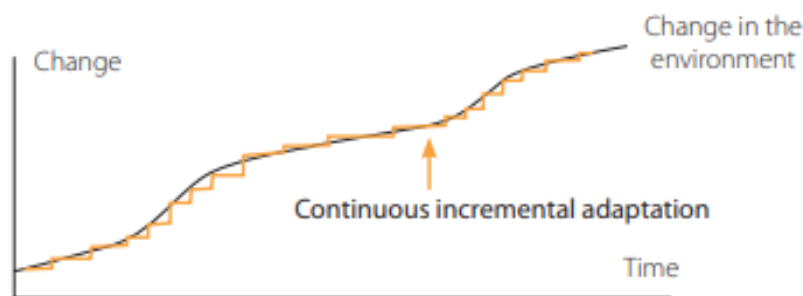
Figure 2: The graduate paradigm leading to continuous evolutionary change[Research Gate. Net].

When the Pentium processor, multimedia, the internet, and the blending of telephony and consumer electronics sped up product development, Brown and Eisenhardt analysed product innovation in six businesses in the computer sector. Their case studies included three studies of companies with a track record of effective product innovation and financial performance and three studies of companies with a less than stellar track record of creating multi-product portfolios. They discovered three traits in the businesses that were successful at managing change as a continual process of adjustment: semi-structures that encouraged improvisation, connections in time that encouraged learning, and sequenced actions for managing transitions.The defining characteristic of continuous change, according to Weick and Quinn, is the notion that tiny continuous modifications made concurrently across units may add up to produce significant change. Improvisation, translation, and learning are the three interconnected processes linked to ongoing change, according to them:

1. Improvising enables the change of work procedures via cooperative adjustments in which the time difference between planning and implementing becomes less and smaller until it converges with execution at the point where planning meets execution.
2. Refers to the ongoing revision and modification of ideas as they go through the organisation.
3. Learning entails the ongoing updating of common mental models, which helps the organisation become more responsive.

Organisations produce continuous change, according to Weick and Quinn, through repeated acts of improvisation that involve simultaneous composition and execution, repeated acts of translation that transform ideas into usable artefacts that serve the needs at hand, or repeated acts of learning that increase, strengthen, or decrease the repertoire of responses.Burke challenges Orlikowski's presumption that a steady stream of incremental changes can result in fundamental change, even though he accepts the possibility that more than 95% of organisational changes are, in some way, evolutionary and gradually unfold over time in response to changing circumstances. Burke claims that in order to overcome the inertia that prevents change in most organisations, the system has to be given a discontinuous jolt: Although it is possible to continuously pay attention to and make efforts to improve an organisation, it is doubtful that the core structure of the organisation will change fundamentally.

The Punctuated Equilibrium Paradigm

The punctuated equilibrium paradigm's central tenet is that systems develop through alternating periods of equilibrium, during which persistent deep structures only allow for small-scale incremental change, and periods of revolution, during which these deep structures are fundamentally altered (Figure 3). The gradualist paradigm, which contends that organisations may be substantially altered by a continual stream of gradual modifications, contrasts sharply with this pattern of development.One of the first to question the idea of gradual, cumulative development was Gould. He studies the natural world and is fascinated by Darwin's idea of evolution. According to traditionalists, evolution entails a steady stream of minute adjustments that are continually moulded throughout time by environmental selection. Gould disputes the idea that change is gradual and continuous even if he supports the idea of natural selection. According to Gould, the data suggests that there are lengthy stretches of relative calm interspersed with episodes of catastrophic extinction and fast origination. Some of his writings concentrate on the two most significant punctuations. After 4 billion years of almost little change, there occurred the Cambrian explosion of life (600 million years ago), followed by the Permian extinction (225 million years ago), which eliminated half the families of marine invertebrates.
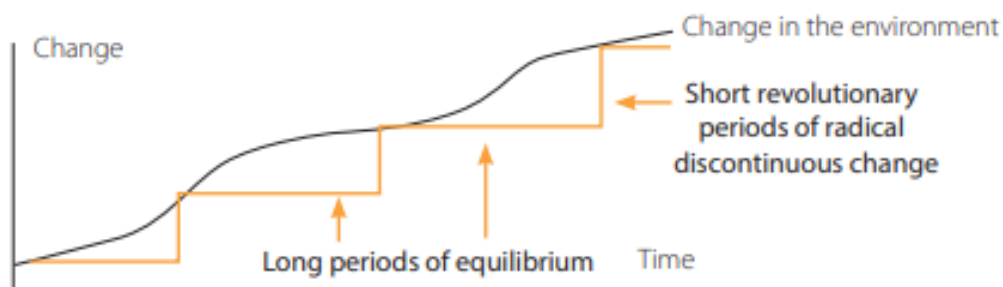

Figure 3: Represting the overview to Punctuated Equilibrium[Research Gate. Net].

The punctuated equilibrium paradigm was supported by Gersick, who examined theories of change in six fields: individual transformation, group development, organisation

development, history of science, biological evolution, and physical science. The paradigm is comprised of relatively long periods of stability equilibrium, punctuated by compact periods of qualitative, metamorphic change revolution) according to Gersick.Gersick continues by stating that the link between these two modes is explained in all of the models she looked at across the six domains by the idea of a deeply ingrained, very lasting order. During moments of equilibrium, this deep structure endures and restricts change, while it disassembles, reconfigures, and compels complete metamorphosis.

DISCUSSION

Deep Structure

According to Gerick, an organization's deep structure refers to the fundamental decisions it takes that shape the fundamental activity patterns that support its survival.According to her, deep structures are very stable since a system's organization'sdecision-making process tends to reject out a lot of possibilities and favor those that are reliant on one another early steps in the decision tree are the most fateful. She also contends that via the use of reciprocal feedback loops, the activity patterns of a system's deep structure strengthen the system as a whole. This argument is comparable to that made by Sydow et al., who contend that self-reinforcing sequences result in the formation of a pattern of actions, choices, and occurrences that start to take precedence and draw attention away from other options.The deep structure of an organisation may be considered as being represented by five core areas of organisational activity, according to Tushman and Roman ell. These include the control mechanisms, organisational culture, strategy, and structure. According to Romanelli and Tushman, it takes a revolution to change a system of interconnected organisational parts when the system is upheld by dependencies between the parts and when external competitive, regulatory, and technological systems support the legitimacy of the managerial decisions that led to the parts.

The main contention is the same, but Greenwood and Hinings provide a slightly different viewpoint grounded in neo-institutional theory. There is a force for inertia that prevents incremental change from occurring, and this resistance to change will be greatest when there is a network of tightly coupled mutual dependencies. According to Greenwood and Hinings, normative embeddedness of an organisation within its institutional context is a primary cause of resistance to change. Institutional expectations must be met if an organisation is to exist. They use the institutional context's impact on accounting companies' structure and governance to demonstrate their claim. They were set up as professional partnerships, and the most of them still are, not because that form of governance made it easier to do tasks effectively and efficiently, but rather because it was deemed the best method to organise the conduct of accounting work.

Convergent change occurs within the limits provided by such an archetypal pattern. For instance, according to Greenwood and Hinings, if an accounting business expands, it may add a kind of representative democracy in place of the conventional, widely based democratic system of government. This kind of small-scale change might be implemented since it is seen to be in line with dominant basic beliefs and values. A shift towards a more bureaucratic type of power and governance, however, would meet with fierce opposition since it is seen to be at odds with the current model. The organisation would have to switch from one template to another in order to make such a drastic adjustment. The deep structures of Gersick are analogous to these templates in operation. The ability of the template to restrict the possibilities of gradual cumulative change in any specific organisation will, however, depend on how deeply ingrained and powerful these templates are in the various sectors.

In the case of the accounting profession, a robust network of reciprocal interactions between professional organisations, universities, governmental agencies, and accounting companies

supports the partnership organisational structure with its dedication to independence, autonomy, and responsible behavior. The end result is a system in which many accounting companies are closely related to the dominant archetypal pattern. Although extreme change in closely related domains will be exceptional, according to Greenwood and Hinings, it won't come gradually. It is more likely to manifest as an abrupt revolutionary transformation. However, in loosely related domains, fundamental change will be simpler to accomplish via a process of ongoing adjustment that takes place over time. However, a slack connection might hold change back. According to Weick and Quinn when interdependencies are slack, ongoing modifications may be contained inside individual subunits and stay as isolated pockets of innovation rather than accumulating to bring about fundamental change across the whole organization.

Equilibrium Periods

In order to depict an organization's deep structure, Gersick uses the analogy of a playing field and the game's rules. He then uses the analogy of the game being played to describe activities during an equilibrium phase. The playing surface and the game's regulations dictate the constancy of how a football match is played, even if it may alter during a match. Although the coach and the players may intervene and make adjustments that would impact team performance, they are unable to alter the playing field's characteristics or the game's regulations the deep structure.When it comes to organisational change, change agents may step in and make minor modifications in reaction to internal or external disturbances during times of equilibrium, but these interventions won't significantly alter the organization's underlying structure.The punctuated equilibrium paradigm states that organisations are difficult to change during equilibrium periods because of factors of inertia that seek to preserve the status quo. As long as the deep structure is intact, the system will not be able to generate alternatives outside of its own confines, according to Gersick. Furthermore, any deviations that do occur may be brought back into alignment by these inertial forces. Cognitive frameworks and obligations are three types of inertia that may be caused. Gersick identified these three types of inertia.

Members of an organisation often create common mental models and cognitive frameworks that affect how they see the world and learn. Shared mental models may force people to only think within the frame. In periods of equilibrium, assumptions about the organization's theory of business frequently go unchallenged and organisational members fail to give enough attention to the possibility of doing things differently or even doing different things. With regard to change, attention may be limited to looking for ways to do things better.Change might also be impeded by obligations. Even if a system can get past its own cognitive and motivational obstacles to realizing the need for change, Tushman and Romanelli note that the networks of interdependent resource relationships, such as relationships with suppliers, and value commitments generated by its structure will frequently prevent it from being able to achieve the necessary change. This perspective lends credence to Greenwood and Hining's claim that an organization's embeddedness in norms might impede transformation, at least in part.Discontinuous change episodes happen when a radical transition is sparked by inertia, or an organization's failure to adapt as quickly as its surroundings.

Revolutionary Periods

The defining characteristic of the punctuated equilibrium paradigm, according to Gersick, is that organisations do not change from one kind of game to another by gradual transitions. This is due to resistance to change, which, according to Romanelli and Tushman, inhibits tiny changes in organisational units from taking root and significantly impacting activity in connected subunits. Small adjustments thus do not gradually add up to overhaul the organisation. Weick and Quinn point out that punctuated equilibrium theorists contend that

revolutionary change events take place at times of divergence, when there is a rising misalignment between the underlying structure of an organisation and the expectations of the external world. As short-term adaptations are attempted in order to reach greater levels of efficiency, they claim that the metaphor of the company represented by episodic change is an organisation that contains a collection of interdependencies that converge and tighten get more tightly matched. The organisation is sluggish to respond to environmental change as a result of this emphasis on internal alignment, which diverts attention from the requirement to maintain alignment with the external environment.

Up until a misalignment causes significant changes, inertia sustains the equilibrium Lewin referred to as a stable, quasi-stationary condition. The organisation must change for the better if it is to go ahead. According to Gersick, deep structures can only be transformed through a process of complete upheaval. In order to achieve any fundamental change, the deep structures must first be destroyed, temporarily causing the system to be disorganized. The system may then be reconfigured to work in accordance with a new set of rules by reassembling a portion of its old components with some new ones.A new equilibrium is made possible by this process of revolutionary upheaval and organisational transformation. This new equilibrium, however, gives birth to another time of relative stability, which is followed by yet another period of revolutionary upheaval because of forces of resistance that prevent ongoing adaptation.

This process, which is one of punctuated equilibrium, is still in progress.According to proponents of the punctuated equilibrium paradigm, revolutionary moments may have an impact on a single organisation or an entire industry. The UK's energy supply business is one example of an entire industry that had to adapt its fundamental makeup. When the conservative administration made the decision to privatise the sector, a new playing field and a new set of regulations were established for all the utility businesses operating in the market. When Marks & Spencer discovered that it was out of sync with its environment and underperforming other top retailers even after a protracted period of incremental improvement, it realized that it needed to reinvent itself.

CONCLUSION

Deep structures, equilibrium, and revolutionary epochs are crucial concepts in social and organizational development. Deep structures are the underlying ideals, principles, and presumptions that influence people's behaviors and decision-making processes. They provide stability and continuity within a system, while equilibrium preserves order and predictability. However, when equilibrium is insufficient, revolutionary eras occur, characterized by significant ruptures or shocks that disrupt existing deep structures and power dynamics. These tumultuous and unexpected periods can spark creativity, reworking established structures, and promoting paradigm shifts. Conflict, opposition, and uncertainty may also arise as existing interests and deep structures struggle to maintain power.

REFERENCES:

[1]   A. Wollin, "Punctuated equilibrium: Reconciling theory of revolutionary and incremental change," *Syst. Res. Behav. Sci.*, 1999, doi: 10.1002/(sici)1099-1743(199907/08)16:4<359::aid-sres253>3.0.co;2-v.

[2]   J. González-Reinhart, "Understanding an electronic medical records system implementation through the punctuatedequilibrium lens," *International Journal of Healthcare Technology and Management*. 2010. doi: 10.1504/IJHTM.2010.033276.

[3]   J. González-Reinhart and H. Panahi, "Understanding an electronic medical records system implementation through the punctuated equilibrium lens," in *15th Americas Conference on Information Systems 2009, AMCIS 2009*, 2009.

[4]   "The Open Source Paradigm Shift," in *Perspectives on Free and Open Source Software*, 2019. doi: 10.7551/mitpress/5326.003.0032.

[5]   P. Cipriani, "Enrico Fermi's excursions through the fields of classical physics: Watching the landscapes of phase space and the nature of dynamical paths, looking for ergodicity," in *Nuovo Cimento della Societa Italiana di Fisica B*, 2002.

[6]   J. D. Greear, *GOSPEL: Recovering the Power that Made Christianity Revolutionary*. 2011.

[7]   S. A. Scholfield, "Newly Desiring and Desired," *M/C J.*, 1999, doi: 10.5204/mcj.1776.

[8]   T. Sutherland, "Counterculture, Capitalism, and the Constancy of Change," *M/C J.*, 2014, doi: 10.5204/mcj.891.

CHAPTER 5

PUNCTUATED EQUILIBRIUM PARADIGM: UNDERSTANDING SUDDEN SHIFTS IN CHANGE

Ms. Navita Roy, Assistant Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-navitaroy27@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:
The punctuated equilibrium paradigm suggests that evolution and transformation occur in irregular spurts separated by prolonged periods of stability. This perspective is supported by various academic fields, including evolutionary biology, paleontology, sociology, and organizational theory. Fossil record and evolutionary biology provide evidence for punctuated equilibrium, as species often experience stasis and rapid evolutionary change, challenging the idea of slow, steady evolution. Social revolutions, such as the Civil Rights Movement, Industrial Revolution, and the Internet, also support punctuated equilibrium in sociology, as they disrupt societal conventions and systems, leading to significant changes in society.

KEYWORDS:

Change, Equilibrium, Organizations, Punctuated, Paradigm.

INTRODUCTION

The punctuated equilibrium paradigm is supported by several case studies. According to Pettigrew, ICI underwent alteration between 1969 and 1986. He discovered that periods of drastic transformation were alternated with times of gradual adjustment and that changes in basic beliefs came before changes in organisational structure and corporate strategy. In their analysis of the growth of AT&T, General Radio, Citibank, and Prime Computers, Tushman et al. noted instances when organisational systems, structures, and tactics converged to be more in line with the core purposes of these companies. They also noted that these times of stability were interspersed by short bursts of powerful and widespread change, which resulted in the formulation of fresh missions and the beginning of fresh equilibrium periods[1]-[4].

The Nature of Change Confronting Most Organizations

According to Dunphy, people's inability to build a continually adaptable organization sometimes referred to as a learning organization causes planned change to occur. The ideal organisation, according to Weick and Quinn, would be similar to the successful self-organizing and highly flexible businesses that Brown and Eisenhardt discovered in the computer sector. However, although some organisations could reach this goal and develop double-loop collective learning capabilities to the point where they are seldom out of alignment with their environment, most do not. If they last long enough, the majority of organisations go through episodic change, which alternates between relatively lengthy stretches of constant incremental progress and brief bursts of discontinuous revolutionary transformation[5]–[7].Organisations that may not undergo periods of discontinuous change fall into three broad categories:

1. The many types of self-organizing, dynamic learning organisations that Brown and Eisenhardt discovered.
2. Businesses engaged in slow-moving or specialised markets where they have not yet experienced the type of environmental change necessitating the transformation of their underlying structures.

3. Organisations that can go on operating without changing because they have enough fat to withstand the inefficiencies brought on by misalignment.
4. In most organisations, change manifests itself as a pattern of punctuated equilibrium, with these two exceptions.

The punctuated equilibrium paradigm states that organisations go through two different forms of change:

1. Incremental change this takes place over the comparatively lengthy periods of equilibrium and is connected to extrapolating historical patterns, improving processes, and ensuring efficiency.
2. Transformational transformation this takes place during moments of unrest when the organization's external environment is so out of alignment with it that it cannot continue as it has in the past due to inertia's effects and a refusal to see the need for change.
3. The research conducted by Tushman and colleagues, which is summarized in Nadler and Tushman, indicates that most businesses not only experience periods of incremental and transformational change, but also this pattern of change repeats itself with some regularity patterns differ across industries; for instance, periods of discontinuity may occur on a 30-year cycle in cement, but a 5-year cycle in minicomputers.

The rate of change is accelerating and the space between times of discontinuity is shrinking in practically all sectors.This last argument is significant because it foretells that all managers would be required to manage both incremental and transformative change to an ever-increasing extent. Not all organisations can navigate periods of discontinuity, and those that are unable to change may disband or be bought out by rival organisations. Foster and Kaplan provide ominous proof of the consequences of not adapting. Between 1917 and 1987, they discuss changes to the Forbes top 100 firms. Only 18 of the initial 100 firms were remained on the list in 1987, and 61 of them were no longer in business.

The Possibility of Anticipating Change

Sometimes seeing the need for change is rather simple. For instance, businesses operating in the European Union may foresee the effects of new legislation that are now being negotiated in Brussels if they pay close attention. Companies that operate in margin-constrained markets might foresee the need to increase efficiency or find new revenue sources. However, there are times when organisations must deal with unforeseen developments, such as the 2008 economic crisis, the aftermath of the 9/11 terrorist attacks, or the SARS pandemic of 2002–2003.Compared to other organisations, some are far better at foreseeing the need for change[8], [9]. They take initiative. They look for prospective dangers and openings. They plan for potentially unstable circumstances or think forward to any modifications they may make to obtain a competitive edge. Other businesses are far more reactive and only take action when there is a real, urgent need to do so.The more alternatives' managers have when selecting how to handle a need, whether it be for incremental or transformative change, the sooner the need is recognised. Managers are often limited in what they can accomplish when they are compelled to respond to an immediate and compelling demand for change.For instance:

1. There won't be enough time to involve many people. Involving people and encouraging participation in the change process can aid diagnosis, reduce resistance, and increase commitment, but this also takes time.
2. There won't be much time to experiment. Early movers not only have time, but also are more likely to be proactive and anticipate the need for change. Finding original ideas is more challenging when a change is urgently required.

3. Late movers may have limited ability to affect changes in markets and technology. Early movers may have chance to obtain competitive advantage by inventing and protecting their innovative goods or technologies, such as via patents.

DISCUSSION

A Typology of Organizational Change

A helpful typology of organisational change can be created by combining two of the previously discussed dimensions of change: the degree to which change involves incremental adjustment or transformational change, and the degree to which the organization's response to an opportunity or threat is proactive or reactive. Change that takes place even when it's not immediately necessary. It entails looking for more effective ways to realise and defend the strategic goal, such as enhancing policies, techniques, and procedures; implementing new technology; revamping processes to save costs, time to market, and so forth; or raising up personnel with the necessary competencies. Most organisations spend a lot of time fine-tuning their operations. This kind of change is often started internally in order to make tiny modifications to keep the organization's internal components and its strategy aligned with the external environment.

Adaptation a step-by-step, adaptable reaction to an urgent external need for change. It can include reacting to a competitor's effective new marketing plan or a shift in the availability of a crucial resource. In order to stay competitive, it essentially entails doing more of the same but better. When one business, like Nestlé, is compelled to react to a move made by another, like Mars, which may have raised the size or decreased the price of certain of its confectionery items, that is an example of adaptive change. This kind of change does not involve doing something essentially different or in a fundamentally new manner. While tuning and adaptation may include both subtle and significant adjustments, they both take place within the same framework and are constrained by the current paradigm. On the other hand, reorientation and re-creation are sorts of change that, to use Gersick's example, target the playing field and the rules of the game rather than the manner in which a specific game is played. They include changing the organisation and defying convention in order to carry out new or alternative activities.

Reorientation involves changing how the business is defined. It is started in anticipation of potential possibilities or issues in the future. The objective is to guarantee future alignment and effectiveness for the organisation. The frame may need to be changed, but because the requirement for modification has been foreseen, this might include bending the frame continuously over time. In the middle of the 1980s, Nestlé provided an excellent illustration of reorientation. When it was performing well, it started a significant transformation project to make sure that over the long term, it would stay in line with its environment. In order to determine which industries, it should operate in, it started a top-down assessment. Should it, for instance, continue producing baked beans in the pet food industry when the margins on that product were shrinking, or should it, as a significant purchaser of cans and glassware, produce its own or buy them in on a just-in-time basis? Additionally, a significant initiative to redesign the supply chain for the whole company as well as a bottom-up evaluation of the added value provided by each primary activity were started. British Gas is yet another example.

The corporation was sent to the Monopolies and Mergers Commission after being privatized as a monopoly gas provider. The leadership team understood that the firm would be compelled to adapt and maybe be disbanded when the commission presented its findings. A group of 10 top managers were assembled to investigate and test potential outcomes and aid the organisation in building the capacity to react to the unavoidable but as of yet unidentified changes it would have to confront. Senior management may need to put in a lot of effort as in

the case of British Gas to instill a sense of urgency and win general support of the need to be ready for change in situations where the need for change is not universally apparent and may not be seen as urgent by many. Re-Creation a reactive transformation that includes quickly and simultaneously changing all of the organization's fundamental components in order to alter it. It always entails organisational frame breaking and the annihilation of certain system components, according to Nadler and Tushman. It may cause confusion. When Lee Iacocca took over as Chrysler's new CEO, he made several changes that are often highlighted as an example of this sort of transition. He started a process of radical reform that includes changing the majority of the executive team, pulling the business out of the market for big cars, and selling off several international businesses.

Implication of These Different Types of Change management Practice

As will be covered below, different forms of change may have an impact on the locus for change, the emphasis of change efforts, and the order of phases in the change process.

The Focus for Change Efforts

With incremental change, the goal is to enhance internal alignment between already-existing organisational components in order to perform tasks more effectively and increase organisational efficiency. In order to realign the organisation with its changing environment, transformational change seeks a new configuration of organisational components. As previously said, this often results in doing things differently or differently.

The Sequence of Activities Required to Achieve a Desired Outcome

One of the main obstacles to change might be inertia. Interdependencies between job functions, departments, procedures, technologies, customers, and suppliers tighten as an organisation moves through an equilibrium phase, ideologies that dictate the best way to operate are more widely accepted, and resistance to change is strengthened by concern over losing benefits from the status quo. Thus, equilibrium breaking also known as unfreezing according to Lewin is the first stage of the change process. By unfreezing, the organisation is able to shift to a new state and enter a new phase. Unfreezing is a crucial initial stage in the change process since certain stakeholders will likely fight most forms of change.

The problem might not be overcoming inertia and unfreezing the organisation, but rather reviewing and rerouting the continuous process of change that is already under way in a small percentage of situations where constantly adapting organizations are operating in high-velocity environments. According to Weick and Quinn, the proper change sequence needed to reroute this type of continuous change begins with freezing in order to take stock and highlight what is occurring, then moves on to rebalancing, which entails reinterpreting history and resequencing patterns so that they unfold without as many roadblocks, before concluding with unfreezing to resume improvisation, translation, and learning in ways that are more mindful of sequence.

The Locus for Change

According to Nadler and Tushman, the degree of the change that is, its level of trauma and dislocations a key element in deciding how it will be handled. In light of the change typology described. More effort goes into transformational change than into incremental change. Gerick noted that organisational members, including senior managers, experience uncertainty, frequently accompanied by strong emotions, during transformational change because organisations are no longer directed by their old deep structures and do not yet have future directions. The intensity of reactive change is higher than proactive change. According to Nadler and Tushman, everyone is aware that failure might endanger life during reactive change. Additionally, organisational members could discover that their efforts are limited by

time constraints and often by a lack of resources. The least intensive is tuning, they continue, followed by adaptability. Reorientation causes an increase in intensity, while re-creation causes the biggest increase in intensity.

Their major claim is that local leaders can often manage change when its intensity is modest by employing project management and other types of implementations associated with standard management practises. Up to a point when it cannot simply be handled using regular management methods, the burden of change management grows along with the intensity of change. Senior management often develops particular structures and responsibilities to ease the process when the intensity of change reaches this level. They may even employ an internal or external change agent to support the transformation. This kind of change management is referred to as transition management by Nadler and Tushman. It entails using tools built especially for managing a particular transition. The senior staff takes a supportive role, and business as usual is maintained at the organisation. If the change is significant enough, it could be included on the senior team's agenda as one of many critical issues that must be examined and handled over time. The CEO takes on responsibility for leading the change rather than delegating it to others when the severity of the changes grows, however, and change management is no longer simply one of the things on the executive team's agenda.

New Patterns of Change

This pattern of change may not be brand-new, according to Gersick's multi-level and multi-domain examination of punctuated equilibrium. The way that people are perceiving it is what is novel. Many individuals could work their whole working lives in organisations that were never noticeably out of sync with their surroundings when change was happening at a slower rate. As a result, their exposure to organisational change could have been limited to gradual adjusting and fine-tuning. The only route ahead, however, is some kind of dramatic reform since more organisations than ever before have gone through phases of strategic drift and misalignment with their environment.

For managers, managing change presents several difficulties. Burnes makes the following observation. Managing and transforming organisations seems to be growing more complex rather than less so, and more crucial rather than less so. There is no question that the capacity to manage change effectively has to be a key competency for organisations given the continuously changing environment in which they operate. Many change projects some would even say the majority of them fail to provide the desired results. The inability to see the need for change at an early enough stage is one of the causes of this. We'll go into greater depth on accepting the need for change and beginning the change process. A collection of case studies illustrating how organisations have adjusted to shifting conditions concludes this chapter. You are encouraged to think about this chapter's material and how it relates to these situations.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the discovery of novel patterns of change casts doubts on conventional ideas of linear development and emphasises the dynamic and intricate character of change processes. For successfully navigating and managing change, it is important to recognised that it often happens via S-curves, ripple effects, resistance and adaptation, boomerang effects, emergent change, deep structures, equilibrium, revolutionary periods, and punctuated equilibrium. In a world that is always changing, adopting these new patterns enables people, organisations, and society to embrace flexibility, adaptation, and creativity, resulting in more effective and long-lasting improvements. We may better negotiate the complexity of our linked and fast changing world and seize the chances for growth and development that change brings by embracing these new patterns of change.

REFERENCES:

[1]   B. Van Bocxlaer, D. Van Damme, and C. S. Feibel, "Gradual versus punctuated equilibrium evolution in the Turkana Basin molluscs: Evolutionary events or biological invasions?," *Evolution (N. Y).*, 2008, doi: 10.1111/j.1558-5646.2007.00296.x.

[2]   D. Bejou and A. Bejou, "Shared Governance and Punctuated Equilibrium in Higher Education: The Case for Student Recruitment, Retention, and Graduation," *J. Relatsh. Mark.*, 2012, doi: 10.1080/15332667.2012.736072.

[3]   R. Guerrero, L. Margulis, and M. Berlanga, "Symbiogenesis: The holobiont as a unit of evolution," *Int. Microbiol.*, 2013, doi: 10.2436/20.1501.01.188.

[4]   C. Parsons and B. Fidler, "A new theory of educational change - Punctuated equilibrium: The case of the internationalisation of higher education institutions," *Br. J. Educ. Stud.*, 2005, doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8527.2005.00306.x.

[5]   A. H. Salden and M. Kempen, "Sustainable cybernetics systems: Backbones of ambient intelligent environments," in *Ambient Intelligence: A Novel Paradigm*, 2005. doi: 10.1007/0-387-22991-4_11.

[6]   "The Open Source Paradigm Shift," in *Perspectives on Free and Open Source Software*, 2019. doi: 10.7551/mitpress/5326.003.0032.

[7]   Y. P. Shimansky, "Adaptive force produced by stress-induced regulation of random variation intensity," *Biol. Cybern.*, 2010, doi: 10.1007/s00422-010-0387-5.

[8]   R. A. Fortey, "Seeing is believing: gradualism and punctuated equilibria in the fossil record," *Sci. Prog.*, 1988.

[9]   W. L. BROWN, "Punctuated equilibrium excused: the original examples fail to support it," *Biol. J. Linn. Soc.*, 1987, doi: 10.1111/j.1095-8312.1987.tb01999.x.

CHAPTER 6

IDENTIFYING THE CATALYST: RECOGNIZING THE NEED FOR CHANGE

Ms. Navita Roy, Assistant Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-navitaroy27@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Recognizing a need or opportunity for change is crucial for effective transformations within organizations and people. This involves understanding the existing condition, critically evaluating current systems, procedures, and results, and analyzing obstacles and constraints. Staying updated on new trends, technology, market trends, and client wants is essential for identifying areas for change. Actively seeking information and being open to input from stakeholders is also crucial. Being receptive to criticism and fostering a culture that values feedback and cooperation is essential for effective implementation. A forward-thinking attitude is essential, imagining a preferred future state and coordinating it with tactical goals and objectives. This forward-looking perspective enables people and organizations to foresee difficulties or disruptions and proactively seek new solutions or chances for progress.

KEYWORDS:

Change, Efficiency, Organizations, Management, Transformation.

INTRODUCTION

The external environment of an organisation contains many of the possibilities and challenges that cause change, but some of these come from inside the system itself. This chapter examines a variety of internal and external causes of change and looks at some of the problems that might make it difficult for an organisation to see when a change is necessary or possible.When it comes to seeing chances and dangers in the outside world, some managers seem to be more adept than others. Successful businesspeople seem to be especially adept at doing this, using intuition to spot possibilities when others perceive just chaos, inconsistencies, and uncertainty. However, there are certain helpful analytical tools that anybody may utilise to aid in their search for possibilities and hazards in the external world[1]-[4]. An analytical technique known by the abbreviation PEST focuses emphasis on technical, social, political, and economic changes that managers should be aware of:

1. **Political Factors:**they include new laws regulating markets in industries like banking, telecommunications, and broadcasting; fiscal policies; environmental management; consumer protection; and employment. Companies that do business internationally need to be mindful of how potential regulatory changes or shifts in the degree of political stability throughout the globe may affect their operations.

2. **Economic Factors:**they include things like the credit crunch's continuing effects, currency rates, financing costs, changes in disposable income levels, raw material costs, supply security concerns, new rivals, and the trade cycle.

3. **Sociocultural Variables:**Demographic trends like a decline in the birth rate or an ageing population are examples of sociocultural variables. The availability of skilled workers, spending habits, and other factors may be impacted by changing attitudes about education, training, employment, and leisure. Business ethics and how business is conducted throughout the globe may be influenced by cultural variables.

4. **Technological Factors:**these include things like the amount of money competitors are investing in R&D and the results of that investment, the availability of new

materials, goods, production methods, distribution channels, etc., the rate of obsolescence, and the requirement to reinvest in infrastructure and personnel.

Strebel created a model that managers may use to foresee environmental technical and economic changes and to assist them in implementing adjustments that would allow their business to stay one step ahead of the competition. He contends that competitive conduct evolves in a cycle, with distinct stages of the cycle distinguished by breakpoints. He adds that these break moments might be anticipated in advance if competition tendencies are properly monitored. Innovation and efficiency are the two stages of the cycle (see Figure 1).Beginning when an invention by one rival is seen to present a new business opportunity, the inventive phase of the cycle is characterised by a dramatic increase in divergence between what competitors are providing. As a result, there is an increase in the range of offers products and services offered to clients. This cycle continues until there is little room for further innovation that adds much value for suppliers or clients. As rivals copy the finest elements of earlier breakthroughs, the divergence of products starts to decrease at this stage[5]–[7].
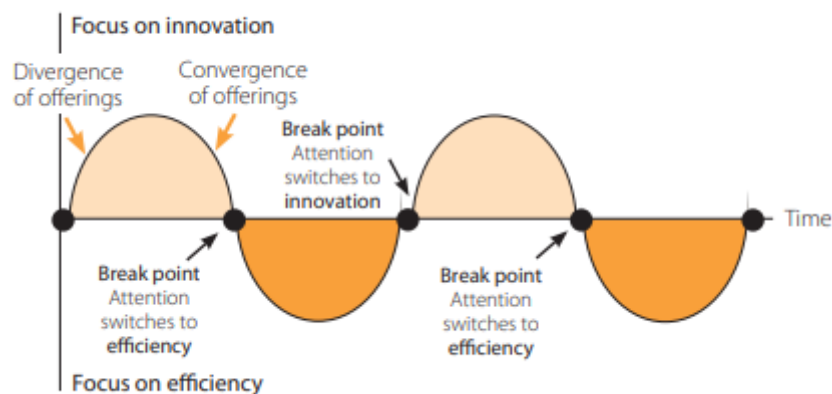
Figure 1: Strebel's Cycle of Competitive Behavior [Research Gate. Net].

When one or more providers start focusing on efficiency rather than innovation, the cycle's next phase starts. Cost cutting is seen as the best way to keep market share and boost profits. By enhancing systems and procedures, they lower the cost of delivery. Every stage of the cycle might provide opportunities to certain people while posing hazards to others. Only the strongest competitors remain throughout the cycle's efficiency phase, and ineffective rivals are forced out of business.The cycle will repeat again after the majority of the options for acquiring competitive advantage via efficiency improvement have been taken advantage of. According to Strebel, convergence, which occurs when organisations focus on efficiency, is typically easier to predict than divergence because it involves a move towards greater similarity among already-existing products and services, whereas divergence is based on potential new offerings, the existence of which may not be known until a competitor makes them available to customers. Managers need to think about internal alignment and how internal misalignments might lead to change. Up to this point in the debate, the organization's alignment with its external environment has received the majority of emphasis.

Internal Sources of Change

Greiner warns managers against the risk of focusing only on the now and the future. He claims that rather to current events and external dynamics, many organizations' most serious issues are more closely tied to the organization's previous actions. According to his theory, organisations grow over the course of five predictable phases, and each stage carries with it a specific set of alignment-related problems that must be controlled if the organisation is to be successful. According to Greiner, each stage of an organization's life cycle entails a

protracted time of evolutionary development, during which changes are often subtle and gradual, and these stages each bring about their own crisis caused by internal misalignments, which is followed by a period of upheaval and revolution. Greiner contends that internal issues are what lead to crises and produce discontinuous change, contrary to Romanelli and Tushman, who hold that times of discontinuous revolutionary change are caused by changes in the external environment (see Figure 2). Whether the organisation survives and advances to the next stage of evolutionary development depends on how these crises are handled. Managers must be aware of where their organisations, as well as the individual elements within the organisation, are in relation to the five phases of growth and be able to identify the types of issues that need attention[8]–[10].

Greiner said that each stage of evolution is marked by a dominant management style, and each revolution is marked by a dominant management issue that must be fixed if the organisation is to advance. There are five phases:

1. Growth through creativity leading to a crisis of leadership. Most businesses first focus on finding a market and developing a product. The organization's structure, procedures, and culture tend to be informal, and the founders are often technically adept and enterprising. But as the company expands, the need for greater expertise in manufacturing efficiency, more expert systems for keeping financial control, and more formal methods for managing and training employees results in a leadership crisis. The firm needs a new management and leadership style, but the founders may not be able to provide it. Sometimes the founders' hiring of a capable outside business manager is the only viable option. For instance, when Larry Page and Sergey Brin founded Google, they hired Eric Schmidt to lead the firm.
2. Growth through direction leading to a crisis of autonomy. A functional organisational structure, a defined hierarchy, more formal communication channels, and advanced accounting, inventory control, and production systems are often developed by organisations during the second phase of expansion. Even while this higher level of organisation and direction increases efficiency, as the organisation expands, it ultimately loses effectiveness due to factors like lengthy communication chains that delay decision-making and defined processes that inhibit capable individuals from taking initiative. Demands for more autonomy follow from this.
3. Growth through delegation leading to a crisis of control. There are several advantages to delegation. Lower-level employees are motivated, and supervisors working in a decentralised organisational structure may take action more quickly. But with time, they start to lose sight of the big picture, adopt local perspectives, and operate too autonomously. The organisation as a whole has to coordinate more effectively as a result of this.
4. Growth through coordination leading to a crisis of 'red tape'. The use of formal structures and processes enables better coordination. While these efforts unite many departments, work groups, and functions behind corporate objectives, the organization's gradual bureaucratization ultimately stifles innovation and chokes progress.
5. Growth through collaboration: The development of interpersonal skills, matrix and network structures, and related systems allow individuals to collaborate in ways that depend more on social control and self-discipline than formal control and tight supervision from above, so promoting more spontaneity.

Greiner's five stages of evolutionary progression, which are characterized by an ongoing stream of low-intensity incremental changes, are shown in Figure 2 and mapped onto the punctuated equilibrium pattern seen in Figure 2 previously. times of revolutionary upheaval are interspersed between times of stability, and if the organization is to survive and thrive,

these eras must be effectively navigated.Greiner contends that when organisations reach the end of one of the evolutionary phases and enter a period of crisis revolution, the crucial task for change managers is to be aware of the organization's history and current stage of development and identify the new set of organisation practises that will pave the way into the next phase of evolutionary growth.
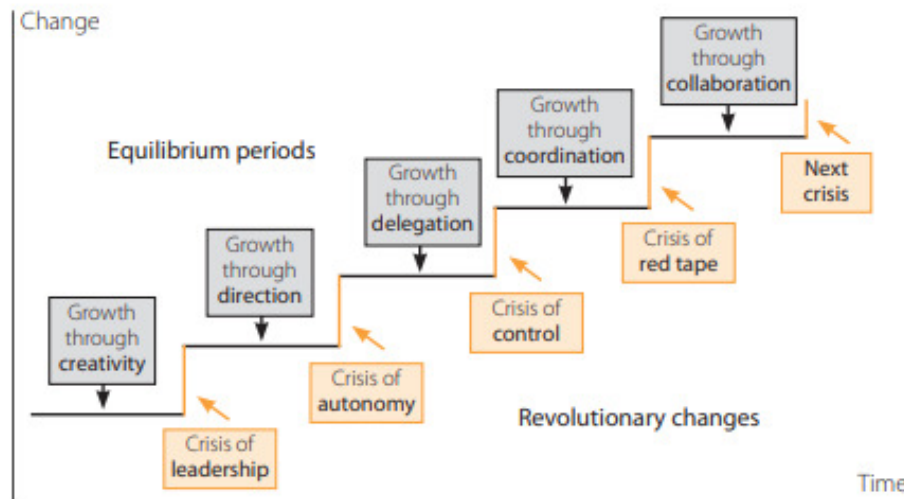
Figure 2: Represting the internal factors triggering discontinuous change[Research Gate.Net].

DISCUSSION

Recognizing the Need for Change

The efficiency of an organisation may be harmed by internal and external misalignments caused by a failure to see the need for change. According to Hickman and Silva, the majority of failing organisations are oblivious to their own issues, and they contend that in most instances, this is why they are suffering rather than their inability to remedy them. Organisations must cultivate a culture of vigilance, as described by Egan, but vigilance can be undermined by a variety of factors, including cognitive biases, retrospective rationality and the need to defend prior choices, as well as short-term perspectives that encourage managers to stick with a successful formula for too long and pay insufficient attention to how the situation may change over a longer time frame.

Organizational Path Dependence and the Trap of Success

Sydow et al. 's idea of organisational path dependency is supported by Nadler and Shaw, who note that one of the ironies of organisational life is that success often creates the conditions for failure. This is so because successful organisations tend to lock their managers into the conduct patterns that led to the success in the first place. These tendencies are seldom questioned since they become institutionalized or defined. Nadler and Shaw further develop their case with the claim that expansion often results in complexity and increased differentiation. As a result, focus moves from managing the organization's existing ties with its environment which are assumed to be successful to managing new and more complicated relationships inside the organisation. Less attention is paid to customers and suppliers, and inadequate attention is paid to competitor organizations' competitive advantages, such as lower costs or faster time to market as occurred to M&S and was addressed. When internal concentration and complacency result in poor performance, an organisation may act as though the answer is to keep doing what worked in the past. According to Nadler and Shaw, the organisation has become learning disabled. Managers lose their ability to look beyond

themselves, reflect on their successes and failures, embrace new ideas, and gain fresh insights. The 'death spiral' is what they refer to as the ultimate result of this success trap if left unchecked.

Improving the Organization's Ability to Sense the Need for Change

When people see and react to what they consider to be major external or organisational events, they begin to feel the need for change and create a change agenda. Pitt et al. note that while the signals or occurrences that prompt people to see a problem as significant or urgent may sometimes be comparatively weak, some people are nonetheless able to foresee the ramifications of these signals based on their intuition and context-specific experience.

Attending to Indicators of Effectiveness

Managers are in charge of making sure that the company, or the area within the company, operates efficiently. The need for change is indicated by discrepancies between actual and desired levels of performance, but issues can occur when these discrepancies go unnoticed because managers focus on a small number of indicators while ignoring others that may be equally or even more crucial. You may want to revisit these signs after finishing this chapter to see if any of them need revision. When evaluating performance, managers may need to consider a number of aspects, such as:

1. **Purpose:** Profit is one of the primary measures of effectiveness used by many businesses, however not all businesses may utilise this measure. Profitability may not be seen as a crucial sign of efficacy, even if it may be required for the survival of organizations like religious orders, universities, hospitals, or charities. For instance, waiting times and death rates may be used as metrics to assess hospital performance in the British NHS rather than 'profit'. Performance indicators that represent an organization's mission are important for change managers to pay attention to.

2. **Stakeholder Perspective:** Different stakeholders often use different indicators to assess an organization's effectiveness. For stockholders, profit could be more significant than for employees. Suppliers, clients, staff, and members of the general public impacted by the goods, services, and pollution created by an organization will all have different opinions on what factors should be considered when determining whether or not it is successful. When John Birt joined the BBC, he believed that the organization's sustainability was in jeopardy because programmers were ignoring some of the major stakeholders.

3. **Level of Assessment:** At several levels, such as the organization, subunit, or individual employee, effectiveness may be evaluated. If you just focus on overall performance, you risk missing significant organizational inefficiencies.

4. **Alignment:** Effectiveness evaluations must be coordinated from top to bottom and across the organization. The indications of departmental effectiveness must be in alignment with the indicators of organizational effectiveness, which must be in alignment with the indicators of individual and group effectiveness.

5. **Time Perspective:** Profitability has previously been mentioned as a potential beneficial indication of organisational performance in specific circumstances. Although organisation A is now more lucrative than organisation B, this does not always that A is the most efficient company. In order to invest in new equipment, product development, and staff training in the hope that doing so would assist to assure survival and growth over the long term, Organisation B may now suffer greater expenses and lower earnings. This has the conclusion that while evaluating the efficiency of specific departments or the organisation as a whole, organisational leaders must consider the temporal perspective.

6. **Benchmark:** Effectiveness is often measured in terms of some output-to-input ratio, such the quantity produced per person-hour. Any gain in output while maintaining or reducing inputs is said to signify better efficacy, and vice versa. It is necessary to use a benchmark or standard when doing this sort of evaluation. For instance, the adoption of a novel and widely used production technology may have resulted in efficiency advantages for all manufacturers within a certain product category or industrial sector. In this situation, comparing one producer's performance against that of other producers may be necessary to determine if that producer's efficacy has been maintained or increased. Although a corporation could have increased its output-to-input ratio and hence its efficiency, it might have done so at a slower rate than other manufacturers of similar goods. In certain situations, the business can be judged to be less effective than similar businesses yet more efficient than it was before.

7. **Constraining and enabling factors:** Additionally, any limitations or enabling elements that enhance performance in comparison to similar other organisations must be taken into consideration. The new production technology mentioned above may emit harmful pollutants at levels higher than those allowed by environmental rules. These rules could only be applicable to a small portion of producers in a certain area or nation. Despite the fact that a producer in these conditions may not be able to increase output-to-input ratios as much as some of its rivals, it may still be successful in modifying its production processes in a way that enables it to adopt new manufacturing technology and increase efficiency sufficiently to produce enough profit to survive. If this response hadn't been given, the firm may have gone out of business. It can be considered a successful organisation if it can reduce the impact of the restriction imposed by environmental regulations.

Summarizing the discussion thus far, it can be said that those who evaluate effectiveness must consider the following factors:

1. Purpose and desired outcomes.
2. Stake-holder perspective.
3. Level of assessment.
4. Alignment of the various indicators used at different levels and across different functions.

Short, medium, or long-term time frames are set, and benchmark standards are used. Performance is also affected by any unique limitations or enabling variables. Those who evaluate performance may fail to recognised issues and recognised the need for change in a timely manner if any of these elements are neglected.

CONCLUSION

A critical first step in both personal and professional development is seeing a need or opportunity for change. It entails admitting that the situation or strategy is not ideal right now and figuring out how to make it better.

Individuals and organisations become more receptive to new ideas, creativity, and constructive transformation when they see a need or opportunity for change. This awareness enables the creation of efficient plans, the carrying out of required changes, and the pursuit of desired results. In the end, accepting change may result in more success, fulfilment, and a brighter future.

REFERENCES:

[1]   T. Morris, "Internal and external sources of organizational change: Corporate form and the banking industry," *Sociol. Q.*, 2007, doi: 10.1111/j.1533-8525.2007.00073.x.

[2]   M. J. Mol and J. Birkinshaw, "The role of external involvement in the creation of management innovations," *Organ. Stud.*, 2014, doi: 10.1177/0170840614539313.

[3]   N. Weber, M. Nimtz, P. Personnettaz, T. Weier, and D. Sadoway, "Numerical simulation of mass transfer enhancement in liquid metal batteries by means of electro-vortex flow," *J. Power Sources Adv.*, 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.powera.2020.100004.

[4]   K. W. Becker *et al.*, "Daily changes in phytoplankton lipidomes reveal mechanisms of energy storage in the open ocean," *Nat. Commun.*, 2018, doi: 10.1038/s41467-018-07346-z.

[5]   J. Infante-Alcalde and C. Valderrama-Ulloa, "Technical, Economic and Environmental Analysis of the manufacture of concrete blocks with Recycled Terephthalate Polyethylene (PET)," *Inf. Tecnol.*, 2019, doi: 10.4067/S0718-07642019000500025.

[6]   A. Zangeneh, S. Jadid, and A. Rahimi-Kian, "A fuzzy environmental-technical-economic model for distributed generation planning," *Energy*, 2011, doi: 10.1016/j.energy.2011.03.048.

[7]   C. Palomares-Rodríguez, S. I. Martínez-Guido, J. Apolinar-Cortés, M. del Carmen Chávez-Parga, C. C. García-Castillo, and J. M. Ponce-Ortega, "Environmental, Technical, and Economic Evaluation of a New Treatment for Wastewater from Slaughterhouses," *Int. J. Environ. Res.*, 2017, doi: 10.1007/s41742-017-0047-x.

[8]   B. D. Santer *et al.*, "Human and natural influences on the changing thermal structure of the atmosphere," *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*, 2013, doi: 10.1073/pnas.1305332110.

[9]   J. Reis and A. Mota, "Aiding exploratory testing with pruned GUI models," *Inf. Process. Lett.*, 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.ipl.2018.01.008.

[10]   F. Lehner *et al.*, "Partitioning climate projection uncertainty with multiple large ensembles and CMIP5/6," *Earth Syst. Dyn.*, 2020, doi: 10.5194/esd-11-491-2020.

CHAPTER 7

STARTING THE CHANGE: INITIATING THE TRANSFORMATION PROCESS

Ms. Navita Roy, Assistant Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-navitaroy27@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:
An important turning point that prepares organisations for effective transformation is the beginning of the change process under change management. It entails making conscious decisions about how to start and manage the transition from the present condition to the desired future one. Strong leadership, efficient communication, and meticulous preparation are required for this key phase. Organisations may mobilize their workforce, coordinate activities, and foster a feeling of urgency by clearly identifying the vision, goals, and scope of the change. It is crucial to include important stakeholders, deal with opposition, and provide the required resources and assistance. A methodical approach, flexibility, and an emphasis on continual development are necessary when beginning the change process. It establishes the groundwork for a seamless changeover, encourages employee participation, and raises the probability of obtaining the intended results.

KEYWORDS:

Change, Efficiency, Organizations, Management, Transformation.

INTRODUCTION

Some of the problems with commencing the change process are discussed in this chapter. The most crucial step is turning a desire for change into a necessity for change. Because they don't believe they and others can affect change, organisational members may be unwilling to seek it. This chapter uses a voluntaristic approach and contends that, in the majority of situations, organisational members are not helpless puppets unable to bring about change but rather are autonomous agents able to make significant contributions. They need ideas and theories that will help them comprehend how things may change and how to intervene in order to achieve this, but they also need to have faith in their own and other people's capacity to influence outcomes. The last section of this chapter examines who should be in charge of the change and how those individuals might create productive change partnerships[1]–[4].

Believes About Change Agency

The capacity of a manager or other change agent to influence how an organisation reacts to opportunities and risks is referred to as change agency. The manager and other organisational members are portrayed in one method of studying change and change management as puppets who are impacted by change rather than as agents who can start and secure change. Wilson refers to this strategy as determinism.

The Deterministic View

According to the deterministic viewpoint, a manager's power to affect change is constrained since the primary influencing factors are outside of the organisation and the managers' areas of strategic decision-making. Wilson points out that proponents of this approach see organisations as interconnected parts of a larger open system and believe that the qualities of these broader organization-environment links are what ultimately determine how strategically a company will evolve. For instance, even the best CEOs may find it difficult to turn around the organization's fortunes in the short term when confronted with a sharp decline in the trade cycle or unfavourable currency rates. When discussing how, in certain situations, an

organization's institutional framework might restrict the opportunities for change, particularly when the organisation is integrated in a larger system with closely connected linkages, Greenwood and Hinings reaffirm this point of view. The deterministic function of the environment as a constraint on management activity is one of the areas on which academics of organisational ecology and classical industrial organisation may agree, according to Mellahi and Wilkinson[5]–[7].

The Voluntarist View

The voluntarist perspective opposes the premise that managers have no control and supports the idea of built pathways. Supporters of this viewpoint believe that managers and other organisational members are the key decision-makers who define the organization's future. The strategic choice framework stresses managers' capacity for decision-making and offers a concrete illustration of how the voluntarist approach may be effective. It questions the concept that there is a perfect organisation and a perfect management style. It acknowledges functional equivalents and the potential for equifinality, which allows for a range of various approaches to accomplish organisational goals. The calibre of the strategic decisions made by members of the dominant coalition is one of the important criteria that defines an organization's performance. According to this strategy, managers may act to bring about change in ways that would either strengthen or weaken organisational performance. It places a strong emphasis on the importance of human agency.

Raynor et al. warn against drawing conclusions about how persons in charge of a change should behave from success studies since not all successes can be attributable to human initiative. Results may also be impacted by random variables. They contend that a few of the businesses included in management classics like In Search of Excellence and Good to Great could have just been fortunate. By recounting an experiment that one of them carried out at the start of her strategic management class, Raynor et al. show how easy we might give in to the urge to explain supposedly important results that are completely random. She calls on everyone in the room to rise up as she begins class and orders them to throw a coin. They are instructed to sit down if the coin comes up tails, but to rise if it comes up heads:

The class has around seventy (70) people, so after six or seven rounds, there is only one person still standing. I approach the pupil and inquire;how did you do that? with the right theatrics. Seven consecutive heads! Do you allow interviews for Fortune? The T-shirt, perhaps? Is it a quick wrist motion? Can I use you as a case study subject?This example shows that chance is a component that must be taken into consideration. Despite this, there is nevertheless evidence that managers do take actions that help their organisations succeed. For instance, Pettigrew and Whipp report the findings of a study of businesses in the auto manufacturing, book publishing, merchant banking, and life insurance sectors and come to the conclusion that there are observable differences between how leaders in higher performing businesses manage change compared to those in less successful businesses.

The deterministic view presents a viewpoint that is too fatalistic from the standpoint of change agency. While there may in certain circumstances be external causes that have a significant impact on an organization's success, there will virtually always.The voluntarist perspective opposes the premise that managers have no control and supports the idea of built pathways. Supporters of this viewpoint believe that managers and other organisational members are the key decision-makers who decide the organization's future. The strategic choice framework stresses managers' capacity for decision-making and offers a concrete illustration of how the voluntarist approach may be effective. It questions the concept that there is a perfect organisation and a perfect management style. It acknowledges functional equivalents and the potential for equifinality, which allows for a range of various approaches to accomplish organisational goals[8]–[10].

The caliber of the strategic decisions made by members of the dominant coalition is one of the important criteria that defines an organization's performance. According to this strategy, managers may act to bring about change in ways that would either strengthen or weaken organisational performance. It places a strong emphasis on the importance of human agency.Raynor et al. warn against drawing conclusions about how persons in charge of a change should behave from success studies since not all successes can be attributable to human initiative. Results may also be impacted by random variables.They contend that a few of the businesses included in management classics like In Search of Excellence and Good to Great could have just been fortunate. By recounting an experiment that one of them carried out at the start of her strategic management class, Raynor et al. show how easy we might give in to the urge to explain supposedly important results that are completely random. She calls on everyone in the room to rise up as she begins class and orders them to throw a coin. They are instructed to sit down if the coin comes up tails, but to rise if it comes up heads:

Since there are around 70 people in the class, there is only one kid left standing after six or seven rounds. I approach the pupil and inquire; how did you do that? with the right theatrics. Seven consecutive heads! Do you allow interviews for Fortune? The T-shirt, perhaps? Is it a quick wrist motion? Can I use you as a case study subject? This example shows that chance is a component that must be taken into consideration. Despite this, there is nevertheless evidence that managers do take actions that help their organisations succeed. For instance, Pettigrew and Whipp report the findings of a study of businesses in the auto manufacturing, book publishing, merchant banking, and life insurance sectors and come to the conclusion that there are observable differences between how leaders in higher performing businesses manage change compared to those in less successful businesses.

The deterministic view presents a viewpoint that is too fatalistic from the standpoint of change agency. There will virtually always be room for managers to interfere in ways that will advance the organization's goals, even if there may sometimes be external influences that have a significant impact on organisational performance. According to Burnes, managers have far more freedom to influence choices than most organisation theories recognised, notwithstanding the limitations they encounter. He claims that where change, especially major change, is on the managerial agenda, the scope for choice and the development of political influence is likely to be more pronounced.However, issues may develop when managers and other individuals lack confidence in their own capacity to serve as change agents. As a result, they may not respond pro-actively. They may respond passively to external influences for change, and as a result, the organization's reaction may also be passive[11], [12].

DISCUSSION

Voluntarism and Change Agency

The method to managing change used in this book is predicated on the ideas that managers can have an impact and can improve their ability to manage change. Effective change managers need to have the following qualities, which may be assisted in developing:

1. The desire to alter.
2. Conceptual frameworks, techniques, and interventions.
3. Expertise in change management.

Confidence in their Own Ability to Affect Outcomes

Some managers may possess the conceptual understanding and necessary abilities to step in and make a difference, but they may choose not to do so because they lack confidence in their own capacity to influence outcomes. While optimism and overconfidence can be problematic and lead to unwarranted risk-taking for instance, Thaler and Sunstein found that 90% of

drivers believe they are driving above average, change managers are frequently ineffective because they lack the confidence to act in a way that will allow them to exert the control necessary to achieve desired outcomes. May suggested that individuals utilise their own sense of helplessness as a justification for doing nothing in many different spheres of life. He claims that the basis of contemporary human neuroses is the weakening of people's sense of self-responsibility and the sapping of their willpower and capacity for decision-making. May claims that the loss of will is much more than just an ethical issue since the contemporary person so often believes that even if he did use his will or whatever illusion passes for it, his acts wouldn't be beneficial in any case.For some managers, this internal sense of helplessness is a serious issue since it might limit their capacity to be change agents. For this, there are two possible explanations:

1. Locus of control Rotter created the idea of locus of control after seeing that certain individuals tended to ascribe outcomes to chance rather than to variables, they had some degree of control over. The degree to which a person believes that their actions affect their fate is reflected in their locus of control. Internals are individuals who believe results are a result of their own efforts, while externals are those who believe results are a result of luck, fate, other people, the status of the economy, or other variables over which they have no influence. Those who are too devoted to a deterministic view of change in the context of change management may be prone to think that the locus of control is outside of themselves and the organisation and may as a result come to feel that there is nothing, they can do to affect events. These individuals are less likely than those who have a more internalized perspective on the locus of control to seek to take a proactive approach to the management of change.

2. The locus of control is connected to Seligman's learned helplessness hypothesis, which contends that a person's belief in their capacity to influence outcomes is learnt. It implies that managers may start to doubt their capacity for managing change if, when faced with a fresh opportunity or challenge, tried-and-true management techniques fall short of expectations. In addition, if their first efforts to try out other management styles prove to be similarly ineffective, this self-doubt may turn into an assumption that they are powerless and the related conviction that there is nothing they can do to achieve desired results.

Following a prior encounter with uncontrolled occurrences, motivational deficiencies entail failing to take any deliberate activities intended to control circumstances. Managers won't even be motivated to attempt if they think they have no influence over the results. Failure to understand that one may influence events is a sign of cognitive impairments. Even if there is proof that a manager's own actions have really had a significant influence on results, managers may not see chances to exert control if they have the view that they cannot alter outcomes in a specific set of changing circumstances.

According to the notion of learned helplessness, managers and other individuals will be motivated to start activities aimed at controlling change if they have a expectation that their efforts would result in some improvement of the difficult circumstance. They won't attempt to use influence if they lack faith in their own capacity to lead the change and bring about any changes. When faced with change, both people and organisations may come to believe that there is not much they can do to ensure desired results. However, people and organisations may also come to understand that they have the power to shape their own futures and how to do so.

The Motivation to Change

According to Pugh, people who are generally successful but are struggling or failing in one area of their employment are more likely to wish to change. This group will be motivated and

self-assured enough to make changes. The successful are the next most likely to change since they will have the necessary confidence, but due to their success, they could be content with the status quo and lack the desire to change. Both individuals and organisations are susceptible to the success trap. The unsuccessful are the least likely to comprehend and embrace the necessity for change. Even though they could be the ones who need change the most, they are also the ones who are most prone to lack faith in their own capacity to alter their situation. As a result, people could prefer the current situation to the potential results of an unsuccessful change attempt.Being prepared for change is crucial. According to Jones et al, employee preparedness is measured by how strongly they agree that change is necessary and that it will benefit both the individual employee and the whole organisation.By investigated the management of change in the UK tourist sector and found evidence to corroborate Armenakis et al.'s claim that the degree of change preparedness is positively connected with effective implementation.

Conceptual Models

Change managers may learn a variety of ideas and concepts that they might use to managing change. They essentially fall into two groups: diagnostic models, which concentrate on figuring out what has to be altered, and process models, which are concerned with the how of change management. Change managers require concepts and theories that will enable them to:

1. Identify the type of change they are dealing with, such as incremental or discontinuous.
2. Comprehend the process of change.
3. Determine what needs to be addressed in order to achieve desired outcomes.

Applying various theories to the conduct of people and groups in organisations, to organisational processes like power and influence, leadership, communication, decision-making, and conflict, as well as to organisational structure and culture constitutes diagnosis. Managers may utilise these models of individual, group, and organisational performance to determine what has to be altered in order to preserve or enhance organisational effectiveness. Chapter 7 examines organizational-level diagnostic models.Change managers need to be knowledgeable with a variety of various sorts of intervention they might use to achieve a desired change, in addition to the conceptual tools that can assist them comprehend the change process and identify what has to be altered. In order to choose which interventions to apply in a given situation while taking into consideration variables like the rate of change, the ability of stakeholders to resist, and other factors, change managers also need to have a solid foundation.

Change Management Skills

Although it is crucial, conceptual knowledge alone cannot ensure that change agents will be successful in securing the needed improvements. When managers take on the role of change agents, they must be able to interact with people effectively, provide leadership, work with teams, confront, negotiate, and inspire.These and many more management abilities are necessary for change agency. Because they fail to understand the significance of certain of these abilities or because they don't employ them, when necessary, change agents sometimes perform less effectively than they might.

Starting the Change Process

After convincing others that a change is important, it is vital to choose who will, at least initially, promote the transition. The change agent might be an insider, a participant in the system or component of the system that needs to change, or an outsider. The manager of the unit or subsystem that will be the target for change is committed to acting as a change agent it

is acknowledged that a particular insider has the time, expertise, and commitment to manage the change more effectively than an outsider. The system lacks the resources to hire an outsider. The choice of the change manager may have a significant influence on how the process turns out. A technical specialist is often immediately expected to be the lead rather than the manager or user who will be in charge of making the change work after implementation. In contrast, Clegg argues that users should take a more active leadership position. This may lead to the separation of usage and maintenance from diagnosis, planning, and execution. This division might enable the technical specialists driving the change to pay too much attention to technical concerns, such creating a system that is technically better, rather than the demands of consumers.

Establishing a Change Relationship

Entering the change relationship may not be too difficult if the change agent is a member of the target system, provided that everyone can agree that there is a problem or opportunity that deserves attention

1. It is necessary to obtain some kind of basic data in order to ascertain whether more steps are necessary.
2. A brand manager who is dissatisfied with how long it takes to alter how a product is packaged may solicit the help of others to compare their performance to that of top rivals.

Similar to this, a manager of a sports facility may call a staff meeting to discuss potential explanations for why an increasing number of current members are failing to renew their membership. Many of the problems that might be troublesome and demand careful consideration when introducing an external consultantchange agent such as developing trust and confidence can often be addressed informally and without too much effort since the change agent is an insider and well-known to others.The process of establishing a change relationship may be more difficult when the change agent is an outsider senior manager, someone from another department, or someone from outside the organisation. Some of the reasons are listed below.

Issues that Can Affect the Quality of the Relationship

Building trust and confidence is one of the main problems. When it comes to being honest and talking about their relations with strangers, certain people and groups are more uncomfortable than others. This may be due to their concern that it may be challenging to explain the nature of their issue or opportunity to others and that others may think less of them or think they are silly or inept. Another explanation is that they worry that asking for assistance would undermine their independence and place them in a position of too much dependence. Early on in the relationship-building process, customers might make snap judgements about the change agent's expertise, helpfulness, friendliness, and implied motivations.Early interactions between the change agent and the client are likened by Margerison to knocking at doors that are half open and seeing them either close in your face, or open fully.

According to Lines et al., the change agent's ability to acquire information and cooperate is directly impacted by their level of trustworthiness. Clients are more likely to be open, offer information, and refrain from defensive behaviours when they believe that the change agent is someone they can trust. As trust-building is an incremental process, it often takes time, especially if the change agent is wholly unfamiliar with the environment. According to Lines et al., trust is a condition that expresses how individuals and groups see other people and social groupings. They contend that it is founded on the analysis of a wide range of experiences, often spread out over a lengthy period of time. This is especially true for people

and groups who feel exposed which is common during times of transition, since they will analyse any information or experience, they believe will have an impact on how much they can trust the change agent. According to Morgan and Zeffane, organisational change is a crucial event that has the power to instantly build or sever trust in a relationship.

Building trust and confidence is one of the main problems. When it comes to being honest and talking about their relations with strangers, certain people and groups are more uncomfortable than others. This may be due to their concern that it may be challenging to explain the nature of their issue or opportunity to others and that others may think less of them or think they are silly or inept. Another explanation is that they worry that asking for assistance would undermine their independence and place them in a position of too much dependence. Early on in the relationship-building process, customers might make snap judgements about the change agent's expertise, helpfulness, friendliness, and implied motivations.Early interactions between the change agent and the client are likened by Margerison to knocking at doors that are half open and seeing them either close in your face, or open fully. According to Lines et al., the change agent's ability to acquire information and cooperate is directly impacted by their level of trustworthiness.

Clients are more likely to be open, offer information, and refrain from defensive behaviours when they believe that the change agent is someone they can trust. As trust-building is an incremental process, it often takes time, especially if the change agent is wholly unfamiliar with the environment. According to Lines et al., trust is a condition that expresses how individuals and groups see other people and social groupings. They contend that it is founded on the analysis of a wide range of experiences, often spread out over a lengthy period of time. This is especially true for people and groups who feel exposed which is common during times of transition, since they will analyse any information or experience, they believe will have an impact on how much they can trust the change agent. According to Morgan and Zeffane, organisational change is a crucial event that has the power to instantly build or sever trust in a relationship. Identification of the client and clarification of the problems that need to be addressed are two other things that external change agents need to pay close attention to.

Identifying the Client

The identification of the customer is a matter that must be handled properly from the change agent's standpoint. It's possible that the individual or group that welcomes an outsider into a situation won't end up being the focus customer. If a preliminary diagnosis indicates that the issue is not limited to one group or unit but rather involves multiple groups, several levels of the hierarchy, or people outside the organisation like clients, suppliers, trade associations, or unions, the change agent needs to be prepared to modify the definition of the client. When external change agents identify the client as the person or organisation who invited them into the situation, issues may result. They could unintentionally attempt to advance or defend a sectoral interest rather than the efficiency of the organisation if they are naïve to the need to redefine who the customer is.

One approach to define the customer is to think of them as the person or people who own the issue and are in charge of solving it, like the sales director in the Lyons Confectionery example from earlier. According to Cummings and Worley, the customer is any organisational member who may directly influence the change issue, whether it involves resolving a specific issue or enhancing an existing positive circumstance. In contrast to identifying the client as an individual, this definition is more likely to refer to the client as a group or the constituents of a subsystem. Cummings and Worley define the client as everyone who can have a direct influence on the change because, in their view, if important clients are left out of the contracting and entry processes, they may be unwilling to cooperate with the change agent.

The author has firsthand knowledge of this. He was asked to assist with an issue at a far-off oil refinery by the personnel director of an international oil firm. He was taken by aircraft to the closest large airport, lodged there, and then, the following morning, taken by tiny plane to the refinery's own runway. He eventually ended himself in a refinery conference room with all the top management. The meeting began with the refinery manager asking the consultant why he was there after a quick round of introductions. It was obvious that the refinery manager had not been consulted in the personnel director's decision to hire an outside consultant.By the time the consultant arrived at the refinery, there was nothing he could do to establish a productive working relationship with the management group since this was bitterly despised. A few months later, the consultant was contacted by the same refinery manager and encouraged to return to the facility to work on a separate issue. It was his issue in this case, and he chose to engage a third party. The consultant's skill had nothing to do with the first rejection. The refinery manager was upset that someone else had determined he had a problem and that, without consulting him, he required outside assistance to fix it.

Clarifying the Issues

The symptoms or problems that a third-party change agent is presented with could not really be the genuine problem that has to be solved. When people ask experts for assistance, they often claim that the issue belongs to someone else. A manufacturing company's HR director invited a consultant to lunch to meet the finance director. The issue the finance director, who also served as the board's vice chairman, intended to address was the lack of effective communication between the board and top management. He described the issue in terms of the top managers' quality.

Eventually, when the consultant and the board held a meeting, they reinterpreted the issue as coming from inside the board itself, where there were divergent opinions about the board's job and political concerns that affected how it operated.

The fact that issues are often stated in terms of their presumed solutions is another difficulty. For example,we need help to improve the appraisal system build a more cohesive team improve communications.

For instance, the issue with communication may be further characterised as the need for certain people to develop their communication abilities. The organisational structure and its impact on communication networks, however, may be a significant component contributing to the issue, according to a preliminary examination by a change agent, even if communications may be enhanced. In such a case, strengthening the communication abilities of chosen persons or bringing in new members may not be sufficient to address the underlying structural issue.

Change agents must have an open mind on the nature of the issue until some kind of preliminary inquiry has been completed. The change agent must, however, pay close attention to the client's perceived demands and the nature of the issue, as well.

CONCLUSION

A crucial stage that sets the tone for a successful transformation is the beginning of the change process inside organisations. It calls for capable leadership, clear communication, and thorough preparation. Organisations establish a feeling of urgency and focus their efforts on the desired future state by starting the transformation process. It is crucial to include important parties, deal with opposition, and provide the required resources. A successful shift requires a methodical approach, flexibility, and a commitment to continual development. Beginning the change process creates a foundation for employee involvement and raises the likelihood of obtaining the intended results, which promotes organizational development and success.

REFERENCES:

[1]   M. El-Halabi, T. Liu, C. N. Georghiades, and S. Shamai, "Secret writing on dirty paper: A deterministic view," *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*. 2012. doi: 10.1109/TIT.2012.2190820.

[2]   C. H. Tinsley, T. M. Howell, and E. T. Amanatullah, "Who should bring home the bacon? How deterministic views of gender constrain spousal wage preferences," *Organ. Behav. Hum. Decis. Process.*, 2015, doi: 10.1016/j.obhdp.2014.09.003.

[3]   R. Horton and A. M. Lucassen, "The moral argument for heritable genome editing requires an inappropriately deterministic view of genetics," *J. Med. Ethics*, 2019, doi: 10.1136/medethics-2019-105390.

[4]   V. C. dos Santos, L. M. Joaquim, and C. N. El-Hani, "Hybrid Deterministic Views About Genes in Biology Textbooks: A Key Problem in Genetics Teaching," *Sci. Educ.*, 2012, doi: 10.1007/s11191-011-9348-1.

[5]   G. Xiao, H. Wang, Y. Yan, and D. Suter, "Superpixel-Guided Two-View Deterministic Geometric Model Fitting," *Int. J. Comput. Vis.*, 2019, doi: 10.1007/s11263-018-1100-8.

[6]   M. Deng, C. Wang, and Q. Chen, "Human gait recognition based on deterministic learning through multiple views fusion," *Pattern Recognit. Lett.*, 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.patrec.2016.04.004.

[7]   E. Bertin, "How far can stochastic and deterministic views be reconciled?," *Prog. Biophys. Mol. Biol.*, 2012, doi: 10.1016/j.pbiomolbio.2012.04.006.

[8]   G. Solano-Flores, "Who Is Given Tests in What Language by Whom, When, and Where? The Need for Probabilistic Views of Language in the Testing of English Language Learners," *Educ. Res.*, 2008, doi: 10.3102/0013189x08319569.

[9]   J. L. Alquist, S. E. Ainsworth, R. F. Baumeister, M. Daly, and T. F. Stillman, "The Making of Might-Have-Beens: Effects of Free Will Belief on Counterfactual Thinking," *Personal. Soc. Psychol. Bull.*, 2015, doi: 10.1177/0146167214563673.

[10]   H. Boeger, R. Shelansky, H. Patel, and C. R. Brown, "From structural variation of gene molecules to chromatin dynamics and transcriptional bursting," *Genes*. 2015. doi: 10.3390/genes6030469.

[11]   P. T. Zeleza, "The struggle for human rights in Africa," *Human Rights, the Rule of Law, and Development in Africa*. 2004. doi: 10.1080/00083968.2007.10751366.

[12]   W. L. Neuman, "Chapter 4: The Meanings of Methodology," in *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*, 2006.

CHAPTER 8

BUILDING CHANGE RELATIONSHIPS:FOSTERING COLLABORATION AND SUPPORT

Ms. Navita Roy, Assistant Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-navitaroy27@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

A key component of efficient change management is creating connections with the change community. It entails building solid relationships and encouraging fruitful exchanges with the stakeholders who are impacted by or participating in the change process. Organisations may improve communication, garner support, and deal with opposition more skillfully by developing connections around change. To comprehend and resolve the issues and viewpoints of people and groups, this calls for active listening, empathy, and transparency. It's critical to build relationships of trust, encourage teamwork, and provide chances for participation and criticism. Creating connections for change promotes ownership, reduces opposition, and improves the chances of effective change implementation. It creates a welcoming atmosphere where participants feel valued and included, resulting in less stressful transitions and long-lasting change effects.

KEYWORDS:

Change, Efficient, Management, Professional, Relationship.

INTRODUCTION

Several factors, including trust and confidence, may impact how well a relationship changes. This chapter explores the value of change agents exhibiting true respect for the people they are dealing with while focusing on five different types of intervention. When people think of change agents, they often only picture external consultants; nevertheless, many individuals work for organisations in positions that are almost entirely focused on assisting change. System analysts, business development consultants, and project managers are just a few of these professionals. Additionally, many managers use interventions to promote change as part of their routine day-to-day duties. They aid in the introduction of new working procedures, the search for cost-saving opportunities, the improvement of staff relationships with customers, the identification and exploitation of opportunities presented by shifting conditions, or the support of coworkers who are dealing with issues that are affecting their performance or general well-being.

All people who enable change will be referred to as change agents or helpers throughout this chapter, while those who are being helped whether they be coworkers, subordinates, or clients in the more traditional sense - will be clients[1]-[3].The abilities needed by change agents have been extensively covered in writing. Greiner and Metzger mention a variety of skills but contend that consulting and facilitating change are fundamentally human endeavours. Whether the issue at hand relates to the need for better strategic planning or a new accounting system, the success of the project will be greatly influenced by the effectiveness of the change agents' interactions with the client or client group. This viewpoint is shared by Margerison, who also emphasises the significance of interpersonal and personal abilities.

Intervention Styles

Change agents might step in to assist in several ways. The intervention style indicator below was created to assist you in determining your favorite method of encouraging change. Filling

it out now will allow you to review your intervention style profile as you continue reading. It will serve as a point of reference for you as you consider future assisting initiatives and how you may increase their efficacy[4]–[6].

Example 1: The Intervention Style Indicator

There are five issue situations mentioned, and for each, there are five instances of possible responses from a change agent or helper. Mark the number on the scale that most accurately represents the likelihood that you would choose each of the five options for each situation. For instance:

Scenario A

A recently hired supervisor has complained to you about how her staff members are unpleasant, temperamental, only listen to what they want to hear, and often disobey orders. She compared their actions to those of disobedient school kids who are out to break the new instructor. According to her narrative, her subordinates were solely too responsible for the quickly worsening scenario. She had fantastic recommendations when she joined the organisation, and she had a 10-year track record of effective people management, so you hadn't anticipated this type of dialogue. Additionally, her team has never previously been the cause of issues. The majority of them are highly qualified, and two of them have just through the firm's assessment centre and been recognised as having potential for advancement. They have all worked for the company for at least ten months.

How likely is it that you would use each of the following responses? Circle one number on each of the five scales.

1. Introduce a theory to the manager so that she may learn more about the circumstance. You could, for instance, go over the fundamentals of transactional analysis with her, then ask her to apply it to her issue and consider whether her subordinates see her as a controlling parent dealing with a group of inexperienced children or as an adult interacting with other competent adults, and speculatively consider how she might apply the theory to resolve the issue.
2. Inform her that she has to delegate more and give her subordinates more responsibility since she has failed to see the value of their contributions.
3. In order to encourage her to open up and share her experience and maybe get a better grasp of the issue and what needs to be done to address it, pay close attention while she speaks and try to comprehend the situation from her perspective.
4. Ask her whether she has actually paid attention to all the signals conveyed to her by the members of her work group, and make the suggestion that it may not only be her subordinates who choose to hear what they want to hear.
5. By aiding her in gathering additional information, you may help her get to the bottom of the issue so she can better understand what is happening and what can be done to make things better[7]–[9].

Scenario B

The leader of a key business unit in your company has come to you and asked for assistance. After serving in her current position for six months, she has grown to believe that the way her top team functions are negatively harming performance.How likely is it that you would use each of the following responses?

1. Offer to gather data from those who are impacted by how well the team is working and relay it to her and her senior colleagues so they can assess their performance and come to a consensus on what needs to be done to make things better.

2. Offer to have a trainer conduct a session for her top team that will introduce them to the idea of team roles, teach them how to utilize Belbin's model of team roles to assess how effectively they are collaborating, and suggest ways they may do better.

3. Encourage her to express her worries by being sympathetic and listening to her, since this will assist her to better grasp the problem for herself and to organize her ideas and emotions.

4. Interview every member of her top team and those whose lives are impacted by how well the team is doing in order to create a report that outlines a series of suggestions that she should put into action in order to make things better.

5. Pay close attention to her actions and ask yourself whether they could be contributing to the issue. This strategy can include questioning some of her presumptions and/or pointing out inconsistencies between what she claims she does and what you see her doing.

Scenario C

You oversee human resources at a big power firm. A 40-year-old widower who worked at a bustling office in the city for the most of his career was recently promoted and transferred to oversee a tiny but crucial office in a remote little town. He is uncomfortable with his new work, which is why he came to meet you.

He complains that the locals are cliquish, distant, and unpleasant, and he misses his pals. He also does not appreciate being the boss since he lacks relatable coworkers.How likely is it that you would use each of the following responses? Circle one number on each of the five scales.

1. Inform him that there is a position open in the division where he had worked at his previous grade, and say that you believe moving back would be the wisest course of action.

2. Ask him how he feels about it without making assumptions or passing judgement. Make sure you really get the source of his dissatisfaction and do everything in your power to aid him in identifying the issue on his own. You may pay close attention to what he has to say and then summarise what you believe you heard for him. For instance: Have I understood what you seem to be saying?

3. Encourage him to use a balanced approach to problem-solving, completely investigate all aspects of the issue, and, if required, acquire data that might aid in the identification and evaluation of potential solutions, such as by assisting him in locating chances to network.

4. Give him the kind of criticism that might inspire him to take new initiative, such as noting that you have carefully listened to him and have not once heard him mention anything he has actually done to try to make new friends; rather, all he seems to do is complain about others and how they don't make him feel welcome. Asking him whether he has considered what he might do to pique people's interest in him could help you persuade him to take action.

5. Give him a copy of Dale Carnegie's 1936 book How to Win Friends and Influence People and tell him that if he could learn some of the strategies and abilities described in it, he could be able to make new friends more quickly.

Scenario D

After a project team failed to execute a significant project under budget and on time for the second time in a year, the CEO of a rapidly expanding software firm sought you for assistance.

She informed you that it seems that the failures on both instances were caused by identical issues. She also informed you that the project team's relationships had soured and that everyone seemed to be blaming one another for the failures.

Which of the following options would you utilise most frequently? Each of the five scales should have one number circled.

1. Before advising the CEO on what to do to guarantee that future projects will be handled more effectively and efficiently, conduct interviews with the CEO and the manager in charge of the project team to ensure that you have a thorough knowledge of what occurred.
2. To assist team members in reviewing how they handled the previous two projects and identifying lessons they may use to shape how they would handle the next project, conduct a training on new methods of project management.
3. Talk to each team member separately to encourage them to share any frustrations, worries, or other emotions that could be preventing them from providing an unbiased evaluation of the issue.
4. Interview every member of the project team and other stakeholders to determine the key factors that contributed to the failures. Then, hold a workshop where you can present the information and use it to spark discussion about the issue and guide them in looking into ways to improve their performance.
5. Help the CEO identify and articulate the concerns she wants to voice to the project team before facilitating a meeting where she may do so.

Scenario E

A coworker has asked you for assistance. He doesn't want to be a dictatorial boss and thinks that when individuals are allowed the freedom to do their tasks, they perform at their best. However, his department is starting to develop a reputation for making mistakes. While he constantly attempts to have an open-door policy, he has acknowledged that some individuals never go through his door.

He is thus ill-informed, and errors that may have been avoided have been made. He seems to be agitated, and you have a suspicion that he and his boss may have just had a difficult conversation about this.

Which of the following options would you utilise most frequently? Each of the five scales should have one number circled.

1. Tell him about a comparable issue you have had and what you did to resolve it. Additionally, say that there may be a moment when you must read the riot act, which is what he should do right now, and democracy must be abandoned.
2. Inform him of a theory you are aware of that contends that the best leadership style may vary depending on the circumstance, and suggest that one possible course of action might be for him to think about whether his current style seems to be the best fit or whether the theory would suggest an alternative leadership style.
3. Challenge his assertion that he always keeps the door open based on what you have seen. You may mention to him, for instance, that although he might think of himself as friendly, others regard him as aloof and distant since he is never there when he is needed. You may ask him to think about how accurate this is after that.
4. You can see he's agitated, so you decide the best course of action is to sit him down with a cup of coffee and let him vent.
5. Help him identify some instances when things went wrong specifically, and then ask him questions about a lot of these issues to figure out exactly what occurred and see if there are any trends he might address[10], [11].

DISCUSSION

Scoring

Each case's possible replies have been organized into columns in the grid below in order to represent the five various assistance techniques. Enter the number you circled next to the appropriate answer code in the grid for each situation as you go. For scenario A, for instance, you could have circled for answer A1, so type '2' in the square for A1. You might have circled for response A2, so type '5' in the square for A2. The answer codes are not organized from 1 to 5 but rather in various sequences for situations B to E. Make a total score calculation for each column and put it in the space given. The sum of the scores for each column shows how you feel about the various assistance methods. All five of the intervening modes should have been graded at this point. Take note of whether your scores are evenly distributed across the five intervention methods or if your pattern of responses suggests that you like using one or two techniques over the other types of intervention more often. It could be helpful to have this knowledge on hand.

The Goal of Intervening

Change agents go in to help bring about change. Their initiatives are characterised as cycle-breaking endeavours by Blake and Mouton. They contend that conduct has a tendency to be cyclical, meaning that certain patterns of behaviour tend to recur in certain circumstances or time periods. While some of these behavioural patterns benefit the client or client group, others do nothing to advance their interests and may even be detrimentall. They continue by arguing that behavioural cycles may be forced onto people, groups, or bigger client systems like whole organisations. They may not be aware that their actions might have negative or self-defeating effects. Even though they may be aware that something is wrong, they may not know why or how to make things better.

The role of the change agent is to assist clients in recognizing and exiting these destructive patterns.There are many ways to stop the cycle. It may be directive or cooperative. Egan contends that change agents do not help customers with issue solving or opportunity generation. He promotes a collaborative strategy in which customers work with change agents to achieve their objectives. However, as we shall see below, a lot of the assistance provided by outside consultants and internal change agents is not collaborative in character. We will now talk about the five types of intervention that are included in the intervention style indicator: advising, assisting, theorising, challenging, and information collecting.

Prescriptive Mode of Intervening: Advising

On the intervention style indicator, the method of intervention known as advising is prescriptive. Many change agents go in to address issues or create opportunities by advising others and instructing them what to do. Change agents that use this kind of intervention do so with the assumption that they are more knowledgeable about the topic than their customers and can better ascertain their needs. They also seem to presume that customers are incapable of developing a reliable diagnosis or formulating their own course of action.Many times, consultants or change managers may see a solution because they have more experience than their customers, but if they interfere by giving them advice or telling them what to do, they rob them of the chance to figure out the answer on their own. Clients may develop reliant on the change agent, forcing them to seek assistance once again the following time they run into problems.

Clients often actively seek assistance, particularly when they are under a lot of pressure to find a solution and when they have attempted several solutions to the issue without success. According to Steele, the client's demands and the change agent's attitudes may lead to the change agent's sole occupation of the position of expert in their relationship. If the customer

agrees that the change agent is an expert, there may be certain advantages. He does, however, list some expenses. The first is a rise in reliance, while the second is a result of the change agent ignoring the clients' awareness of their own issues.Even in cases when customers do not make an effort to conceal this information, the helper may decide to disregard it. If the client's knowledge value is overemphasized, worse decisions may be made than if there were a more balanced perspective of what each party can provide to the problem. The customer often has significant wisdom, about many elements of his own circumstance. Additionally, even though customers often ask for assistance, there are certain situations in which they could reject any counsel that is given to them. When the change agent's competence is questioned or when the change agent comes out as being indifferent to their requirements, for instance, they are more likely to reject the suggestion.

Collaborative Modes of Intervening

Supporting, theorising, confronting, and information collecting are the other four non-prescriptive strategies of intervention. Instead of interfering by telling clients what to do, change agents that use these strategies engage with clients to help them generate opportunities or handle their own difficulties. Clients may be ineffective opportunity creators or issue managers for a variety of reasons. They may be less able to perform properly if they are experiencing negative emotions like rage or insecurity. They could not have the knowledge necessary to comprehend the issue or formulate a solution. They could be shackled by an ideology or set of ideas that prevents them from reacting appropriately.They may not have access to theories and models that can show them the connections between causes and effects that uphold the status quo and alter opportunities. Additionally, it's possible that they've previously made an attempt to make modifications but were unable to achieve the intended results. All of these circumstances may be factors in customers' low self-confidence. According to Seligman's theory of learned helplessness, which is discussed in Chapter 5, people will develop expectations of non-contingency between response and outcome when they are exposed to uncontrollable events, that is, when the probability of an outcome is the same regardless of how they respond.

According to the idea, clients' motivation to start an action aimed at fixing a problem rest on their belief that acting would result in some improvement to the problematic circumstance. Clients won't attempt to develop if they lack confidence in their own abilities. With an experiment that exposed one group of college students to loud, controlled sounds they could end by pressing a button four times and a second group to uncontrollable noises that ended regardless of what they did, Hiroto demonstrated this effect. A third group didn't hear any sounds at all. Then, in a scenario where noise termination was a controllable factor, each participant was put to the test. Hiroto discovered that individuals who had previously been exposed to unmanageable noise failed to silence sounds during subsequent tests, but those who had either experienced controllable noise or no noise learnt to do so. Abramson et al. distinguish between universal helplessness where the client believes that the problem is unsolvable by anyone and personal helplessness where the client believes that the problem is solvable, for example by the helper but not by the self. The risk with the prescriptiveadvising approach to assisting is that it may encourage in the client a feeling of personal powerlessness and lead to the client being reliant on outside assistance.

Egan talks about 'empowerment' in the helpful relationship. He observes that some individuals develop the notion that they have no control over some aspects of their lives, often from an early age. They speak to themselves negatively and convince themselves they can't handle particular circumstances or cope. According to Egan, clients may and must actively participate in managing their own issues, including the search for answers and actions taken to implement those solutions, whether they are victims of their own doing or the doings of others. He also contends that those who provide assistance may significantly

contribute to helping others gain a feeling of agency or self-efficacy. They may support their clients when they take calculated risks and encourage them to do so by challenging their clients' self-defeating attitudes and ideas about themselves and their circumstances. They can also assist clients in acquiring the information, abilities, and tools they need to succeed. The function of the change agent, according to Egan, is to encourage clients to apply a problem-solving approach to their current situation and to learn from this experience, so that, over the longer term, they will apply this approach again to future situations. Providing clients with support, concepts and theories to help them make sense of situations and identify what can be done to improve things, challenging and confronting their assumptions, attitudes, and behaviours, and assisting them in identifying and acquiring the information they need to manage the situation more effectively are all part of the collaborative modes of intervening that are discussed below.

Supportive Approach

The change agent collaborates with others to help them communicate sentiments and feelings that prevent objective thinking about a problem or opportunity. This is known as the supportive way of intervention.According to Margerison, change agents assist clients in giving themselves permission. Clients must first give themselves permission to discuss tough topics, which leads to giving themselves permission to take action rather than to worry. He claims that in his consulting experience, a successful intervention has sometimes consisted of just listening and assisting managers in opening up challenging topics and talking about issues they had previously shied away from. He notices that customers seem to find this kind of intervention to be a huge relief. Change agents that use a supportive style of intervention listen sympathetically, refrain from passing judgement, and assist clients in forming their own, more objective opinions of the circumstances. It is expected that they will often be able to go on and resolve the issue on their own with the support of this new level of awareness.

Supportive interventions have many characteristics with the client-centered approaches used by counsellors and social workers. They pay attention to what clients have to say about themselves, their relationships with others, and the situation, reflecting on it and sometimes interpreting it, but they don't become involved or come up with any proactive solutions to the issues they raise. It is a helping strategy that puts the needs of the individual before those of the issue. According to Blake and Mouton, a Western Electric consultant at the Hawthorne Works facility in the United States utilised a supportive strategy to assist a shop-floor employee. Although supportive forms of intervention may be beneficial, there are certain circumstances in which this strategy of assisting clients in better understanding their circumstances may not be enough to bring about change. In certain situations, additional types of intervention could be necessary, although early-stage assistance might still be very beneficial.

Theorizing Approach

The theorising approach entails change agents finding theories and conceptual models relevant to clients' problem situations, presenting them to clients, and teaching them how to use them to help clients gain a better understanding of their situation in an analytical cause-and-effect manner. Using this knowledge as a foundation, the change agents assist customers in determining what they can do to move in the direction of a more ideal condition of things.When change agents believe that a theoretical framework might aid clients in Organising their ideas and serve as the foundation for a new assessment of their situation, they may choose to intervene in this way. The Burke-Litwin causal model of organisational performance, for instance, can be used to highlight significant cause-and-effect relationships that influence performance. It can also be used to help a management team identify key stakeholders and create strategies for gaining their support. The application of ideas by

change agents may also help to open up difficult or sensitive topics for debate. An examination of Belbin's team roles, for instance, may provide a reasonably secure and non-threatening means to examine how members of a management team collaborate. This theory-based method may also serve as a foundation for enhancing the client's capacity for autonomous action and a means of examining and evaluating underlying beliefs and values without resorting to direct confrontation.

Challenging Approach

There is a lot of potential for transformation to be facilitated by the demanding way of intervention. It entails the change agent challenging the client's underlying assumptions in an effort to pinpoint beliefs, values, and presumptions that could be skewing how events are seen. According to Blake and Mouton people's thoughts, feelings, and perceptions of what is significant and unimportant are all influenced by their values. Sometimes following the advice of a certain set of values is wise; things go well, and the outcomes are positive. Values may sometimes lead to issues when they are incorrect, invalid, or unjustifiable in the given situation. People who must cooperate often possess divergent views; inability to reach consensus in such circumstances leads to enmities, disorganization, or complete anarchy.

This difficult style of intervention is predicated on the idea that clients' resistance or incapacity to accept reality might impede the efficacy of their efforts. They may not be aware of some parts of their conduct or its effects, or they could excuse or rationalize their actions and therefore cause or maintain an unhappy situation. Challenges to unsuitable precedents or practises are the goals of challenging interventions, which are meant to draw attention to inconsistencies between action and attitude. This method's objective is to question beliefs and presumptions while also identifying alternatives that can make it easier to take advantage of opportunities or result in the creation of more efficient solutions to issues.

Information-Gathering Approach

Change agents support clients in acquiring information that they may use to assess and reframe a problematic situation as part of the information-gathering method to helping. This strategy is predicated on the idea that incomplete information is a significant contributor to malfunctioning. The goals of helpers are to lead clients towards a greater understanding of the root causes of an issue and to assist them in determining the appropriate course of action to address it. Many change agents who use this strategy do so because they believe that any information, they would offer will be less understood and less likely to be accepted than knowledge that people or groups come up with on their own. Another common presumption made by change agents using this strategy is that customers would be less hostile to any suggestions or action plans they develop on their own. 'Positive deviance' is cited by Pascale and Sterin as an example of an intervention that depends on assisting others in gathering and using knowledge independently.

It entails assisting customers in locating and researching instances of innovation and exceptional performance so that they can present their results and utilise them as a foundation for investigating how to disseminate this best practice. For instance, a hospital department that had a relatively low incidence of the MRSA superbug was recognised as a positive outlier. To determine potential reasons and steps they may take to manage the issue in their departments, employees from other areas of the hospital visited the department and conducted interviews with staff and patients. According to Pascale and Stern, disbelief and resistance are easier to overcome because the information gathering process is carried out by clients, creating a high level of ownership, and because the innovators who are responsible for superior performance are clients too. Change agents occasionally participate more directly in data collection, but when this happens, they are frequently acting on behalf of their clients

and provide the information back to them so they can use it to better understand their issue and look into potential solutions.

Developing Collaboration Relationships

When change managers really appreciate the people they are working with, collaborative ways of intervention are most successful. To do this, they must:

1. Indicate that the other person's perspective is important to hear. This shows their readiness to dedicate themselves to collaboration. It also implies a degree of receptivity to their viewpoint. Even when change managers go through the motions of getting other people's opinions, they are far too often not really devoted to listening. Change managers must respect others' viewpoints and make this regard abundantly obvious if collaborative working is to be successful.

2. Change managers need to retain an open mind and refrain from jumping to conclusions if they are really dedicated to collaborating with others. This, according to Egan and Reddy, does not include signalling agreement with all they hear or see; rather, it entails conveying that their point of view has been heard and understood. The client may be inspired to consider their stance by the act of putting aside personal judgement and making an effort to grasp the other's perspective. They are not forced into a defensive stance, and they are given the option to modify their minds.

Prescriptive versus Collaborative Modes of Intervening

According to some, the most successful approach to assist others is to enable them to assist themselves, which often entails using a collaborative style of intervention. However, there could be times when a more directive manner is necessary. Clients could be dealing with a pressing issue that, if not addressed right away, might have grave repercussions. It would be useful to adopt a prescriptive mode to provide the necessary assistance promptly if the change agent has the knowledge to assist them in preventing this tragic consequence. Even while this kind of intervention is only likely to provide a short-term fix, it could be successful if it can buy clients the time, they need to acquire the skills they need to deal with circumstances like this in the future.

Mode of Intervening and the Stage of the Helping Relationship

Over the course of a helpful relationship, the best way to intervene may change. At the start of the helping process, the supportive mode that uses empathic listening to assist clients in reaching a new level of understanding could be particularly useful. It may assist clients explain their thoughts about a chance or an issue as well as aid in the growth of trust and a supportive connection between the change agent and the client. However, as the working relationship progresses, it could be essential for change agents to adjust their original strategy and start using a more demanding, data-gathering, or theorising style of facilitation. They may need to confront clients about contradictions between their statements and actions, provide them feedback, or assist them in gathering fresh knowledge that would enable them to approach their issue from a different angle.

Educating clients on ideas and conceptual frameworks that may aid in their diagnosis and action planning may also be helpful. In other words, a single strategy used in isolation would not necessarily result in the creation and application of plans to advance towards a desired future or in an acceptable degree of awareness of an issue. As the requirements of the customers vary, it can be essential to use a variety of various types of intervention. Egan contends that due to their interdependence, all of the helping strategies covered in this chapter, helps should be proficient in all of them. For instance, if helpers who specialised in confronting clients are not able to do so with empathy or if they approach clients too early in the helping relationship, they may not be effective confronters.

Helping Skills

The intervention styles that may be used to promote change throughout the helping relationship have received the majority of the chapter's emphasis. A passing mention has also been made of some of the particular assisting techniques that change agents must use in order to intervene successfully. These 'helping talents' are not a unique set of abilities only applicable in helping relationships.The right use of a broad variety of everyday and commonly used interpersonal skills is required while providing assistance. The following are a few of these:

1. Self-awareness.
2. Rapport-building and relationship-building.
3. Empathy.
4. Listening to facts and emotions.
5. Probing for information.
6. Finding themes and seeing the wider picture.
7. Offering feedback.
8. Questioning assumptions.

In-depth discussion of these and several other pertinent interpersonal behaviours may be found in Interpersonal Skills at Work.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, developing connections with change agents is essential for effective change management. It entails forging solid relationships, building trust, and communicating clearly with stakeholders. Organisations may resolve issues and win support by paying attention, showing empathy, and being open.

The development of change connections encourages stakeholder participation, ownership, and cooperation.

It improves the likelihood of attaining lasting change results by reducing resistance and fostering a supportive atmosphere. In the end, making an investment in cultivating change connections helps change projects succeed overall and fosters a healthy organisational culture.

REFERENCES:

[1]   A. P. Sinha and H. Jain, "Reusing business components and objects for modeling business systems: The influence of decomposition characteristics and analyst experience," *J. Syst. Softw.*, 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.jss.2016.07.036.

[2]   A. Vongsavanh and B. Campbell, "The roles and skill sets of systems vs business analysts," in *ACIS 2008 Proceedings - 19th Australasian Conference on Information Systems*, 2008.

[3]   J. M. Walker and P. Carayon, "From tasks to processes: The case for changing health information technology to improve health care," *Health Affairs*. 2009. doi: 10.1377/hlthaff.28.2.467.

[4]   M. Levy and T. P. Gumpel, "The interplay between bystanders' intervention styles: An examination of the 'bullying circle' approach," *J. Sch. Violence*, 2018, doi: 10.1080/15388220.2017.1368396.

[5]   E. St-Jean and J. Audet, "The Effect of Mentor Intervention Style in Novice Entrepreneur Mentoring Relationships," *Mentor. Tutoring Partnersh. Learn.*, 2013, doi: 10.1080/13611267.2013.784061.

[6]   G. Bouchard, A. Plamondon, and M. Lachance-Grzela, "Parental intervention style and adult sibling conflicts: The mediating role of involvement in sibling bullying," *J. Soc. Pers. Relat.*, 2019, doi: 10.1177/0265407518793227.

[7]   Y. Estrada Del Campo, L. Cubillos, M. B. Vu, A. Aguirre, D. S. Reuland, and T. C. Keyserling, "Feasibility and acceptability of a Mediterranean-style diet intervention to reduce cardiovascular risk for low income Hispanic American women," *Ethn. Heal.*, 2019, doi: 10.1080/13557858.2017.1346784.

[8]   X. Shen *et al.*, "Effects of a psychological intervention programme on mental stress, coping style and immune function in percutaneous coronary intervention patients," *PLoS One*, 2018, doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0187745.

[9]   P. M. Nilsson, E. B. Klasson, and P. Nyberg, "Life-style intervention at the worksite - Reduction of cardiovascular risk factors in a randomized study," *Scand. J. Work. Environ. Heal.*, 2001, doi: 10.5271/sjweh.587.

[10]   J. Ampuero, Y. Sánchez-Torrijos, V. Aguilera, F. Bellido, and M. Romero-Gómez, "New therapeutic perspectives in non-alcoholic steatohepatitis," *Gastroenterologia y Hepatologia*. 2018. doi: 10.1016/j.gastrohep.2017.07.006.

[11]   A. Aro *et al.*, "Life style intervention improves retinopathy status—the finnish diabetes prevention study," *Nutrients*, 2019, doi: 10.3390/nu11071691.

CHAPTER 9

DIAGNOSING NEEDS TO BE CHANGED: UNDERSTANDING THE CATALYSTS FOR TRANSFORMATION

Ms. Namrita Ahluwallia, Assistant Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-namrita.ahluwalia@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

The change management process involves identifying organizational changes by evaluating the organization's current situation and conducting a comprehensive diagnostic. This involves collecting and analyzing data, conducting surveys, interviews, and observations, and involving key stakeholders. The diagnostic process helps identify underlying causes, fundamental issues, and potential change-resistance hurdles. This data forms the basis for creating specialized strategies and action plans to address the highlighted improvement areas. By diagnosing what needs to be altered, organizations can execute change successfully, providing clarity, priority, and direction.

KEYWORDS:

Change, Components, Diagnostic, Environment, Organizational.

INTRODUCTION

Research of an organization's operations that yields suggestions for improvement is known as organisational diagnosis. In order to make you more aware of the implicit models you use when thinking about organisations and determining the need for change, the first section of this chapter examines the role of models in organisational diagnosis and introduces the Site Security and Secure Escorts case study and an exercise on diagnostic model building. The second section evaluates four holistic models that have been heavily used by change agents and compares their relative benefits to component and holistic models.Making a diagnosis is a continuous process. The case study on Site Security and Secure Escorts demonstrates how diagnosis is often a multi-stage iterative process that starts with the first identification of issues or possibilities but does not end there. Take note of how the diagnosis changed over time as you read the case.

It can be useful to consider who was engaged, what they focused on, and how they gathered data in addition to the various stages of the diagnosis[1]–[4].

Using Models to Aid Diagnosis

In the SSSE instance, the CEO did not begin his diagnosis on a clean sheet. His implicit understanding of how organisations like SSSE operate influenced what he paid attention to and how he processed what he found. At all of its levels, organisational conduct is a complicated phenomenon. Anyone cannot pay attention to or comprehend the interplay between the many components or factors that might affect an organization's operation. As a result, we frequently simplify reality by creating models that concentrate on:

1. A small number of essential components that we believe accurately reflect reality.
2. The interactions between these components, sometimes referred to as causal relationships or laws of effect.
3. The results of these interactions, which serve as the foundation for evaluating outcomes and determining effectiveness.

We all construct our own implicit theories or conceptual models about how organisations work, and we rely on these models to:

1. Direct the information we pay attention to.
2. Interpret what we see.
3. Choose the appropriate course of action.

We create these models based on our own experience, whether we are internal observers of organisational behaviour or external observers like the CEO in the SSSE instance. These models may sometimes serve as a useful starting point for understanding what is happening and making predictions about the kind of activities or interventions that might result in the desired change. However, they often exhibit a great deal of subjectivity and prejudice, emphasising certain aspects of organisational performance while entirely ignoring others. As a result, they don't always serve as an effective manual for managing change.

This chapter's initial section aims to increase your degree of awareness of your own model of organisational functioning. This will enable you to determine if the model you use is appropriate for or consistent with the issues or opportunities you need to address. Additionally, it will enable you to contrast your implicit model with alternatives and identify improvements you may make to it to increase its usefulness. Increasing the explicitness of your implicit models may be advantageous for all those engaged in change management. They may be able to discuss their models' relative merits, exchange ideas, and work towards creating a common model that will serve as the foundation for collaborative diagnosis and coordinated action[5].

Component versus Holistic Models

Holistic models take into account the whole system, as opposed to component models, which concentrate on specific elements of organisational functioning, such as motivation, decision-making, group dynamics, organisational structure, and so on. Although Nadler and Tushman recognised the value of component models, they advise against merging the particular evaluations they provide in any additive way since doing so might result in an inaccurate or incomplete picture of the organisation.They contend that since organisations are systems, some characteristics of the whole cannot be comprehended by just putting the pieces together. In fact, the way the many elements of organisational behaviour interact with one another has a role in the overall dynamic.
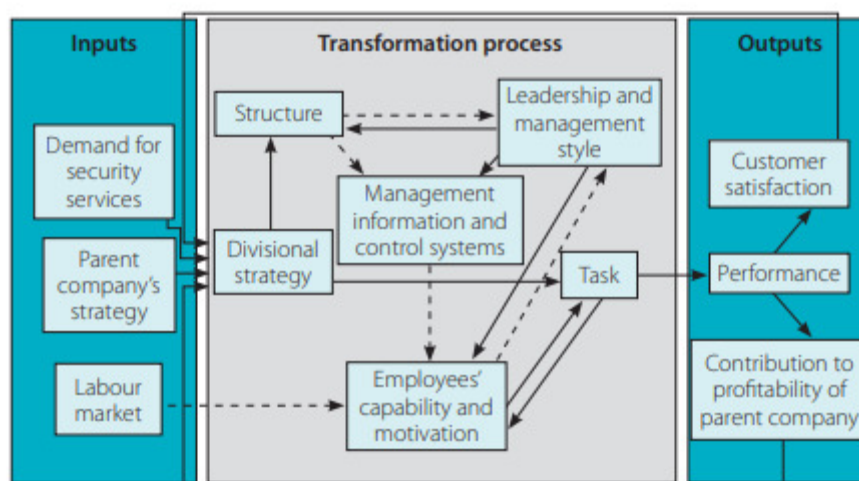

Figure 1: The CEO's model of casual relationships affecting the performance of SSSE [Research Gate.Net].

This is essentially the same as the old Indian tale of the six blind men and the elephant. They all made contact with various bodily parts of the elephant. The blind man who felt an elephant's leg described it as being similar to a pillar; the blind man who felt its tail as being

similar to a rope; the blind man who felt its trunk as being similar to a tree branch; the blind man who felt its ear as being similar to a fan; the blind man who felt its belly as being similar to a wall; and the blind man who felt its tusk as being similar to a spear. They learnt nothing about the nature of the whole system when they discussed their findings and described what they had found[6]–[9].

The new CEO in the SSSE instance began his diagnosis by examining the organisation as a whole, and only later, once specific difficulties had been identified, did he and his team start to drill down and study individual problems using component models. When the CEO was questioned after the shift, he discussed his ideas on the nature of organisations and how he utilised them to direct his investigation into what was happening at SSSE. The essential components of his model and the interactions between them are shown in Figure 1's model.

Open Systems Theory

The idea of open systems offers a paradigm that sees an organisation as a network of connected parts interacting with a broader environment. Organisations have a number of key qualities from the standpoint of open systems, including:

1. Incorporated into a bigger system. Organisations rely on the environment for the resources, data, and feedback they need to survive.
2. Organisations are able to prevent entropy, or the tendency to decay, by exchanging matter, energy, and information with the wider environment. They may even become more crucial with time. People may import food, drink, and air to breathe, but certain portions of the body cannot be regenerated or replaced, making them partly closed systems. On the other hand, groups and organisations have the potential for endless existence. Organisations may be seen as open systems in their most basic form, as shown by Figure 2, where they receive numerous inputs, alter them in some manner, and then export the results as outputs. Organisations must continue to have good input-output interactions with the environment in order to thrive.
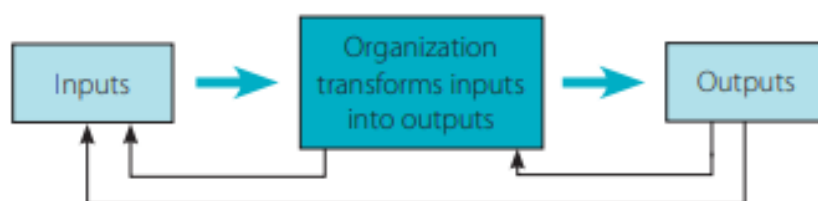
Figure 2: The Organization as an open System[Research Gate. Net].

3. Regulated by feedback. Systems control their inputs and transformation procedures by monitoring their outputs (see Figure 2). There are also feedback loops among the many internal parts of the system. As a result, modifications to one component may have an impact on modifications to others.
4. Subject to equifinality. Different configurations of the system may result in the same results.
5. Events are cyclical in their behaviour. They follow patterns and often occur in cycles of input, throughput, and output. For instance, the proceeds from the sale of outputs may be used to pay for inputs like labour, supplies, and equipment, which in turn may be used to create further outputs.
6. Seeking equilibrium. Open systems have a propensity to go towards a steady state when all of the system's elements are in equilibrium.
7. Diverse elements of the system work to restore equilibrium whenever changes take place that disrupt it.

8. Boundaries define open systems. The movement of information, energy, and matter between the system and its surroundings is controlled by external barriers that separate the organisation from the greater environment. Internal boundaries separate the system's many parts from one another and control the inputs and outputs of subsystems. This chapter discusses four holistic whole system models that have been frequently used for determining the need or opportunity for change while acknowledging the value of component models.

Kotter's integrated model of organisational dynamics emphasises the significance of alignment and investigates the elements that affect an organization's short-, medium-, and long-term performance. The McKinsey 7S model shows how instruments for change may be created to identify areas of misalignment that need further research. Weisbord's six-box model, which has three boxes, emphasises both informal and formal components of organisational functioning. The Burke-Litwin causal model of organisational performance and change emphasises the causal weight of the various organisational components and shows how the need for various types of change may affect which organisational components may require attention [10], [11].

DISCUSSION

Kotter's Integrative Model of Organizational Dynamics

According to open systems theory, any changes to one of the system's internal or external parts will result in changes to other elements. This suggests that in order to comprehend an organization's performance, one must see it as a network of interrelated decisions. When Kotter created his integrated model of organisational dynamics, he expanded on this idea. His model consists of seven main components, as indicated in Figure 3 a group of important organisational activities and six structural components.
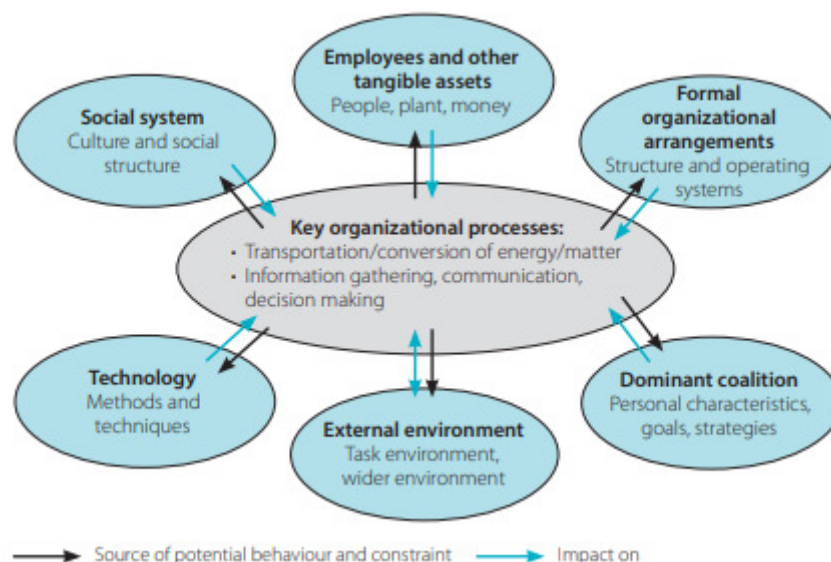
Figure 3: Kotter's integrative model of Organizational Dynamics[Research Gate. Net].

There are two interrelated sets of organisational processes; one set deals with the movement or transformation of matter and energy, while the other is concerned with information collection, decision-making, and communication. Market research, product development, and manufacturing processes are just a few examples of the numerous specialised processes that may be classified based on their intended use. Following are Kotter's model's six structural components:

1. External Environment this encompasses the immediate task-related environment as well as the larger environment, which includes societal attitudes, the political system, and so on.
2. Workers and other physical assetsthese include real estate, machinery, and supplies, as well as cash. Three formal structures are defined by these job design, operating systems, and the grouping of activities and hierarchical groupings.
3. Social system including the social structure and culture of the organization Technology related to the company's main goods.
4. Dominant coalitionthe goals and tactics of those who direct policy.

Short Term

The nature of the cause-and-effect connections that hold all the components of the system together may be used to describe an organization's effectiveness in the short term. For instance, executives in certain organisations may notice a decline in demand for a key product and move to address it far quicker than leaders in other organisations. The effectiveness of an organization's information gathering and decision-making processes will affect its response, as well as how quickly these processes can influence other parts of the organisation to modify matter/energy conversion and transportation processes in ways that will maintain their efficiency. To minimise any build-up of completed products inventories, adjustments may entail decreasing output, locating new clients, or lowering pricing. Resource waste will come from any delays in responding to changes. Therefore, in the near term, successful organisations are those that have important procedures that support the efficient use of resources by ensuring high-quality decision making and matter/energy efficiency.

Medium Term

According to Kotter, a successful organisation is one that can hold onto its short-term efficacy throughout the medium term, which he defines as a few months to a few years. In order to guarantee that the six structural components are in alignment with one another, he proposes that organisations keep the essential process elements in an efficient and effective condition. Continuous misalignment, often known as poor fit, produces waste levels that ultimately endanger the existence of the organisation. He asserts that it is often intuitively obvious what defines a misaligned connection between any two or more structural parts, and he provides numerous instances to support his claim:

1. The dominant coalition and the task environment are visibly out of sync if the objectives and tactics supported by the organization's dominant coalition are founded on false assumptions about the task environment.
2. The two components are visibly out of balance if the workforce or other physical assets of the organisation are too small to benefit from the economies of scale provided by its technology.
3. The two factors are also out of alignment if the degree of specialization demanded by formal organisational systems is incompatible with the workforce's talents.

Growth and changes in the external environment are the two most frequent causes of misalignment. According to Kotter, organisational systems adjust for misalignments by choosing the option that involves the least amount of effort; they go in the direction of this option. This often entails realigning around the aspect or components of the organisation that are the costliest and hardest to modify or that over time become the primary driving factor. Minor instances of poor fit, however, might continue unchecked for long time if the organisation can afford the waste associated with misalignment. According to this reasoning, the medium-term goal of change management should be to make sure that all organisational components are properly linked.

Long Term

Kotter asserts that the organization's driving force and the flexibility of the six structural components will be the key determinants of effectiveness over the longer period six to sixty years. He points out that, over time, one or more structural variables, such as the workforce, technology, the prevailing coalition, or the external environment, often start to have a greater impact on important organisational processes than the other parts. This ingredient, or these components, becomes the impetus that directs how the business develops. Due to the interconnectedness of all the components and systems' inclination to seek balance, he contends that if one or two factors start acting as the driving force, the others would naturally follow. They adjust to the driving force in order to keep themselves in harmony internally. This notion is shown by the ASE's founder and managing director.

For many years, his obsession with technical excellence controlled the organization's culture, influenced its strategy, and formed its management techniques. According to this reasoning, the driving force may result in a deep structure inside an organisation, which can cause inertia and thwart change.

The capacity of an organisation to change in order to preserve external alignment is essential to its success and long-term survival. This flexibility, in Kotter's opinion, depends on how well its structural components are functioning. On a continuum, they may be either very constrained and difficult to align with other structural components, or unconstrained and simple to align with. He gives instances of structural states in Table 1 that both assist system adaptability and do not.

The McKinsey's 7S Model

The McKinsey 7S model emphasises seven interconnected organisational components that, when in harmony, significantly increase organisational performance (Pascale and Athos, 1981). It may be used to spot relationships that are out of sync and bring out organisational components that need adjustment.These are the seven components:

1. **Strategy:** The organization's goals and methods for enhancing its competitive edge.
2. **Structure:** Activity division; methods for integration and coordination; informal organisation type.
3. **Systems:** Formal processes for evaluation, compensation, and resource distribution; unofficial practises for communication, dispute resolution, and other activities.
4. **Staff:** The people resources of the company, including their demographic, educational, and attitude make-up.
5. **Style:** The organisation as a whole and important groups like managers and other professionals' typical conduct patterns.
6. **Shared:** Shared values and overarching goals: Fundamental principles and values and how they affect how an organisation views its clients, workers, shareholders, and the general public. The core competencies and unique characteristics of the organisation. When adopting the 7S model, change managers may build a 7S matrix and use the matrix to gauge the degree of alignment between the seven organisational aspects based on the first phase of the diagnostic. The change manager, for instance, may evaluate the degree to which shared values are in line with the organization's strategy, structure, processes, personnel, skills, and other factors using a five-point scale. This study will highlight instances in which designing an intervention to alter a component in order to enhance fit could necessitate using component models. The model offers a framework for evaluating each modification and taking additional action as necessary. However, proposing a change to enhance the fit between two particular pieces could produce misalignments elsewhere.

Weisbord's Six-Box Model

Weisbord (1976) describes his systemic model as a 'practise theory' that combines knowledge and expertise from change agents. It offers a conceptual framework of six boxes, or components, which may be used to examine each element in a manner that reveals new connections and interconnections between them. It is an open systems model that acknowledges the significance of interactions between the organisation and its environment but places the most emphasis on what must be done internally to guarantee that the organisation develops into and maintains a high-performance organisation capable of adjusting to external changes. According to Weisbord, the activities that take place within and outside of the six boxes determine how well an organisation functions. Both the formal and informal characteristics of each box need consideration.

He contends that formal organisational features, such as declared aims or the structure as shown by an organisation chart, may not always reflect actual operations. made the significance of these behaviours for organizational success, consideration must be made to how often employees engage in certain behaviors. This prompts reflection on human motivations and what needs to be altered to encourage more productive action.Coordination of the activities taking on in the other five boxes is thought to need leadership. According to Weisbord, any diagnostic exercise should begin by focusing on one major output of a unit or the entire organisation, exploring how satisfied its producers and consumers are with it, and tracing the causes of any dissatisfaction to what is occurring within or between the six boxes that represent the unit or organisation in question.

The Burke-Liwin Casual Model of Organizational Performance and Change

The Burke-Litwin model emphasises the relative importance of organisational functioning components as well as the causal relationships that influence performance levels and change processes. The model also distinguishes between two forms of change: transformational change, which happens in reaction to significant changes in the outside environment, and transactional change, which happens in response to the need for more immediate incremental improvement.These characteristics set this model apart from the other models taken into account in this chapter. The model has 12 connected components. The external environment element at the top of the diagram serves as the model's input, while the elements representing individual and organisational performance at the bottom serve as its output. The performance of an organisation impacts its external environment, and the external environment influences performance in a feedback loop.

The following 10 parts, which reflect various stages of the process of converting inputs into outputs, constitute this process. For instance, organisational strategy and culture represent facets of the whole organisational or comprehensive system. A local unit level aspect is the work unit environment, whereas individual level components include motivation, personal needs and values, duties, and roles.To illustrate causal links and the relative influence of items on one another, the model is displayed vertically.Burke and Litwin contend that higher-ranking aspects in the model, such as purpose and strategy, leadership, and organisational culture, have a bigger influence on lower-ranking elements than vice versa. In other words, while components higher up in the model may have some influence on components lower down, the component's location in the model represents the component's weight or net causal effect.Despite this, the paradigm does not mandate that changes always begin with the items at the top. It's a predictive model as opposed to a prescriptive one.

It identifies the kind of causal connections and forecasts the probable outcome of altering certain aspects but not others. Whether securing transformational or transactional change is the goal may have an impact on where to start intervening. These two different sets of organisational dynamics are elaborated by the model. One is linked to organisational change

and the need for a fundamental change in beliefs and conduct, whilst the other is linked to behaviour on a more casual level.When an organisation must react to the types of environmental discontinuities transformational change is necessary. Such a transition entails a paradigm shift and altogether different habits. The organisation has to do things differently or differently, not just modifications that would help it do things better. This necessitates a revision of the guiding concepts, presumptions, and values for both implicit and explicit standards of conduct. It entails a shift in the culture of the company. It also demands that the organization's purpose and strategy be changed, and that managers at all levels set the example by acting in a manner that makes the new plan clear and inspires others to follow suit.

Transactional change is connected with fine-tuning, with how the organisation performs within the current paradigm. Where this kind of change is required, emphasis should be paid to the transformational aspects. The structures, management procedures, and systems that influence the work environment, which in turn has an effect on unit and individual performance, should be the centre of attention.Because of their relative importance and weight, interventions intended to bring about organisational change that focus on higher level components in the model will ultimately and ineluctably have an effect on all other parts in the system. However, the influence is more likely to stay at the local unit level if the focus of interventions is mostly on the components in the bottom section of the model, intended to achieve what Burke and Litwin refer to as transactional change. Interventions focused on this kind of component may have little, if any, effects on organisational culture and strategy as a whole. Burke and Litwin give an outstanding overview of research that offers evidence in favor of the causal relationships proposed by their model.

Revising Your Personal Model of Organizational Functioning

This chapter gave a succinct overview of a few popular holistic models of organisational functioning and noted some of their key distinctions. It is suggested that you adopt a healthy skepticism about the usefulness of certain models and regularly examine which is best suitable for the task at hand.

Characteristics of a Good Model

All of the models that have been taken into consideration are skewed representations of reality. None are promised to be universally applicable, provide a solid foundation for understanding why things are the way they are, or suggest activities that may be performed to bring about a desired result. Some theories or models may be more useful than others, depending on the situation and the goal.'Good' diagnostic models have the following three qualities:

1. Are pertinent to the specific cocorns being considered.
2. Assist change agents in identifying cause-and-effect connections.
3. Concentrate on factors they have control over.

How the models discussed above connect to your own experiences. For instance, how much do they take into account or disregard certain factors and causal connections that your experience has taught you to feel are significant? It may not be a good idea to slavishly follow a model that fails to take into account elements of organisational functioning that your own experience has shown to be important.

Do any of these models include components or connections that you hadn't previously thought about but that, with contemplation, would help you better understand your own experience? The risk of prematurely dismissing other models must be kept in mind. You could discover that a model that is quite different from your own might provide insightful new information.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, one of the most important steps in the change management process is identifying what needs to be altered in organisations. In order to identify areas in need of development or change, data must be gathered and analysed. Organisations may discover underlying problems, comprehend underlying causes, and spot possible change-resistance factors by undertaking a thorough diagnostic. They may create focused strategies and action plans using this information for efficient change implementation. Clarity, priorities, and the assurance that the change efforts are concentrated on the most important areas are all provided by diagnosing what needs to be altered. It acts as a road map for businesses to implement meaningful change that is effective and results in increased productivity, creative thinking, and organisational development.

REFERENCES:

[1] P. Redy and F. Jaya, Partus. Ndeot, "Mengevaluasi Program Layanan Paud Holistik Integratif," *PERNIK J. PAUD*, 2018.

[2] D. Henshel, M. G. Cains, B. Hoffman, and T. Kelley, "Trust as a Human Factor in Holistic Cyber Security Risk Assessment," *Procedia Manuf.*, 2015, doi: 10.1016/j.promfg.2015.07.186.

[3] S. A. Beck, P. W. Hanlon, C. E. Tannahill, F. A. Crawford, R. M. Ogilvie, and A. J. Kearns, "How will area regeneration impact on health? Learning from the GoWell study," *Public Health*, 2010, doi: 10.1016/j.puhe.2010.02.004.

[4] L. M. York, A. Carminati, S. J. Mooney, K. Ritz, and M. J. Bennett, "The holistic rhizosphere: Integrating zones, processes, and semantics in the soil influenced by roots," *Journal of Experimental Botany*. 2016. doi: 10.1093/jxb/erw108.

[5] S. Rajaraman *et al.*, "Pre-trained convolutional neural networks as feature extractors toward improved malaria parasite detection in thin blood smear images," *PeerJ*, 2018, doi: 10.7717/peerj.4568.

[6] J. P. Monat and T. F. Gannon, "What is Systems Thinking? A Review of Selected Literature Plus Recommendations," *Am. J. Syst. Sci.*, 2015.

[7] R. A. Kelly *et al.*, "Selecting among five common modelling approaches for integrated environmental assessment and management," *Environ. Model. Softw.*, 2013, doi: 10.1016/j.envsoft.2013.05.005.

[8] N. Dhollander, L. Deliens, S. Van Belle, A. De Vleminck, and K. Pardon, "Differences between early and late involvement of palliative home care in oncology care: A focus group study with palliative home care teams," *Palliat. Med.*, 2018, doi: 10.1177/0269216318774676.

[9] N. Canário, L. Jorge, M. F. Loureiro Silva, M. Alberto Soares, and M. Castelo-Branco, "Distinct preference for spatial frequency content in ventral stream regions underlying the recognition of scenes, faces, bodies and other objects," *Neuropsychologia*, 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2016.05.010.

[10] B. X. Zhu, "Resilient Control and Intrusion Detection for SCADA Systems," *NA*. 2011.

[11] D. P. Rakel, T. J. Hoeft, B. P. Barrett, B. A. Chewning, B. M. Craig, and M. Niu, "Clinical Research and Methods Practitioner Empathy and the Duration of the Common Cold," *Fam Med*, 2009.

CHAPTER 10

GATHERING AND INTERPRETING INFORMATION:FOUNDATION OF INFORMED DECISION-MAKING

Ms. Namrita Ahluwallia, Assistant Professor

School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India

Email Id-namrita.ahluwalia@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

It is essential for people and organizations to gather information and analyse it in order to make choices and take appropriate action. It entails methodically collecting pertinent information, facts, and insights from a range of sources. Individuals and organisations may get a thorough awareness of the situation, trends, and elements affecting their decision-making by collecting information. This might include gathering data using digital tools, performing research, surveys, interviews, and report analysis. It takes thorough study, critical thinking, and the capacity to spot patterns, trends, and correlations to interpret information. It entails interpreting the gathered data, gleaning valuable insights, and reaching judgements. Effective interpretation reveals possibilities, identifies obstacles, and evaluates the possible effects of various circumstances. Individuals and organisations may use accurate and well-interpreted information to make educated choices, create successful strategies, and accomplish desired results. A crucial step in making wise decisions and addressing problems successfully is gathering and understanding information.

KEYWORDS:

Analyssa, Change, Data, Information, Study.

INTRODUCTION

The process of acquiring, assessing, and interpreting data regarding individual, group, and organisational functioning is required to diagnose the need for change.The last part looks at how to start the process of action planning after interpreting diagnostic data. It is explained how the SWOT analysis and force-field analysis may be effective planning tools.It was previously said that organisational behaviour, at all of its many levels, is a complicated phenomenon and that managers are unable to focus on every facet of how an organisation runs. We construct or adopt conceptual models that reduce the actual world and concentrate attention on a small number of components and interactions in order to deal with this complexity, often unknowingly. Some of the explicit organisational functioning models that are accessible to change agents have to do with how the organisation works as a whole. Others, referred to as component models, concentrate on certain aspects of the total system, such as management, organisation, job design, competencies, and so on[1]–[4].

Since they provide us a focus for information collection and assist us in determining which parts of organisational behaviour deserve attention, conceptual models are essential to the diagnostic process. They also provide a foundation for understanding the data that has been gathered. The first factor to take into account when choosing a model for diagnosis is how relevant the model is to the problem at hand, such as loss of market share, dysfunctional intergroup conflict, excessive employee turnover, etc.An efficient model is one that pinpoints particular factors andcause-and-effect connections that contribute to the issue or opportunity, as well as which of these factors has the most influence on other facets of organisational performance. The change manager may choose an appropriate model for diagnosis with the use of evidence from personal experience or published research about a conceptual model's capacity to explain and forecast cause-and-effect linkages. However, organisational diagnosis goes beyond just increasing our comprehension of why something is the way it is. It also

entails planning actions to increase organisational effectiveness using this information. Therefore, in order for a diagnostic model to be useful in practise, it must identify characteristics of organisational performance that the change manager may influence directly or indirectly.

The change manager can choose the data points that will be necessary to evaluate how an organisation unit or group is functioning and to determine what is and is not working what is working well and what isn't. What this entails is demonstrated by two examples. The 7S model concentrates attention on seven organisational functioning factors: strategy, structure, systems, staff, style, shared values, and skills. When adopting this model, a change manager must determine the type of data needed to explain each element. For instance, under strategy, they might look for details on how the organisation manages to match its resources with the opportunities, restrictions, and demands in the environment, how it aims to develop going forward, and how it goes about establishing and preserving a competitive advantage. A change manager may look for information under structure about formal and informal plans for grouping and coordinating tasks, outlining roles, and creating reporting links. The structure of an organisation may be explained in terms of its divisions, operations, matrix, or network[5]–[8].

The samples come from a diagnostic test that the BBC used in 1993. There was a minimum of four inquiries about each component of the model in the survey instrument. On a five-point scale, respondents were asked to rate each question. Later in this chapter, it is discussed how a change manager might use this kind of data to determine what would need to be altered.When defining the information needs, people conducting a diagnosis must also consider how simple or challenging it will be to get the needed information and how they will examine it later.Beginning with a set of planning decisions on the data collection techniques to use and whether data can/should be acquired from every potential source or from a representative sample of the whole population of sources, the information gathering stage of the process begins. Information can be gathered using a variety of techniques or procedures, including one-on-one and group interviews, surveys, projective techniques like collages and drawings, observation, and the use of secondary data, sometimes known as unobtrusive measures. The majority of these techniques are usefully discussed by Cummings and Worley.

Interviews

A wealth of information about what is happening in an organisation can be obtained from both individual and group interviews. People can be asked to explain specific organisational components and how they work, as well as to express their opinions on how well the organizationor a particular component of it functions and how this makes them feel, or their affective reaction. For instance, after detailing how an organization's assessment system works, some employees may say that they think it is ineffective but that they are actually quite glad about this because the poor system serves their own interests. The benefits of individual interviews are enhanced. Respondents may be convinced to communicate personal opinions that they might be hesitant to do so in a more public setting. Respondents may be inspired to express and be clear about hazy sentiments and viewpoints that they had not yet defined at a conscious level through the interviewer and respondent's interaction.

Interviews can be customized. If respondents bring up concerns the interviewer had not anticipated, the interview schedule can be changed to allow for a more thorough investigation of these new concerns. The interview gives the interviewer/change agent the chance to establish a connection with the respondents, earn their trust, and inspire them to adopt a positive attitude towards the change programme. In a group interview, respondents' interactions can produce information that might not be revealed in an individual interview. For instance, if people from various organisational levels or units voice contrasting opinions,

this could spark a fruitful conversation about the reasons for the disparate viewpoints and any opportunities or challenges they may indicate.

However, using an interview to gather information might lead to a number of possible issues. Although group interviews are less time- and money-consuming than individual interviews, interviews can nonetheless be both. Coding and analysing responses can be challenging, particularly in unstructured interviews. By using a more structured approach, asking all respondents the same set of predefined questions, and reducing the use of open-ended questions, coding and interpretation can be made easier. The benefits of using a more structured approach, though, must be weighed against the potential loss of rich information that can be gleaned from a more unstructured conversation, such as when the interviewer starts with some general open-ended questions and then follows the respondent's line of reasoning.Another issue that can result from how interviewers arrange the topics to be addressed in order and how they craft their questions is bias. Use of questions that provide the respondent a hint that a certain response is intended must be avoided at all costs.

Questionnaires

'Self-administered interviews' is another name for questionnaires. They are made to gather data by posing a prepared series of inquiries to organisational members and othersabout their perceptions, conclusions, and emotions. Because questionnaires may be distributed concurrently to many people without the employment of expensive interviewers, they can be more cost-effective than interviews for gathering diagnostic data. Additionally, they might be created around questions with predefined responses to lessen the load of analysis.They do, however, have a few drawbacks. They lack empathy. It might be challenging for change managers to establish rapport and convey empathy with respondents while utilising surveys to gather data. This could have a negative impact on respondents' willingness to provide accurate and thorough replies to the questions posed.

Additionally, questionnaires are far less flexible than interviews. Interviewers might adjust their strategy based on how the subject responds to questions and even investigate unexpected issues. On the other hand, the questionnaire's structure must be chosen in advance. Respondents' inability or misinterpretation of a question's intent might lead to issues. Important questions might also be left off the questionnaire, which is a problem that is challenging to fix after the survey has been completed. Self-report bias is an additional issue. Interviews and questionnaires both gather data from persons who may purposefully or unintentionally skew their answers. Questions are answered based on how responders view the circumstances. These opinions could be based on inaccurate or insufficient information.Additionally, responders have a propensity to highlight their own actions and defend their own interests. Responses may be skewed by the questionnaire's design. For instance, respondents may develop a habit of responding questions that are close together in a similar way, or their focus may wander and they may answer questions at the conclusion of the survey with less care[9]–[11].

Projective Methods

Projective techniques, such collages and drawings, can be an effective way to gather data about topics that people might find challenging to articulate in other ways. According to Fordyce and Weil, asking subgroups to create collages based on themes like how do you feel about this team? or what is happening to the organisation? and then presenting and explaining them to the entire group during a plenary session can help organisational members express and explore issues at a fairly deep and personal level. Inviting people to produce and share drawings that depict specific parts of organisational life is a similar process. People might be requested to draw circles for each person in their group, varying the size of the circles according to how much power each person has over the group's functioning. They might also

be invited to add more detail to their design by positioning the circles to represent how closely each member of the group must cooperate in order to complete the task. Asking them to unite the circles with blue lines where the persons they represent have a close personal relationship and with red lines when they are far apart in terms of communication, rapport, and empathy may help to further elaborate.These methods of bringing up information can be effective icebreakers and offer a simple way to talk about delicate subjects that are rarely brought up in public. However, while some groups might embrace them, others might dismiss them as frivolous pastimes.

Observations

One method of gathering information that prevents self-report bias is to observe behaviour as it happens. The organisation of the observation in order to concentrate on the necessary behaviour and prevent getting distracted or overloaded with extraneous information is one of the primary challenges with this approach. For example, the level of structure for observing and documenting group behaviour can range from using broad categories like leadership or communication to the use of detailed category sets like the interaction process analysis framework created by Bales.The ability of the observer to spot behavioural patterns that the subjects of the observation may not be aware of and hence be unable to describe in interviews or in questionnaire replies is a benefit of this approach of information gathering.Another benefit is that observations are more relevant to present behaviour and are less likely to be tainted by historical circumstances than self-reports. An adaptive method of information gathering is observation. The observer may be prompted by what they see to investigate related elements of contemporary practise. This method has some drawbacks, such as interpretive and coding issues, cost issues, and potential observer bias.

Unobtrusive Measures

Many organisational settings collect a lot of data on a regular basis about a variety of organisational functions, including costs, downtime, wastage rates, absenteeism, labour turnover, delivery times, margins, complaints, the frequency and type of meetings, and so forth. Because it is unlikely that any particular response bias will result from the fact that this information is being gathered for diagnosis, it is referred to as unobtrusive information. Considering the nature of many of the records that include this kind of information, it is also likely to be widely accepted by organisational members and might be simple to quantify.Even when records are kept, it could be challenging to get information in the right format. The results of performance review, raises given, absenteeism, and sickness rates, for instance, may all be included in an individual's personal record but may not be accessible in any aggregate form for all members of a specific department.

Sampling

Sometimes it may be possible to include every member of the group in the survey, for instance when gathering data from members of a small work group. However, if a diagnostic exercise calls for gathering data on an entire division or the entire organisation, it may be necessary to think about how to sample people, activities, and records in a way that will yield enough data to present a representative picture of what's happening.When selecting a sample, there are a number of important factors to take into account, including sample size in relation to the entire population as well as composition.

For instance, how many individuals should be questioned, events should be watched, and records should be examined, and which people, events, or records should be included in the sample? The size or how many question will be answered in accordance with the level of assurance necessary in the findings and, if the data will be subjected to statistical analysis, the type of analysis to be applied. The complexity of the entire population determines the

response to the composition or which question. If the entire population is quite homogeneous, the sample's members could be chosen at random, using random number tables, or by choosing every nth person in the entire population. However, if there are various subgroups in the overall population, it may be crucial to guarantee that each one is represented in the sample. This entails selecting a sample from each of the various subpopulations that have been divided into the overall population. 'Stratified sample' refers to the composite sample that is produced as a result of this technique.

DISCUSSION

Analysis

After data has been gathered, it must be analysed. Only part of the respondents may have given a positive response to a question such, how challenged do you feel in your current job? for instance. To determine whether a lack of demanding work is a problem, the change agent may be interested in learning what percentage of the sample answered in this way compared to those who responded in the same way in other organisations. Consider whether there is any connection between people who don't feel challenged at work and the division they are in or their rank in the hierarchy. Information is arranged in accordance with analytical techniques in ways that can produce responses to diagnostic queries. Analytical methods are frequently categorized as either qualitative or quantitative. Instead,then counting the number of people who think or behave in a given manner, qualitative techniques are used to explain why people think and behave in a particular way. Quantitative techniques concentrate on data points that can be tallied and are most effective when used to address what, when, and who inquiries as opposed to why ones.

Qualitative Techniques

Scientific tests are typically less important to qualitative procedures than meaning and underlying patterns. Two examples of qualitative analytical methods often employed in organisational diagnostic activities are content analysis and force-field analysis.

Content Analysis

The goal of content analysis is to group the responses' comments into informative groups. In order to do this, it is necessary to identify the remarks or responses that tend to repeat most frequently and to organize them in a way that creates a collection of exhaustive and mutually exclusive categories or themes. Several answers to a question like What do you like best about your work? can mention things like working with kind coworkers, thoughtful bosses, and having the chance to interact with coworkers while on the job. All of these remarks could be interpreted as alluding to the social aspects of the profession, which are a frequent topic.

A distinct set of remarks might be made on the work's level of difficulty, the chance for creativity, and the freedom to try out novel approaches. All of these remarks could be interpreted as addressing various facets of the nature of the work itself. These two groups might then serve as the foundation for assessing the substance of all the data gathered from respondents. Every response can be categorized when a collection of categories is exhaustive, and every piece of information will fit into a certain category when a set of categories is mutually exclusive. Identifying the categories that have been referred to most frequently after all replies have been categorized is one method of judging the significance of the various categories.

Force-Field Analysis

Information categorization is also a part of force-field analysis, which is covered in earlier chapters. Organising the categories into two main types those relating to forces or pressures

for change and those relating to forces or pressures sustaining the status quo and fighting changes what makes force-field analysis unique. Lewin believed that the level of behaviour in any circumstance was the consequence of a force-field made up of a balance of the forces pushing for change some different level of behaviourr and the forces resisting that change. Action plans for securing the intended change can be developed with a useful foundation provided by diagnosing situations in terms of driving and restraining forces. The dynamic equilibrium shifts when the forces pushing in one direction outweigh the forces pushing in the other direction. By strengthening the forces for change in the desired direction or by weakening the restraining factors, the level of behaviour can be altered towards a more desirable state.

Quantitative Techniques

Quantitative methods use counting and measuring to provide answers to what-when-who questions by concentrating on facts with numerical meaning. Means, standard deviations, correlation coefficients, and difference tests are some of the fundamental methods that change agents most typically employ when assessing quantitative data. The mean is a statistic that represents the typical response or activity. For instance, the eight workers in department X may have taken an average of 5 days of sick leave throughout the previous year. The standard deviation shows how much variance, either high or low, there is around this mean. For instance, six department employees might have had no sick days while the other two might have had 20 days apiece. The degree of a relationship between two variables is measured by the correlation coefficient; for instance, sick leave may be negatively correlated with work satisfaction.

Difference tests show whether a group's results for instance, the average number of sick days taken by department X employees are significantly different from those of other groups, such as other departments within the same organisation or a benchmark score or industry standard. You can get further information on these and other strategies in any standard statistics text.Conceptual models serve as a foundation for deciphering diagnostic data and determining what has to be altered to create a more desired state of affairs. When implementing the 7S model, change managers can create a 7S matrix that can be used to identify any potential internal misalignment issues.The BBC's 1993 staff survey, which was based on the Burke-Litwin causal model of organisational performance, revealed some areas that needed reform most urgently. Structure, leadership, and motivational factors were the area's most in need of development, but there was also evidence that many other areas might use better.

Political Considerations

Because people will be concerned about who will use the data, for what purpose, and how they will evaluate and interpret it, gathering information is not a harmless or innocent activity. According to Nadler, the gathering and sharing of information can alter the structure of power relations. For a variety of reasons, gathering data might spark interest in the actions or behaviours that are being analysed. For instance, it can lead to the dissemination of information that a person or organisation had previously kept to themselves in order to gain some sort of political advantage, compromising their authority and influence. It allows for the comparison of a person's or a group's present performance to their past performance, other people's performances, or some standard.

When there is a connection between performance and rewards, these possibilities may be seen as dangerous. Data gathering can be used to either support or undermine the change agent's efforts to identify areas that need to change. People's perceptions about potential uses for the data in the future will have an impact on where the energy is focused. Employees may be more inclined to offer correct information if they anticipate the information gathered in a diagnostic survey would be used in a transparent, non-threatening, and beneficial way, for

instance. On the other side, if they anticipate that it will be used as a kind of punishment, they can try to hide or falsify information.

CONCLUSION

Gathering and interpreting information is crucial in decision-making, problem-solving, and learning. In today's information age, it is essential to gather diverse sources, evaluate source credibility, analyze and synthesize information, contextualize data, avoid confirmation bias, and communicate findings effectively. It is essential to consider the background, circumstances, and underlying factors surrounding the information to avoid biases and ensure unbiased analysis. Communication should be clear, concise, and understandable, using visual formats and graphs to enhance comprehension. Continuous learning and adaptation are essential for a lifelong learning mindset. By employing diverse sources, evaluating credibility, analyzing data within the appropriate context, and avoiding biases, informed decisions can be made and our understanding of the world around us is enhanced.

REFERENCES:

[1]   L. Ward, S. Andreassen, J. J. Astrup, Z. Rahmani, M. Fantini, and V. Sambri, "Clinical- vs. model-based selection of patients suspected of sepsis for direct-from-blood rapid diagnostics in the emergency department: a retrospective study," *Eur. J. Clin. Microbiol. Infect. Dis.*, 2019, doi: 10.1007/s10096-019-03581-4.

[2]   H. Shakir, Y. Deng, H. Rasheed, and T. M. R. Khan, "Radiomics based likelihood functions for cancer diagnosis," *Sci. Rep.*, 2019, doi: 10.1038/s41598-019-45053-x.

[3]   E. Y. Boateng and D. A. Abaye, "A Review of the Logistic Regression Model with Emphasis on Medical Research," *J. Data Anal. Inf. Process.*, 2019, doi: 10.4236/jdaip.2019.74012.

[4]   K. Hoetzenecker *et al.*, "3D Models in the Diagnosis of Subglottic Airway Stenosis," *Ann. Thorac. Surg.*, 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.athoracsur.2019.01.045.

[5]   E. Falco and R. Kleinhans, "Beyond Information-Sharing. A Typology Of Government Challenges And Requirements For Two-Way Social Media Communication With Citizens," 2018.

[6]   F. Qu, Z. Wu, F. Wang, and W. Cho, "A Security and Privacy Review of VANETs," *IEEE Transactions on Intelligent Transportation Systems*. 2015. doi: 10.1109/TITS.2015.2439292.

[7]   Y. Krykavskyy, O. Pokhylchenko, and N. Hayvanovych, "Supply chain development drivers in industry 4.0 in Ukrainian enterprises," *Oeconomia Copernicana*, 2019, doi: 10.24136/oc.2019.014.

[8]   A. Madureira, N. Baken, and H. Bouwman, "Value of digital information networks: A holonic framework," *NETNOMICS: Economic Research and Electronic Networking*. 2011. doi: 10.1007/s11066-011-9057-6.

[9]   E. M. Ikart, "Survey Questionnaire Survey Pretesting Method: An Evaluation of Survey Questionnaire via Expert Reviews Technique," *Asian J. Soc. Sci. Stud.*, 2019, doi: 10.20849/ajsss.v4i2.565.

[10]   S. Tsang, C. F. Royse, and A. S. Terkawi, "Guidelines for developing, translating, and validating a questionnaire in perioperative and pain medicine," *Saudi Journal of Anaesthesia*. 2017. doi: 10.4103/sja.SJA_203_17.

[11]   R. Goodman, "The strengths and difficulties questionnaire: A research note," *J. Child Psychol. Psychiatry Allied Discip.*, 1997, doi: 10.1111/j.1469-7610.1997.tb01545.x.

CHAPTER 11

ROLE OF LEADERSHIP IN CHANGE MANAGEMENT:GUIDING THE TRANSFORMATION JOURNEY

Ms. Namrita Ahluwallia, Assistant Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-namrita.ahluwalia@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

The success of organisational transitions depends critically on the role of leadership in change management. When it comes to directing and facilitating change, inspiring and motivating employees, and directing their efforts towards a shared vision, effective leadership is absolutely essential. Strong communication skills, the capacity to foster confidence and trust, and the readiness to accept and promote change are just a few of the essential traits that make a great leader. They must make clear why change is necessary, be specific about the results they want, and provide a safe atmosphere for workers to make the move. In addition, leaders need to take the initiative to deal with opposition, handle conflicts, and offer resources and support to people and teams affected by the change. Effective leaders can successfully lead their organisations through change and generate long-term growth and sustainability by exhibiting a clear vision, including stakeholders, and establishing a culture of openness and adaptation.

KEYWORDS:

Change, Communication, Leadership, Organisational, Management.

INTRODUCTION

Although it is widely acknowledged that leadership is the primary facilitator of change, there seems to be substantial disagreement over what makes for effective leadership. Using Northouse's definition, leadership is described below as a process that entails persuading people to carry out specific objectives. This chapter discusses the function of leadership, investigates the idea that managerial work is increasingly a leadership duty during times of transition, looks at what leaders must do to implement successful change, and takes into account the idea that leadership needs to be seen as a collective activity[1]–[4].The conflict between management and leadership is highlighted by Tichy and Devanna and Kotter. They contend that while leadership is concerned with change, management is more interested in preserving the current organisation. In other words, leadership is about doing the right things, whereas management is about doing things correctly. Leadership, on the other hand, is concerned with new paths and change, whereas management is focused on stability and order.

Managerial work, in times of change, is increasingly a leadership task

Despite being separate activities, management and leadership are complementary and both are required for success in a changing company environment. According to Bolden, it might be difficult to think of managers and leaders as being entirely dissimilar and incompatible with one another. For instance, some describe managers as uninspired bureaucrats who only concentrate on the task at hand and leaders as dynamic, charismatic people with the potential to inspire others. A manager's actual experience does not align well with such a concept, according to Bolden. People are typically hired for 'management' jobs rather than 'leadership' positions and are required to accomplish a variety of responsibilities, from short-term tactical planning to long-term strategic planning. None of these are carried out independently.According to Kotter, managers are in the best position to give the leadership necessary to guarantee that a change will be effective. However, if they are to exercise this

leadership, they must understand that their role entails a dual responsibility: management, which entails maintaining the system's effectiveness, and leadership, which entails revitalizing and renewing the system to ensure that it will continue to function effectively in the long run.

The transformational change is now more important than managing continuous change, which is also accelerating. This change has the effect that management work now places a greater emphasis on leadership and providing direction.Kotter uses a straightforward military comparison to demonstrate the idea that administrative work is increasingly a leadership responsibility in times of change. A peacetime army can typically endure with competent leadership focused at the top, along with good administration and management at all levels of the hierarchy. However, a wartime army needs capable leadership at all levels. Platoon leaders and company commanders still have management responsibilities in a wartime army, but the effectiveness of their leadership in combat situations is crucial. The center of leadership cannot be confined to the organization's hierarchy. This chapter's discussion of the distributed nature of leadership will further expand this theme[5]-[7].

The Role of Leadership

Growing data suggests that 'what leaders do' can have a significant impact on follower behaviour and the effectiveness of change projects. The definition of leadership has been greatly debated. According to Kotter, effective leadership is developing a vision, sharing it with others, bringing them on board, and inspiring them by appealing to their needs, values, and emotions. After analysing prior research, Higgs and Rowland [8] find five behaviours linked to effective change implementation:

1. Building a case for change.
2. Ensuring that any change is founded on a thorough comprehension of the problems.
3. Involving others and fostering adherence.
4. Creating efficient strategies and sensible monitoring procedures.
5. Supporting and enhancing the participants' capacity.

Four skills are mentioned by Ancona et al. sense-making, relating, visioning, and invention. Inventing entails coming up with, creating, and implementing fresh approaches to solving problems. A 4E framework is provided by Yates.

1. Imagining a set of objectives and tactics that are based on values.
2. Facilitating their accomplishment by choosing the proper techniques, resources, and personnel.
3. Enabling others by fostering interdependence and trust between leaders and followers.
4. Inspiring everyone to spearhead the change.

According to Yates, the instant a leader falters or exhibits a lack of resolve, the team will get demotivated and performance will suffer. The way followers view their leaders' actions can have a significant impact on their efficacy.

The ability of the leader to inspire people, communicate clearly, and form teams were found as three criteria connected to support for change by Gilley in their study of subordinates' opinions of effective leader behaviour.

In a review of 700 studies on how change recipients responded to change, Some researchers found that recipients were more likely to respond favourably to change when they felt the process was collaborative and supportive, with clear channels of communication, and when managers were seen as competent and impartial[9], [10].On the basis of these concepts, it is possible to list seven actions that leaders must take to guarantee the success of transformation. Below, they are covered in further detail.

DISCUSSION

In order to identify the issues that need attention, leaders must be able to make sense of the world around them and construct cognitive maps, which are mental representations of their surroundings that demonstrate what they consider to be more or less relevant. This is not always simple since conservative people, even leaders, often evaluate current events in terms of historical events. When considering sense-making in the context of counterterrorism, Colville et al. say that a sensible event often resembles one that has happened before. They cite the 9/11 Commission Report, which concluded that while intelligence community members were on the lookout for historical clues, they were unprepared for and unaware of signals pointing to an emergent, shifting present. According to several accounts of what transpired, the CIA allegedly ignored reports that prospective terrorists were taking flying lessons because the information did not match their mental models of how terrorists work. Similar arguments are made by Näslund and Pemer after they examine the dominant stories in two Scandinavian businesses.

To help make sense of their everyday experience, organisational members utilise stories about people, events, and their perceptions of cause-and-effect linkages. Over time, dominant narratives form, acting as both collective frames that facilitate and constrain sense formation. Stories that align with the mainstream narrative are taken as credible, while those that don't are seen as improbable or even unimaginable, and as a result, have minimal effect. As a result, organisations discover that it is simpler to adapt in a way that is consistent with the dominant narrative. According to Ancona et al., leaders can enhance their sense-making by gathering information from a variety of sources, determining whether various individuals have unique viewpoints, and using preliminary observations to create small experiments to test theories. Despite the fact that sense-making may be a crucial starting step, it is important to remember that it is a continuous process. Leaders must constantly be aware of how new developments may affect the change agenda since situations change.

It is crucial that persons exercising leadership develop a vision based on a realistic evaluation of the situation as well as the requirements and priorities of important stakeholders, even if sense making and visioning are independent tasks. Sense making, is the process of cueing a tale in the form of a frame that gives leaders a recipe that acts as both a scheme of interpretation this is the meaning of the circumstance and a scheme for action this is what we should do next. Leaders can start to define their vision of a more desirable state of affairs and what needs to be done to progress towards this better future based on how they evaluate the current situation and forthcoming risks and possibilities. It is widely acknowledged that a strong vision, guided by a thorough understanding of the context, can significantly increase the likelihood that a change attempt will be successful.

The best way for leaders to develop a vision is not predetermined. As did the CEO in the Direct Banking case, when he declared his intention to implement voice automation and routing in order to reduce costs, some leaders work independently to develop a vision before presenting it to others as a clear and formulated picture of a preferred future. Others start to voice their opinions nearly as soon as they become conscious of a need or an opportunity for change, and they invite others to join them in imagining what a better future might entail. While the degree to which others are permitted to engage can vary, there is strong evidence that involvement does have an impact on achievement. Participation was linked to a sense of agency and control over the change, reduced levels of stress, a higher readiness to accept change, and general support for the process.

Kotter contends that visions that disregard the legitimate demands and rights of some stakeholders and privilege certain stakeholders over others may never be realized, but there are some situations where leaders may be compelled to priorities the interests of some

stakeholders above those of others.According to Conger, sometimes leaders become so devoted to a project or a belief that they only pay attention to information that supports their own position and fail to recognised signals that point to, for example, changes in customer requirements or the limited availability of necessary resources. As a result, Conger contends, visions can be flawed. A track record of prior triumphs may exacerbate this problem. In previous chapters, the trap of success is discussed, where past success fosters a sense of self-belief and hubris, which can inspire leaders to forge on without giving the situation's crucial details or other people's worries enough thought.Bruch et al. contend that prior to deciding how to do the change right, leadership decisions regarding the right thing to do must be made since continuing discussions about does the change make sense? will sap the project's energy and impair the implementation process.

Sense Giving

'Sense providing' is another term for conveying the vision. Giving sense is described as the process of attempting to influence the sense making and meaning construction of others towards a preferred construction of organisational reality. In order to convey their vision of a different and better reality and persuade others to share it, leaders communicate their vision to stakeholders and constituents.Before interacting with a larger audience, a leader frequently starts by speaking with senior team members. Even when leaders do not include others in the initial formulation of the vision, it is rarely a one-way process because, once communicated, the vision will almost always start as a 'sequential and reciprocal cycle' of sense making and sense giving. In order to understand the consequences of the leader's new vision for themselves and their unit or organisation, the recipients of the leader's message engage in their own sense-making, processing and interpreting what they have heard. However, after trying to make sense of what they have heard, the recipients frequently feel the need to engage in their own sense-making activity, which often entails providing feedback to leaders. The leader's vision may immediately elicit an enthusiastic and favorable response.

This feedback could take the form of a demand for further clarification, an attempt to alter and mould the leader's initial vision, or even a challenge to the idea that a new vision is even necessary.The nature of the mutual process of sense-giving and sense-making can significantly affect the vision's quality. When leaders sincerely welcome criticism and debate, there is a significant probability that the final vision will be solid and useful. However, there are instances where leaders get little to no feedback on their suggested vision. This might occur if people are excessively reliant on and trusting of the leader's assessment, or if they are afraid of the consequences if they disagree with any aspect of the leader's vision. According to some authors, charismatic leaders with strong personalities can encourage this kind of uncritical reliance. When the leadership team exhibits what Janis called groupthink because they are so dedicated to a single philosophy, a lack of challenge can also result.

Translating the Vision into a Desire for Change

Just because change agents comprehend the leader's vision doesn't mean they agree with it and will work hard to make it a reality. Giving advice is most effective when the potential recipients actually want to change something after receiving it, rather than just realizing that something has to change. There are several actions that leaders can take to influence whether or not this will occur.When potential change beneficiaries trust their leaders and believe that leaders value their opinions, the realization of a need for change will more likely translate into a desire for change. By asking for feedback, encouraging others to express their opinions, and sending a message that their opinions are valuable and that they will try to keep an open mind until they have understood what they have to say, leaders can aid in the development of this kind of respect. However, leaders occasionally come out as not paying enough attention to or trivializing the opinions of others, despite the fact that they may appear

to be doing so. The perceptions of the benefit or damage of the change are a major factor in determining whether change recipients will accept or resist it. Leaders can be more effective if they present a compelling vision that is in line with the values of change beneficiaries and assures them of a personal gain. Conger raises a cautionary note and argues that leaders need to be cautious not to present information in ways that make their vision appear more realistic and more appealing than it actually is. He notes that while crafting the vision so that it appeals to change recipients can produce more support for a change, Conger sounds a note of caution.This competency is viewed as the leader's capacity to influence outcomes and achieve desired goals. This emphasises how crucial it is for leaders to exert every effort in order to establish the connections and acquire the skills that will enable them to implement change successfully.

They also need to make sure that those affected by the change perceive them as knowledgeable and connected. Despite this, Conger issues a further warning and claims that leaders shouldn't convey a vision in a way that fosters the perception of control when the situation is actually out of control. The necessity to inspire confidence in order to encourage a readiness for change, but this must be done responsibly. Sometimes, information is twisted in such a way as to persuade stakeholders and workers to make choices that are neither in their own best interests nor those of the company.Kotter outlines the challenges leaders frequently face when attempting to push individuals outside of their comfort zones and foster a readiness for change in his article on why transformation attempts fail. To solve this issue, he suggests taking actions that elicit a sense of urgency. In order to convey the severity of the predicament the company is in, Stephen Elope, the new CEO of Nokia, used the analogy of a burning platform.

Aligning

Communicating in a way that encourages a common sense of direction and brings people together so they can cooperate to realize the vision is a crucial component of sense-making. According to Kotter, interdependence where no one has complete autonomy and the majority of organisation members are connected to many others by their work, technology, management systems, and hierarchy is a key characteristic of modern organisations. According to Kotter, these linkages provide a unique problem for organisations attempting to change since without a line-up and coordinated movement, people will trip over one another and get in the way. According to Kühl et al., managers at all levels of the organisation must exercise 'lateral leadership' in order to forge consensus, shape the political landscape, and foster trust. Some of the best leaders are able to recognised persons who could help or hurt an endeavour, build relationships with them, and persuade them of what needs to be done. Even those who are at lower levels of the organisation are empowered when they are aligned in this way. Committed stakeholders, including subordinates, are more likely to feel empowered to act when there is a clear, shared sense of direction because they won't be as likely to run afoul of others or receive criticism from superiors.

Enabling

Receivers of the change and those involved in executing it can be motivated to overcome the inevitable obstacles they will face as the programme progresses by being given a clear and compelling vision and having people aligned behind it.However, managers must go beyond. Even the most compelling vision will lose its power if it floats, unconnected, above the everyday reality of organisational life, claim Ancona et al. They contend that in order to turn a vision of the future into a reality today, leaders must establish the conditions that will make implementation easier.Kotter contends that an elephant may show up and obstruct their progress even when individuals involved in the shift understand and accept the new route.

The leader may need to challenge their worldview or work with them to gain the confidence they need to move through with the change when they perceive an elephant in their imagination. When it comes to complex organisational structures, constrained job functions, a lack of access to pertinent information, erroneous performance standards, and incentives that encourage individuals to stick with their old work habits, the elephant can be a very real, physical obstacle to change.In order to create the circumstances that will enable individuals to bring about change, leaders must take steps to remove these obstacles.Using the research of Hackman, Higgs and Rowlandand others, it is feasible to identify a variety of ways in which leaders can establish the circumstances under which others might contribute to the implementation of change. Making sure that everyone is aware of what needs to be done is one way that leaders may empower others to bring about change.

Establishing explicit frameworks and processes that allow individuals to collaborate to accomplish a shared goal. To enable the sharing of information and other resources, this can include changing organisational structures or opening up departmental boundaries. Creating and assigning assignments that are compatible with people's ideals and challenging enough to make their work worthwhile. When possible, provide tasks for teams rather than individuals to increase the sense of collaborative responsibility among participants in the transformation process. Enabling access to information that some people would think should be restricted, so that people and groups can make decisions without constantly requesting information and approval from others. Creating feedback mechanisms that people and groups can use to track their own development and take lessons from their triumphs and mistakes. Encouraging the change's participants to come up with and discuss justifications for how well the change is going. Establishing top-level alignment to ensure that senior managers convey consistent messages to everyone and use a common strategy to accomplish the change.

Supporting Others During the Change

The necessity for those affected by a change to understand how the change will affect them personally outweighs the fact that leaders often find it simpler to identify and explain benefits for the organisation than benefits for the individual. Therefore, it is crucial to acknowledge and address these worries. Even if a leader is confident that the impacted person would benefit from the change, some people may not agree with this assessment, and even if they do, they may still feel helpless or like they have no influence over what will happen to them. This kind of response might encourage people to resist change rather than let go and accept it. These worries can be addressed by giving those affected the chance to talk so they can investigate and comprehend what will be entailed. Concern that persons impacted by the change might not be able to perform at the required level after the change is implemented is a related problem. Offering training opportunities ahead of the change, on-the-job assistance throughout implementation, and creating a safe environment for mistakes and seeking help can all help workers gain confidence and accept the change.

Maintaining Momentum and Sustaining the Change

Because adopting changes can be expensive in terms of time and other resources, there is frequently a tension between keeping the show on the road maintaining output and introducing improvements that will offer higher performance over time. Employees who are under pressure to sustain output may put less emphasis on the change agenda in order to meet immediate needs. Leaders must take care to behave in a way that keeps the momentum of change going and prevents the loss of hard-won gains. There is a good possibility that individuals will be inspired to stick with the change even when faced with difficulties that might otherwise have called into question their commitment if they can see their leaders' active involvement in and dedication to the change. However, a common issue is that after identifying the need for change, developing and communicating a vision, and initiating the

change, leaders divert their focus, leading those responsible for implementing the change to believe that there is a lack of support from the top. Whelan-Berry and Sommerville contend that for leaders to be effective change agents, they must walk the talk throughout the implementation process.

Additionally, it is critical that leader support extend beyond the senior managers who may have started the transformation. They must involve future leaders and hold them responsible for making the change in their divisions and teams. To make sure that the task receives the proper attention and resources, managers and supervisors at all levels must be devoted and equally invested in walking the talk.Sometimes, executing a change can take a while, and there is a risk that individuals will eventually lose the initial urgency and turn their attention to more urgent, day-to-day operational difficulties. According to Kotter, one strategy for reducing this danger is for those driving the change to focus on quick victories and make plans for audible performance gains that may be acknowledged along the way. While Kotter supports celebrating early victories, he advises against doing it too soon because it can kill the momentum.

Leadership Style

Considering the characteristics of the situation, the team's current state, and their own unique skills and preferences, Hackman contends that too much emphasis has been placed on the importance of leadership style and asserts that leaders can succeed by utilising the behaviours or styles that make the most sense to them personally. Early research on leadership tended to Favor some leadership philosophies over others. For instance, Lewin et al. examined how leadership styles affected classroom environments and came to the conclusion that democratic leadership was superior to an authoritarian approach. In later research, Ohio State University scholars discovered two aspects of a leader's behaviour that seemed to affect output.

They were consideration, which measures the degree to which supervisors and subordinates have relationships characterised by mutual trust, respect for each other's opinions, and consideration of each other's feelings, and initiating structure, which measures the degree to which the leader is prone to defining and organising the work of subordinates. The results of Fleishman et a revealed that good leaders were those who gave high priority to both consideration and organisation. As a result, the conceptual framework for Blake and Mouton's managerial grid was established, which identified team management as the most efficient type of leadership.Situational leadership cast doubt on the idea that there is a single leadership style that will work well for every manager in every situation. The most effective style is dependent on situational aspects, including the people, the work, and the organisational setting, according to theories put out by Fiedler, Adair, and Hersey and Blanchard, to name just a few.

Charismatic Leadership

Research findings that traditional, sometimes referred to as transactional, leadership models that focus on goal setting, direction, support, and reinforcement only accounted for a relatively small percentage of variance in performance outcomes were, at least in part, what spurred the development of new models of leadership. Avolio et al. found that charismatic and transformational leadership are positively associated with a variety of significant organisational outcomes, including job satisfaction, motivation, morale, and performance, across many different types of organisational settings.The effectiveness of the emotional relationship between leaders and followers is highlighted by charismatic leadership. 'Leaders who by the power of their person have significant and remarkable effects on their followers,' according to Bass, are what is meant by the phrase 'idealized influence'. They have the power to inspire followers to take on challenges they may not have previously thought possible.

Using Podsakoff's model of transformational-transactional leadership, Antonakis proposes that they accomplish this by inspiring others with their vision, setting high performance standards and challenging followers to meet them, encouraging cooperation and teamwork to get people working towards the same goal, setting an example, and leading by example rather than by telling.

According to Conger, one characteristic of charismatic leaders is their ability to communicate in a way that motivates others. He offers the example of two stonemasons who were asked what they were doing while working on the same job to demonstrate what this entails. The first responded, I'm cutting stone, and the second, I'm erecting a massive cathedral. Conger claims that the second mason was able to explain his job in a more comprehensive and profound manner. He contends that in order to inspire others, leaders must possess the capacity to clearly explain an organization's objective. There are two different skill sets needed for this. The first is framing, or the capacity to meaningfully describe the organization's goal. The second skill is what Conger calls rhetorical crafting, which is the capacity to employ symbolic language to imbue the message with emotional power. While the fundamental message gives the change's participants a feeling of direction, it is the rhetoric that heightens its motivating appeal and decides if it will be memorable enough to affect their day-to-day decisions.Adopting the proper leadership approach can aid in the facilitation of change, however there is a lot of evidence to support the idea that there is no one optimum approach.

Distributed Leadership

It's crucial that charismatic leaders are not viewed as heroic figures who can bring about change on their own via the force of their personality.Deep hierarchies, in which the relationship between the leader and the subordinate is clearly defined, have given way in many organisations to new organisational forms, where cross-functional teams, networks, and communities of practice call for a style of leadership that can be separated from organisational hierarchies. Leadership must be passed down the ladder, at least in part, even in typical hierarchical organisations. According to Gilley et al., while top management may create the organization's vision, mission, and corporate-wide change initiatives, middle managers are typically tasked with creating the shorter-term operational plans that give life to top management directives, and frontline managers are primarily responsible for carrying out these plans.

In other words, the leadership process involves the participation of many organisational members.Change is frequently started by a single person or a small group. These change-initiators may be seen as the ones driving the change, but Kotter contends that for the change to succeed, leadership must be expanded and shared. All managers inside the system must acknowledge that they have a leadership role to perform. They must contribute to establishing a vision, coordinating interactions, and motivating others. In support of this viewpoint, Oxtoby et al. make the case that in addition to a system of leadership cascading down the organisation in the form of a distributed network of key players, each providing leadership in their respective parts of the organisation, this network also needs to share a common vision of the organization's purpose that is clear, consistent, and motivating in order to be effective. It is not always simple to establish and maintain this unified strategy.

Leadership is compared to a two-partnered dance by Spillane. While concentrating on the actions of one partner is possible, it is vital to give attention to all of the dancing partners in order to fully comprehend the dance performance. Collinson points out that numerous leadership studies have largely neglected or undervalued the significance of relationships between leaders and followers in favor of focusing solely on the characteristics and philosophies of the leaders. According to Bolden, there is a growing understanding of the

value of interpersonal relationships, the requirement that followers grant authority to leaders, and the understanding that no one person can be the ideal leader in every situation. Because of this way of thinking, less formalized models of leadership have been created to account for the potential that leadership is not the sole domain of a single manager or even a group of senior managers.Bolden notes that people can exhibit leadership influence over coworkers at all organisational levels not just managers, which can affect the general course of the organisation. This viewpoint changes focus from the individual heroic leader to a more group-based sense-making and direction-giving process.

The Collective Nature of Leadership

The position of the CEO as a leader receives a lot of emphasis in a lot of organisational change literature. There is conflicting research on the relationship between organisational effectiveness and the leadership style of the CEO. According to Avolio et al., some studies found no correlation between the charisma of the CEO and later organisational performance, while other studies found the opposite. This may be the case since leadership must frequently be perceived as a group endeavor. According to Pascale and Sterin, there is a chance that individuals who stand out as change agents will cause other employees to become dependent on them in an unhealthy way. They contend that a community's own members should exercise leadership. Additionally, Denis et al. warn against exalting particular heroes. Organisations are growing increasingly diverse and complicated.Due to the numerous collaborative relationships, they have and the outsourcing of many of their operations, their exterior boundaries are becoming more and more hazy.

Organizational environments where traditional command and control cultures are eroding and managers are increasingly forced to collaborate with people, they have no direct authority over are being created by the growth of matrix and network structures as well as the shift from functional to more process-oriented organisational forms.The creation of enough coherence is one of the major issues involved in managing change in pluralistic environments. According to Denis et al, change projects should be led by a group of people as opposed to a single person in circumstances when power is spread and there are conflicting goals. The major change in pluralistic organisations is more likely to be achieved under unified collective leadership, in which members of a leadership constellation play complementary roles and collaborate well. This argument is based on the authors' research in healthcare organisations.

However, the membership of the leadership constellation is frequently wider than this, with members having different but complementary roles. Conventions or legally binding codes of practises in many countries explicitly formalize the collective nature of strategic leadership by separating the posts of CEO and president or chair of the company's board of directors.As an illustration, some people might concentrate on managing exterior relations, whereas others might manage ties with specific internal constituencies. When a single person is unable to develop and implement a vision that is supported by a large enough group of influential stakeholders, collective leadership is crucial. Collective leadership offers the chance to combine the variety of knowledge and expertise necessary to create a workable vision as well as the capacity to influence others in a way that is seen as genuine.

Fragility

While leadership configurations are constantly brittle, the cohesive collaborative leadership is required in pluralistic environments. They use three different sorts of coupling to define fragility.Internal harmony among the leaders in the leadership constellation is known as strategic coupling. When conflicting opinions about what's important start to form within a constellation, constellations might start to become disjointed. It indicates the interaction between the leadership constellation's members and their organisational constituencies, which

in turn refers to the perceived alignment between leaders' goals as demonstrated by their actions and constituents' interests. Constituents will start to feel that their leaders are not adequately representing their views if members of the leadership constellation lose contact with their followers. Since leaders' rule, at least in part, with the agreement of the led, this may lessen their capacity to influence constituents and possibly jeopardise their place in the leadership constellation. Thorpe and Gold cite the story of an Indian chief to illustrate their point.

When asked why he was the leader, the chief said because he had followers. When hunting buffalo on the wide plain, he added, if he rode to the left and the braves followed him, he was confirmed as the leader. However, if he rode to the right and the braves did not follow him, he would lose that position. The opinions of others on whether one's behaviour is appropriate in a setting of shifting power dynamics are essential for long-term survival in a leadership role. Credibility-enhancing actions tend to improve survival prospects, whereas credibility-draining ones tend to worsen them. Changes in credibility have a direct or indirect impact on an individual's or leadership group's ability to take action in the future. The potential for action is expanded with greater credibility. Credibility declines it and could result in leader change. This has effects on how effective various leadership philosophies are. The members of a tightly coupled power constellation may find that acting aggressively, secretively, and authoritarian is an effective way to get things done in the short term, but they contend that these strategies can erode credibility over time.

It might be vital, particularly in the long run, to strike a balance between assertive leadership action and maintaining the necessary amount of support from people being led. Environmental Coupling the degree of agreement between the leadership constellation's goals and objectives and the requirements and restrictions placed upon it by significant outside stakeholders. Constellations might fail if they become so cut off from their surroundings that their performance starts to suffer. This occurs when pressure to replace members of the constellation comes from the company's board or other strong external stakeholders due to concerns about performance. When there is some organizational wiggle room, it is simpler to accommodate different interests; nevertheless, when resources are scarce, there are fewer opportunities for adjustments and compromises. In these situations, the members' interpersonal and personal qualities may have an impact on the stability of leadership constellations and their capacity to effect change. According to Denis et al., it's critical to have a tacit understanding of how the organisation operates, as well as creative opportunism the capacity to recognised possibilities to balance a variety of desires with external forces.

CONCLUSION

In summary, effective organisational changes are driven by the leadership role in change management. Direction is provided by effective leaders, who also motivate staff members and foster a change-friendly workplace. They discuss the need for change, deal with opposition, and provide assistance to both people and teams throughout the process. Leaders may guide their organisations through change while establishing a culture of flexibility by exhibiting strong leadership traits. This will guarantee long-term growth and success. Other elements might also be crucial. While it was concurring that tacit knowledge and self-efficacy are important, they also highlight the importance of a number of other social skills such as social intelligence, emotional intelligence, ego resilience, and self-monitoring. Hollenbeck and Hall highlight the effect of self-efficacy, that is, leader self-confidence, on leader performance.

REFERENCES:

[1]   G. Yair, "Method effects on theory testing: the case of organizational coupling in education," *J. Educ. Adm.*, 1997, doi: 10.1108/09578239710171901.

[2]   R. D. Ericson and D. A. Eckberg, "Racial disparity in juvenile diversion: The impact of focal concerns and organizational coupling," *Race Justice*, 2016, doi: 10.1177/2153368715594848.

[3]   J. P. Spillane, L. M. Parise, and J. Z. Sherer, "Organizational Routines as Coupling Mechanisms," *Am. Educ. Res. J.*, 2011, doi: 10.3102/0002831210385102.

[4]   S. Yang and L. Zheng, "The paradox of de-coupling: A study of flexible work program and workers' productivity," *Soc. Sci. Res.*, 2011, doi: 10.1016/j.ssresearch.2010.04.005.

[5]   J. Ford and D. Collinson, "In search of the perfect manager? work-life balance and managerial work," *Work. Employ. Soc.*, 2011, doi: 10.1177/0950017011398895.

[6]   M. Korica, D. Nicolini, and B. Johnson, "In Search of 'Managerial Work': Past, Present and Future of an Analytical Category," *Int. J. Manag. Rev.*, 2017, doi: 10.1111/ijmr.12090.

[7]   H. Mintzberg, "Managerial Work: Analysis from Observation," *Manage. Sci.*, 1971, doi: 10.1287/mnsc.18.2.b97.

[8]   W. M. Foster, J. S. Hassard, J. Morris, and J. Wolfram Cox, "The changing nature of managerial work: The effects of corporate restructuring on management jobs and careers," *Hum. Relations*, 2019, doi: 10.1177/0018726719828439.

[9]   I. Bouty and C. Drucker-Godard, "Managerial work and coordination: A practice-based approach onboard a racing sailboat," *Hum. Relations*, 2019, doi: 10.1177/0018726718773854.

[10]   L. Dellve and A. Eriksson, "Health-promoting managerial work: A theoretical framework for a leadership program that supports knowledge and capability to craft sustainable work practices in daily practice and during organizational change," *Societies*, 2017, doi: 10.3390/soc7020012.

CHAPTER 12

SUPPORTING OTHERS THROUGH THE CHANGE: EMPOWERING RESILIENCE AND ADAPTATION

Ms. Namrita Ahluwallia, Assistant Professor,
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India,
Email Id-namrita.ahluwalia@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

One of the most important aspects of successfully managing changes and developing resilience is supporting one another during change. Uncertainty, stress, and resistance are common during times of change. In these situations, offering assistance can stimulate teamwork, build trust, and create a sense of stability. Through attentive listening, empathy, and unrestricted conversation, support can be provided. People can encourage, reassure, and provide useful aid by acknowledging and recognizing each other's worries. This collaborative strategy fosters a welcoming and inclusive environment that enables people to adapt, develop, and flourish in times of change.

KEYWORDS:

Change, Managing, People, Stability, Transition.

INTRODUCTION

Leaders must be aware of how others are reacting to change, comprehend what they may be going through, and be aware of what they can do to help people who are weak, nervous, or uncertain about their capacity to deal. Regardless of whether they see it as an opportunity or a threat, this chapter discusses how organisational members experience change. It investigates how a person's psychological response to change develops throughout a number of stages. It also takes into account how those in charge of the change may plan and carry out the change in a way that will maximise benefits and reduce costs for the organisation as a whole as well as for specific organisational members by taking into account how people react to change. Technology, structures, systems, and necessary competencies are examples of contextual or situational elements that are involved in organisational change[1]-[4]. This is commonly known, but it also requires a number of personal changes for everyone who is impacted. According to Bridges, while many managers are knowledgeable about the mechanics of change, they frequently lack awareness of the dynamics of the transition.Personal transitions are crucial because, despite the fact that some situational variables can be changed rapidly, the new organisational structures might not function as intended until the people involved let go of how things used to be and adapt to the new situation. According to Bridges, while discussing the variables that may prevent change from being implemented successfully. It isn't the changes that do you in, it's the transitions.

Both incremental and discontinuous changes can be experienced by individuals, just like they can by organisations. Some alterations take time, like ageing. There are very few abrupt challenges to people's presumptions about how they relate to the world around them in this process of steady incremental transformation. However, not all types of change follow this pattern. An unexpected merger and the revelation that important employees will need to reapply for their employment in the new organisation will leave individuals affected with many uncertainties about their future. This is an illustration of a shift that poses a significant threat to someone's assumptive world. According to Parkes, this assumed world is the only one of which we are aware. Everything we know or believe to know is included. It has an impact on how we interpret the past, how we anticipate the future, how we make decisions,

and how we see people. Whether or not these changes are viewed as gains or losses, any or all of these may need to change as a result of an organisational transformation.

Changes are seen as personal transitions when they have long-lasting impacts, occur over a brief period of time, and impact sizable portions of the assumed world. The elevation of a team member to team leader may be seen by those in charge of the transition as an easy and speedily completed organisational move. The personal shift brought on by this transformation may, however, be a longer one from the perspective of the person who gets promoted. The newly promoted team leader might find it difficult to let go of their previous position as a team member, including the intimate friendships this role entailed with some coworkers and the distanced, professional relationships this role entailed with others. The newly promoted team leader could feel awkward in the new position and confused of how to interact with others, particularly with subordinates who were once both coworkers and close friends. Finding a management style that works may take some time and much experimentation. In some situations, the person may be so dissatisfied with the new position that they may give up the fight and quit, leaving the change manager in charge of hiring a replacement team leader[5]–[8].

Another example of a personal transition is losing your job, such as through redundancy or early retirement. According to Parkes losing a job robs a person of their place of employment, their coworkers' company, and their income. Additionally, it eliminates a dependable source of identity, self-worth, and sense of direction. New presumptions regarding daily routines and revenue sources, for instance, will be necessary as a result of this development. It could also have an impact on the person's confidence in their ability to work hard and make a living. An individual will initiate a cycle of adjustments in response to this kind of disturbance to their presumptive reality in order to establish a new match between themselves and the altered environment. Due to the models of the world as it is and as it could be present in a person's assumptive reality, even the loss of a desired but unacquired employment can be tough to deal with. Promotion candidates for managerial positions visualize the world they want to build. The vivid idea of their cozy new office, difficult duties, and respected subordinates aids them in a sort of anticipatory socialization. Giving up these hopes and illusions could be almost as difficult as giving up real world items. Therefore, those who are not promoted may truly lose something significant and may need to adjust their expectations for the future.

According to Marks, discontinuous transitions are now commonplace in many workplaces. These transitions include an acquisition, followed by a downsizing, a restructuring, a change in strategy, a subsequent restructuring, another wave of downsizing, and so on. He contends that stressful situations have cumulative impacts and that continuing change has increasing costs. He quotes O'Toole, who observes that resistance is to be expected and that prolonged discontinuous change is not a natural state of life. When he continues by making the case that the phenomenon of resistance to change is more accurately a resistance to losing something of value to the person loss of the known and tried in the face of being asked, if not forced, to move into the unknown and untried he is echoing Burke [9], [10].

The Process of Personal Transition

The end of one thing and the start of another are both components of organisational change. A new organisational structure, a more automated production process, changed operating procedures, the merger of two units, the closing of a facility, a redundancy programme, job transfers, a new project, or a promotion are a few examples of what it might include. Even though these modifications may be properly planned and implemented on a specific date, it may take some time for people affected to adjust to their new situation. Managers must learn

to comprehend how people react to change. They must be aware of the progression of the transition process and the kinds of behaviours they can adopt to promote adaption.

A Model of Change as a Personal Transition

The model shown below is based on Bridges' work. It views a person's transition as starting with an end and progressing to a new beginning via a neutral zone (Figure 1). These three phases are not distinct stages with distinct borders separating them. A person may be in more than one phase at once, and phases might overlap. According to Bridges, the passage through a transition is indicated by a shift in one phase's dominance as it gives way to another.Endings entail letting go of the past circumstance and the associated sense of self. Before anybody can fully commit to a new position or purpose, the previous role or purpose must be let go by everyone concerned. For instance, as mentioned above, a promotion necessitates relinquishing the role of group member and internalizing the new role of group leader, particularly when it occurs within the same work group. Lewin's theory is referenced by Fink et al., who contend that every human system contains both factors that promote progress and forces that maintain the status quo. Although these factors seem to conflict with one another, the ratio of expansion to upkeep is always changing. Endings are frequently linked to a strength of maintenance forces that shows itself as resistance to change and a refusal to let go.
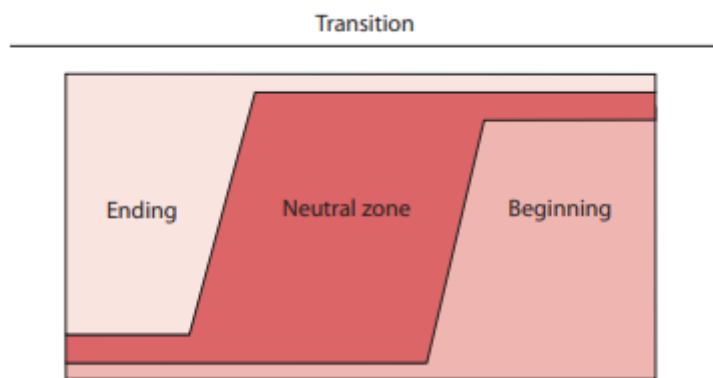

Figure 1: Represting the Bridges' Model of Transition [Research Gate.Net].

The interim state is the neutral region. It entails an acceptance of the necessity for change and a lack of clarity regarding the characteristics of end states that are more desirable. Although it is a time of confusion, self-doubt, and anxiety, it may also be a time of development and innovation during which new opportunities are discovered. However, there is a chance that people will seek for finality and closure too soon because they feel uncomfortable with the uncertainty and confusion that come with this time of change. As a result, individuals can seize the first opportunity that seems to hold the promise of a more agreeable situation, blocking out the chance to engage in a creative quest for better options.Beginnings entail reorienting to a new environment and creating a new identity. The forces of growth initially prevail, but as the new circumstance becomes more clearly defined and a new identity is internalized, these eventually become again balanced with the forces of maintenance.

The Stages of Psychological Reaction

People who are undergoing transition go through a range of emotional and cognitive states. The cycle of generally predictable phases that transitions typically go through is outlined below. This is true of all changes, both desired and unwanted, voluntary and imposed. It is usually believed that, in each circumstance, the person going through the transition must go through all the stages in order for the transition to be successful. Individuals and managers can benefit from understanding this process.From an older version that first appeared in

Transitions: Understanding and Managing Personal Change by Adams et al., Hayes and Hyde generated Figure 2. The cycle shows variations in a person's self-efficacy and belief in their capacity to exert control over the circumstance. Below is a discussion of the seven transitional stages seen in Figure 2.
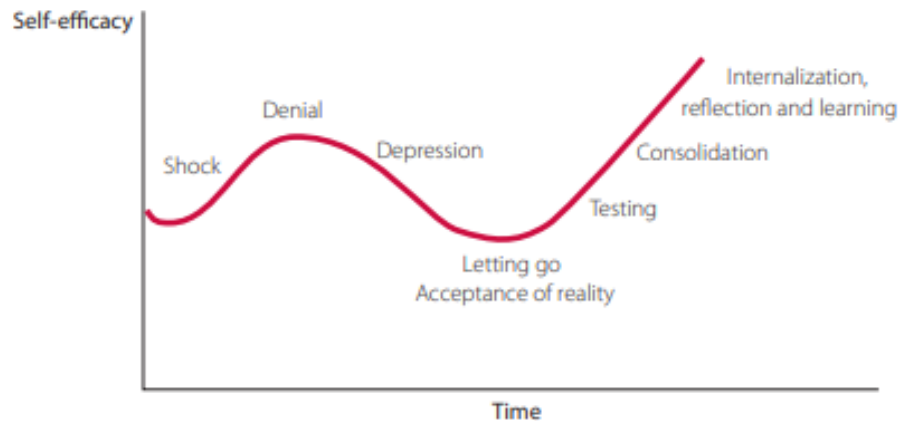

Figure 2: Represting the overview about Transition Phases[Research Gate.Net].

Awareness

People frequently describe the first stage of a transition as being shocking when they have little advance notice of the changes. Depending on how important the change is to them, they could feel paralyzed and overwhelmed. Their capacity to absorb new information, think critically, and plan might be negatively impacted by feelings of fear and panic. As a result, you become immobile. People appear to be operating on autopilot and don't react much to fresh information. While their mood might be more upbeat if the shift is seen as a desirable gain, such as winning the lottery's top prize, they might still feel paralyzed and find it difficult to make plans or take effective action. When people gradually become aware of impending change, they frequently focus on what they could lose and participate in worry work, which diverts their attention from other issues that might need it. The degree of readiness and desirableness of the shift will affect this phase's severity; unexpected and undesirable transitions will result in higher immobilization.

Denial

A withdrawal from the realities of change is what this stage is distinguished by. Negative changes can be downplayed or dismissed, and focus might be diverted to less significant but more urgent issues. The known and the familiar receive attention and activity, and any perceived challenge to the status quo is dealt with by acting in the same predictable ways. Anxiety can be reduced by clinging to the past and rejecting the need for change. Anyone or anything that threatens this erroneous sense of security is likely to elicit a hostile reaction. At this stage, resistance to change is at its strongest. Euphoria brought on by positive improvements may make people unwilling to think about any potential drawbacks. Denial may occasionally have a purpose if it allows a person to replenish their emotional reserves and helps them accept the need for change.

Depression

A withdrawal from the realities of change is what this stage is distinguished by. Negative changes can be downplayed or dismissed, and focus might be diverted to less significant but more urgent issues. The known and the familiar receive attention and activity, and any perceived challenge to the status quo is dealt with by acting in the same predictable ways. Anxiety can be reduced by clinging to the past and rejecting the need for change. Anyone or

anything that threatens this erroneous sense of security is likely to elicit a hostile reaction. At this stage, resistance to change is at its strongest. Euphoria brought on by positive improvements may make people unwilling to think about any potential drawbacks. Denial may occasionally have a purpose if it allows a person to replenish their emotional reserves and helps them accept the need for change.

Letting Go

Accepting reality as it is is a need of this stage. It suggests a definite letting go of the past. This might be perceived as a little death, and it frequently involves a grieving process. At this stage, it may be helpful to keep in mind that the tide's turn occurs at its lowest ebb.

Testing

Beginning to take place is a more active, inventive, and exploratory involvement in the novel scenario. New behaviours and ways of being are tested. More energy is accessible, but if the new conduct fails, rage and impatience may be quickly stoked. Trial-and-error behaviour or a more active cycle of plan, do, study, act may be used during this stage. This stage progressively gives way to the next as certain patterns that appear to work are discovered.

Consolidation

New ways of being and acting that emerge from the testing process progressively become the new norm. This relates to Bridges' model's initial stage. Although testing and this stage advance together, initially there is frequently more testing and rejecting than testing and consolidating. It entails thinking back on fresh experiences and determining if they provide a solid foundation for moving forward. There may not always be much consolidation. Early attempts at adopting new roles and relationships are unsuccessful, and the person going through the change does not gain anything from the experience. Consolidation entails looking back on the new experience (the result of a test) and using any new information to build on it and guide the selection of future testing events.

Internalization, Reflection and Learning

The transformation is complete when the new behaviour becomes the norm, occurs automatically, and becomes the new normal course of events. In a perfect world, the past has been put behind us and there is little to no 'unfinished business'. Thinking about what all of the action and feeling have really meant is called reflection.At this moment, it is possible to recognised learning and personal development that may help with future transitions.

DISCUSSION

Some Observations on the Stage Model of Transition

The way a change affects each person will vary depending on a variety of factors. These factors include the transition's significance, whether it is seen as a gain or loss, the extent of its influence, the presence of additional transitions occurring at the same time (and the severity of any resulting life crises), personal resiliency, and others. There cannot, thus, be a pattern of response that is totally conventional.

Here are a few potential changes. The general shape of the curve may be skewed one way or the other, and the wave (seen in Figure 2) may be shallower or deeper. For instance, if the change is seen as a welcome opportunity, the person may find it easier to let go of the past; yet, if the change is seen as a threat or a loss, the person may be hesitant to let go and oppose the change as long as they can. The amount of time needed to complete each phase can vary significantly.

The time it takes for organisational members to adjust to a work-related transition can vary, just as some people take longer than others to cope with the loss of a loved one. Although the process is depicted as being strictly linear, humans may regress and move backward through the process. People are able to get trapped at any point during the cycle and stop there. For instance, they can keep downplaying the necessity of change or ignore the brand-new chances presented by it. People respond to situations when there are several transitions in various ways.Some people cope with the transitions one at a time and keep them clearly segregated from one another. Others focus their efforts on one transition to divert attention from another, which is then maintained in denial. In other situations, one significant transition dominates and suffocates the others.

Facilitating Progress Through a Transition

Here, we discuss a few interventions change managers can use to promote other people's transitional growth. Marks suggests that those in charge of the change can intervene in ways that, on the one hand, weaken the forces that encourage people to maintain the status quo and, on the other hand, strengthen the forces for accepting the new situation. This is relevant when talking about ways to aid organisational members in adapting to discontinuous changes like a merger, acquisition, downsizing, or restructuring. He contends that by demonstrating empathy and understanding and letting people know that they are aware that their circumstances are challenging, leaders can undermine factors that uphold the status quo. By energizing those who will be affected by the change, getting them excited about potential benefits that may be available after the change, and setting expectations about what will be expected of them in the post-change situation, leaders can help people accept the new reality that may, for example, follow a restructuring, according to Marks.

Giving them a sense of control by allowing them to participate in the creation of the change's component that will directly affect them is one way to do this.In order to prevent people from being stuck at a certain level of the process, leaders frequently need to assist others in moving through the stages of psychological reaction covered above.

The interventions listed below are categorized according to the various phases of the transition process. What is written below is not intended to be a comprehensive list of what the change manager must undertake. It is a list of recommendations based on observations and anecdotal evidence of what has looked to work in practise, augmented by managers' accounts of what they have done that has appeared to help others manage their personal transitions. These recommendations could make you aware of some of the problems that need to be solved and potential courses of action that might be suitable in a certain set of circumstances.

Shock

The shock reaction brought on by the announcement or discovery of a change that affects a person's presumptive world can occasionally be reduced by laying the groundwork and cultivating an environment that is receptive to change by offering timely information and chances to participate in pertinent decision-making. If this is not feasible, the change manager may think about alternative methods of making the change public.

Consolidation

Consolidation can be facilitated by Examining performance and learning, Achievement should be recognised and rewarded, and people should be encouraged to help others and share their experiences. People should also be assisted in building on their triumphs and publicizing them.

Reflecting, Learning and Internalization

Facilitating reflection, learning, and internalization can be done in a number of ways, including: asking them questions, leading review workshops, etc.; conducting formal post-implementation evaluations; and encouraging individuals to share their experiences and tell tales.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it is crucial to help others through change in order to facilitate smooth transitions and promote resilience. Individuals can help reduce anxiety, foster trust, and empower people to manage and adjust to new circumstances by offering empathy, communication, and resources. A supportive environment must be created by actively listening, acknowledging worries, and providing advice and aid. We can encourage resilience, promote growth, and ensure a more seamless transition for everyone involved by cooperating and acknowledging the specific difficulties each individual may encounter throughout change.

REFERENCES:

[1]   N. Beech, J. Gold, and S. Beech, "Military lives: coaching transitions," *Eur. J. Train. Dev.*, 2017, doi: 10.1108/EJTD-02-2017-0010.

[2]   D. Jindal-Snape and D. J. Miller, "A challenge of living? Understanding the psycho-social processes of the child during primary-secondary transition through resilience and self-esteem theories," *Educ. Psychol. Rev.*, 2008, doi: 10.1007/s10648-008-9074-7.

[3]   C. Harvey *et al.*, "Developing a community-based nursing and midwifery career pathway – A narrative systematic review," *PLoS One*, 2019, doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0211160.

[4]   V. Slee and J. F. Allan, "Purposeful outdoor learning empowers children to deal with school transitions," *Sports*, 2019, doi: 10.3390/sports7060134.

[5]   N. Worth, "Understanding youth transition as 'Becoming': Identity, time and futurity," *Geoforum*, 2009, doi: 10.1016/j.geoforum.2009.07.007.

[6]   X. Zhang, C. L. Clarke, and S. J. Rhynas, "What is the meaning of filial piety for people with dementia and their family caregivers in China under the current social transitions? An interpretative phenomenological analysis," *Dementia*, 2019, doi: 10.1177/1471301217753775.

[7]   D. C. Benton, "A spiral of transitions leading to broader influence and action," *Nursing Administration Quarterly*. 2017. doi: 10.1097/NAQ.0000000000000236.

[8]   K. Bell, "Green Economy or Living Well? Assessing divergent paradigms for equitable eco-social transition in South Korea and Bolivia," *J. Polit. Ecol.*, 2016, doi: 10.2458/v23i1.20180.

[9]   S. J. Mallaby, G. Price, and K. Hofmeyr, "The transition to general management in South Africa," *SA J. Hum. Resour. Manag.*, 2017, doi: 10.4102/sajhrm.v15i0.846.

[10]   F. Ilmain, T. Tanaka, and E. Kokufuta, "Volume transition in a gel driven by hydrogen bonding," *Nature*, 1991, doi: 10.1038/349400a0.

CHAPTER 13

SHAPING IMPLEMENTATION STRATEGIES: CRAFTING THE PATH TO SUCCESSFUL CHANGE

Ms. Namrita Ahluwallia, Assistant Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-namrita.ahluwalia@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

The process of developing implementation strategies is essential to attaining successful results and promoting organisational change. Implementation strategies entail creating a methodical and organized plan to carry out initiatives successfully. The process necessitates carefully taking into account a number of variables, such as organisational goals, resources at hand, stakeholder engagement, and potential difficulties. Leaders may guarantee that change projects are carried out smoothly and effectively by matching implementation techniques with the overarching vision and objectives. This entails establishing precise deadlines, realistic time frames, and responsibility distribution among individuals or teams. Strategies should also include tools for tracking development, assessing outcomes, and making required adjustments as they go. Organisations may improve their capacity for change, increase the likelihood of success, and promote sustainable transformations by carefully establishing implementation strategies and incorporating key stakeholders.

KEYWORDS:

Approach, Change, Organizations, Time, Variables.

INTRODUCTION

Sometimes change agents fail to devote enough time to creating a change plan that will be effective for their objectives. If they have a track record of successfully implementing change, they might believe that what has in the past will continue to work in the current circumstance. Perhaps this is not the case. An historical overview of change strategies, together with the guiding principles and presumptions, opens this chapter. Some of the situational factors that must be taken into account when forming a change strategy are discussed after examining the advantages and disadvantages of three commonly employed ways to managing change.The chapter's conclusion synthesizes these concepts and offers a contingency model that managers may use to decide which change implementation strategy will be most successful[1]–[4].

A Historical Overview of Change Strategies

In the first half of the 20th century, a Tayloristic top-down search for efficiencies predominated as the primary change strategy. Experts, such as seasoned managers and methods engineers, applied their practical knowledge and scientific principles to analyse issues and find solutions, which they then implemented/imposed with little, if any, input from others. Their primary area of expertise was technostructural issues, and the adjustments they made ranged from new work practises and job redesign to company-wide production systems.A new approach to managing change, known as organisation development (OD), based on these values, was created in the late 1930s and early 1940s as a result of a series of studies on autocratic and democratic leadership that suggested that involvement and participation led to better outcomes. According to Burnes and Cooke, proponents of OD believed that a more bottom-up participatory approach was the answer because bureaucracy and autocratic top-down administration were choking the life out of organisations.

Sensitivity training, also known as T-groups, was widely utilised in the 1960s to increase managers' self-awareness and build their interpersonal skills so they could collaborate more successfully with others to solve problems. This early school of organisational development quickly gave way to participatory management techniques like action research and others.Most early OD interventions were small-scale and localized, guided by the notion that change is most effective when it involves participation and occurs at the group level. However, as time went on, more large-scale OD change initiatives, such as total quality management (TQM), started to develop. This, according to Burnes, is due to the realization that more localized change initiatives were frequently hampered by divisional and corporate hierarchies, as well as large-scale production and process technology. As a result, while human processes continued to take Centre stage, group learning started to give way to organisational learning[5]–[8].

A number of factors, including increases in the price of oil and other commodities, the development of new technologies, and the rise of low-cost competitors with headquarters in emerging economies, started to disrupt the comparatively stable economic environment that had existed following the end of the Second World War in the last quarter of the 20th century. Organisations now have to respond swiftly to changes in the external environment as a result of these disruptions. This made organization-wide transformational tactics more necessary than localized, generally slow, incremental change strategies. Survival became a need. According to French and Bell's description of how this shift affected the values of those driving change, top managers now place a greater emphasis on the bottom line and r the price of stock, resulting in some executives having a slash and burn mentality. Burnes and Cooke cite this passage as evidence.

However, despite the fact that top-down, organization-wide imposed change techniques gained importance once more, some organisations continued to choose small-scale incremental change, particularly, but not solely, when localized change was required. Burnes and Cooke contend that while some critics had predicted OD's collapse, it is now experiencing a revival in the twenty-first century. While some scholars are focusing on different theoretical stances like social constructionism, which examines the socially created nature of reality, and complexity theories, which consider how order, structure, and pattern arise from extremely complicated, seemingly chaotic systems, a new generation of scholars has reevaluated Kurt Lewin's work and acknowledged the significance of human processes. These trends are motivating practitioners to create novel OD strategies, such as appreciative inquiry, which emphasize conversation between individuals, groups, and other constituencies and tackle problems at both the subsystem and systemic levels[9]-[11].

Three Approaches to Managing Approach

Beer, a renowned US consultant and professor at Harvard Business School, conducted research on the change strategies employed by companies. Beer identified two well-proven approaches, organisation development and economics, but contends that a third approach that combines the best of both is the most effective approach. Economic strategies emphasise the pursuit of economic value by forceful, top-down activity focused on results. These activities entail imposing technical fixes on the issues that are thought to be undermining organisational effectiveness. including solutions come in a variety of forms, including as restructuring, reengineering, drives for efficiency, and layoffs. To assist top management in implementing the changes throughout the organisation, huge teams of consultants are frequently hired. As in the example of Asda mentioned above, a new CEO or other top executive may occasionally be chosen to serve as a turnaround manager.

There are numerous instances where employing economic techniques has increased shareholder returns. Many people think they had a significant role in Lord Hanson and his

colleagues' success at Hanson Trust, where the strategy was to buy underperforming assets and turn them around while taking whatever steps were required to reform the company, including huge layoffs. However, economic tactics have come under fire for frequently destroying personal devotion. As a result, even if they might produce benefits immediately, they might not ensure success over the long term. Organisational development (OD) plans put a lot of effort into developing the skills needed to maintain performance excellence and competitive advantage. Beer and others list the following as examples of these abilities Cooperation and teamwork. Dedication and trust. Technical and leadership competence. Open communications. Instead of using financial rewards as a change agent, OD techniques place a major emphasis on the value of a common purpose, a strong culture, involvement, and bottom-up change. This strategy can increase shareholder value, but it has drawn criticism for being too indirect and taking too long, particularly when change is urgently needed.

While economic and organisational development (OD) strategies can both result in gains, according to Beer, neither is as effective as one that blends top-down, results-driven change with the more gradual building of organisational capabilities. With the advantage of hindsight, one might argue that Beer's combined method was adopted by the BBC and that the change there was successful because it was executed progressively rather than simultaneously. Change at the BBC, however, was not envisioned as a coordinated effort. This came about as a result of Dyke realising the importance of addressing problems that his predecessor had overlooked. The true problem for people in charge of change is to carry out multiple strategies at once. According to Beer, change strategies that can provide sustained high performance need to be able to:

1. The creation of an effective leadership team that can speak with one voice and tell a cogent story about why and what kind of change is required, as well as the formulation of a compelling and balanced business and organisational growth strategy, are required. Key stakeholders are more likely to support this narrative when it offers an inspiring vision of the ideal future, along with an explanation of the organisational capabilities needed to realize and maintain this vision. This vision should include a business direction that will result in the achievement of key results.

2. Managing important stakeholders to buy time to build organisational capability: This frequently, but not always, involves controlling shareholder expectations. Making overly ambitious promises to shareholders about achieving financial results can encourage change managers to pursue short-term cost-cutting tactics rather than longer-term plans intended to build the capacity needed to produce revenue or achieve other outcomes necessary to sustain organisational success.

3. The implementation of a sociotechnical strategy that involves the training of managers farther down the line: When strictly regulated change projects are implemented throughout an organisation, they frequently concentrate on enhancing the technical system while neglecting the interaction between the technical and social systems. When a programmatic change plan like this one doesn't: take into account the specifics of the scenario, it can lead to issues. Give local managers the chance to reflect on and draw lessons from their experience managing change. Sufficiently include local managers in a way that enables them to take genuine responsibility for pushing the organization forward.

Beer makes the case that top-down initiatives undercut one of the critical skills required for long-term success down the line leaders who can guide an organisational learning process. In order to empower organisational members to interact with senior managers and shape the change process encourage the development of down the line leaders; he advocates managing corporate change on a unit-by-unit basis with a high level of local employee involvement.

DISCUSSION

Top Management's Reluctance to Adopt a Combined Approach

According to Beer's research, CEOs and the people on their top teams frequently adopt a mentality that encourages a top-down focus on performance. There is discussion of this mindset's three main facets.

The Importance Given to Shareholder Interests

In comparison to employees and even customers, shareholders now have a significant amount of authority. Analysts, the larger financial community, and board members push CEOs for reform as a result of low share prices. Those who don't reply run the risk of being let go. The leadership team is therefore concentrated on the requirement to maximise economic value. According to Guerrera and widely regarded as the father of the shareholder value movement Jack Welch is now criticizing this strategy. He argues that analysts' and management' heavy emphasis on quarterly profits and share price increases is a dumb idea and that greater attention should be paid to enhancing a company's long-term value.

Shareholder value ought to be viewed as an outcome rather than a goal. He continues by arguing that employees, clients, and products all require more consideration. However, a lot of executives still seem to place a high focus on enhancing shareholder value in the short term. Their focus on shareholder interests is consistent with Schein's observation that top executives and their direct reports frequently perceive themselves as lone, beleaguered warriors defending the organisation in a hostile business climate. To stay informed about what is happening within the organisation, they create complex management information systems, and they enact control systems to limit costs. Instead,then seeing individuals as human assets, they see them as resources and costs.

The idea that performance in an organisation is primarily determined by its technological system rather than its social structure

Change management techniques such as business process re-engineering, TQM, and performance management are frequently seen as technical solutions because they are intended to improve the organisation as a technical system. Beer expands on this thesis by arguing that new human resource management initiatives, like performance reviews, succession planning, and training initiatives, should be implemented. They are put into place with little consideration for how they might impact roles, responsibilities, relationships, and the authority, status, self-esteem, and security of individuals and groups throughout the organisation. Neglect like this can damage relationships and communication.

The Assumption that There is Little to be Gained from Dialogue with Employees

Top teams frequently rely too heavily on top-down communication when they are Organising and carrying out transformative change. Beer describes how adopting a drive strategy can influence the CEO and the executive team's ideas and feelings. They remove themselves from employees in order to avoid the tension created by the conflict between the need to get commitment to change and the opposites of forceful, top-down action to fire staff and sell enterprises. They start to believe that the employees are contributing to the issue.

Situational Variables that Can Shape an Implementation Strategy

An integrated drive and development approach was what Archie Norman at Asda used. The company was on the verge of bankruptcy when he came, and it was urgently necessary to both create cash to preserve the company's short-term survival and reform the company in ways that would ensure its long-term prosperity. He used a tough approach to managing change; at times, he was highly directive, which led to many individuals quitting, but he also

urged employees of all ranks to get involved in the process of modernizing the company. Norman went above and beyond to get other people involved and make sure that bosses in the future interacted with their subordinates. He also combined thorough planning with a readiness to wait for the specifics of the transformation approach to take shape over time.

 Designing implementation techniques based on Beer's third way is not as easy as it may seem. Eriksson and Sundgren came to the conclusion after examining the merger of the Swedish pharmaceutical business Astra AB with the British company Zeneca that, while there are advantages to merging economic and OD theories, the optimal ratio may differ from instance to case. Successful change strategies, according to Kotter and Schlesinger, are those that are internally consistent and compatible with important situational variables. In reality, many managers change how they handle change at various points in the process. Some may elect, for instance, to exclude others from the first diagnostic phase, but they may decide to include more individuals in the latter stages of problem description and the specification of a more ideal future state. They might next proceed to include a lot more people in the specifics of carrying out the modification plan.

The following section will pay more attention to the variables that could cause a change in strategy over time.When the focal unit work group, department, or organisation is embedded in a stable environment, incremental adjustment may be an effective change strategy. However, when the environment is unstable and the organisation or other focal unit must deal with external discontinuities, a more transformational strategy is required. The more change managers may need to use a directive strategy is when there are significant short-term threats to the organisation from the status quo. Participation and involvement require time, which might not be available if a change is urgently needed. If there is little support for the change, the reform's proponents should think about if a more collaborative approach could help lessen resistance. If this is doubtful, a more top-down forceful approach may need to be taken into account. The level of other stakeholders' faith in the change-leaders: The more other stakeholders trust the change-leaders, the more likely it is that they will be willing to follow their lead.

 A more directive change strategy may be effective when there is a lack of trust, there is little time, and those leading the change have more power than those who will be affected by it. However, when the change is not urgent and the balance of power is ambiguous, a more collaborative strategy may help to increase trust. Clarity of desired future state. Emergent changes are those where the need for change is acknowledged but it is challenging to predict what a more desirable future state will look like. Blueprint changes are those where the desired end state can be clearly articulated from the beginning. When faced with a blueprint-type modification, it could be simpler to adopt a more directive approach to implementation depending on other variables, such as the power dynamic. A collaborative incremental adjustment method may be most effective when there is a need for change but uncertainty about what needs to change or what a better future might look like. Strategies for incremental change frequently entail iterative cycles of speculating about what needs to be done, formulating a plan for getting it done, acting on that plan, and then reflecting on the results. The success of this process increases when individuals driving the change solicit advice and criticism from others.

The degree to which change managers have the information necessary for planning and enacting the change managers will need to adopt a collaborative approach and solicit feedback from others more when they anticipate needing information from others to help plan and implement the change, such as when there is little clarity about what a desirable end state would look like. The extent to which change managers must rely on the dedication and drive of others to carry out the plan: Change managers must pay more attention to gaining the support and commitment of individuals they must rely on the more they are relying on the

drive and commitment of others to participate in discretionary behaviours to make the change plan succeed. To do this, one strategy is to take a more team-oriented stance. According to research by Burnes and Jackson, a change project has a better chance of succeeding when the values of those driving it are compatible with those it will affect. Because it is challenging to change people's values in the near term, individuals enacting the change may believe that the only option to go forward is to take a more directive approach when values are out of alignment.

Kotter and Schlesinger and Balogun and Hailey both hold that a change strategy's focus may change over time. For instance, ensuring the organization's survival can be the crucial demand in the short term. It can be essential to adopt a strict top-down, results-driven strategy that involves drastic cuts and closures in order to achieve this, or it might be necessary to reframe the organization's mission. Longer term, the emphasis may shift to a more incremental approach to fine-tuning, and continual improvement may emerge as the primary issue. This shift in emphasis can entail moving from a directive to a more cooperative method of execution.If a change is divvy up into smaller parts and speedy action is needed, an appropriate strategy might be to instruct a portion of the organisation to adopt a small-scale experiment before deciding how to move forward. If it is determined to move forward, commitment might be more significant than speed.

Coordination may become an issue if a number of distinct and incompatible change efforts start to arise at various places within the organisation. As a result, at this stage, a less directive approach may be used. Even if many of the efforts come from lower levels of the organisation, coordination from the top may occasionally be a crucial component of a successful change strategy. Regardless of the overarching approach people in charge of the change choose to take, they might want to think about where the change should start. The advantage of first limiting a modification to a pilot site is covered by Balogun and Hailey. A pilot site could be just one unit or a brand-new location. For the early trial stage of the transformation at Asda, three current stores were chosen. An alternative strategy would be to test the change at a different location with fresh personnel. Initiatives that would face resistance elsewhere due to deeply rooted conventional attitudes and practices can be tested successfully on new settings.

A Contingency Model

According to Kotter and Schlesinger, one of the biggest errors change agents make is that they frequently rely on a single strategy for enacting change, regardless of the circumstance. They refer to the following types of managers the autocrat whose only strategy is to coerce people the people-oriented manager who usually tries to involve and support people the cynical manager who always tries to manipulate others the intellectual manager who relies too heavily on education as an influence strategy and the lawyer-type boss who typically tries to negotiate and bargain.Leaders can use a variety of alternative change management techniques. As we saw above, Beer talks about the benefits of both economic and OD tactics and claims that combining both will frequently result in the highest success. The contingency method is promoted by Dunphy and Stace, who provide a model to assist decision-making that combines the two aspects of change type and change mode collaborative and coercive. An alternative model built on environmental turbulence, size of change, and change pace is presented by Burnes.The three factors that make up the model shown in Figure 1 are the amount of time available for the change, the style of change incremental or discontinuous, and the degree of support for the change.

Incremental Change Strategies

An incremental collaborative change strategy that can be effective when the change target organisation, department, or work group is generally in alignment with its environment but

still needs to make a small adjustment, when the need to implement the change is not urgent so there is time to involve others, and when important stakeholders acknowledge and accept the need for change. Another incremental strategy that can be effective even when there is an urgent need for change and not enough time to involve those who will be impacted, provided that charismatic leaders can effectively convey a compelling vision and that others have faith in them to follow through on their promises.
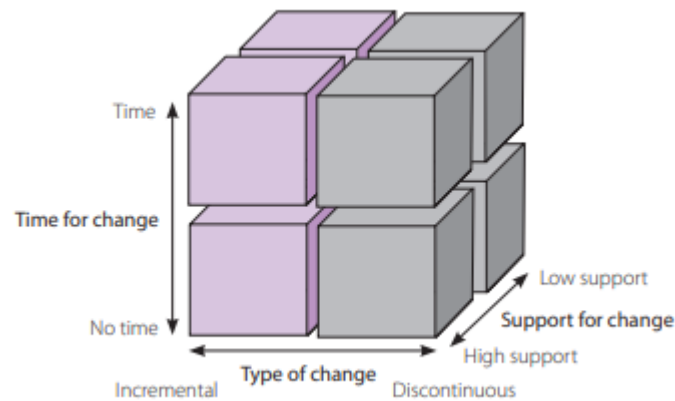
Figure 1: AThree-Dimensional Model to Aid Choice of Change Strategy [Science Direct].

A directive strategy used to coerce people into accepting the change by using the leaders' rightful authority. When there is a need for gradual change, there is no urgent need for immediate change, but leaders believe it will be challenging to garner enough support for the change, they may find success with this technique. Those in charge of the change can avoid imposing their authority in a hasty, heavy-handed manner because the need for change is not urgent and time is on their side. However, this tactic will only be effective if significant stakeholders eventually come to accept the leaders' authority. If not, individuals in charge of the change might have to take a more coercive stance and use their influence to impose the change. A top-down push technique that may be employed when gradual modification is urgently required but major stakeholders are opposed to the change. The power dynamics between those who wish to enforce the change and those who are opposed will determine how effective this coercive strategy is.
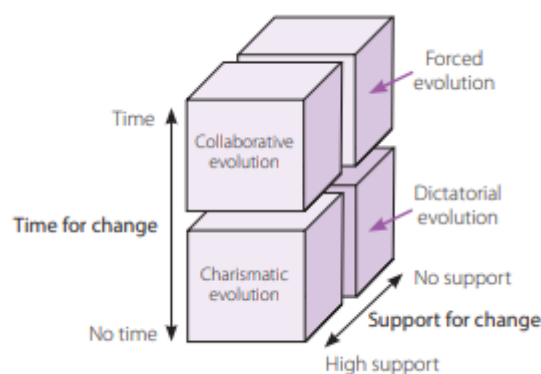
Figure 2: Represting the Incremental Change Strategies[Science Direct].

Transformational Change Strategies

Four change tactics are shown in Figure 2 that may work well when a transformational shift is required. Organisations can occasionally foresee the need for transformational change in enough time to be able to adopt a collaborative transformational change strategy, even in

challenging times, like the years following the 2008 credit crunch. However, this strategy won't work unless change recipients acknowledge and accept the necessity for change. If leaders can communicate a compelling vision and if employees have faith in them to deliver the desired results, they may still be able to win their support for the change when there is an immediate need for transformational change and not enough time to involve employees. Leaders may decide that a collaborative strategy is unlikely to be effective and a more directive approach is necessary when they foresee the need for transformative change but do not have the backing of key stakeholders.

However, similar to the forced evolution outlined above, they can avoid taking a hasty, intrusive approach because the need for change is not urgent. However, the success of this technique depends on the eventual acceptance and respect of the leaders' authority by important stakeholders. Major restructuring and mergers frequently go against the long-standing interests of important stakeholders. People who will be affected by the change are unlikely to support it if they see few benefits or fear negative results. In such situations, the change agents may believe that their only choice is to employ a tactic that involves either implicit or overt coercion. Change agents must be aware of the long-term repercussions of using forceful change tactics. In order to ensure the organization's survival in the short term, they could feel as though they have no choice but to impose change. However, if they want to ensure the organization's long-term profitability, they may need to change their strategy at some time.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, developing implementation strategies is essential for getting the results you want from organisational transformation. Leaders can more successfully handle the complexity of change by carefully establishing and carrying out well-structured strategies. A successful implementation process is facilitated by clear objectives, achievable deadlines, and delegated duties. Regular review and monitoring enable required adjustments and guarantee progress towards targeted outcomes. Throughout the process, involving important stakeholders fosters ownership of the change and improves collaboration. Organisations can boost their chances of effective and long-lasting transitions by giving strategic implementation priority.

REFERENCES:

[1]   K. C. Fraser, "The Oxford Handbook of Names and Naming," *Ref. Rev.*, 2018, doi: 10.1108/rr-06-2018-0097.

[2]   F. Miller and O. Dun, "Resettlement and the environment in Vietnam: Implications for climate change adaptation planning," *Asia Pac. Viewp.*, 2019, doi: 10.1111/apv.12228.

[3]   C. Kwak and Y. Ko, "Historical overview of community health practitioners in Korea," *Public Health Nurs.*, 2015, doi: 10.1111/phn.12143.

[4]   K. Telling and M. Serapioni, "The rise and change of the competence strategy: Reflections on twenty-five years of skills policies in the EU," *Eur. Educ. Res. J.*, 2019, doi: 10.1177/1474904119840558.

[5]   R. J. Marshak, "Theory-Based Practice," *J. Appl. Behav. Sci.*, 2020, doi: 10.1177/0021886320912948.

[6]   J. Trullen and J. M. Bartunek, "What a design approach offers to organization development," *J. Appl. Behav. Sci.*, 2007, doi: 10.1177/0021886306297549.

[7]   S. B. Parumasur, "The effect of organisational context on organisational development ({OD}) interventions," *{SA} J. Ind. Psychol.*, 2012.

[8] A. H. Church, "The art and science of evaluating organization development interventions," *OD Pract.*, 2017.

[9] A. M. Chodara, A. Wattiaux, and C. M. Bartels, "Managing Cardiovascular Disease Risk in Rheumatoid Arthritis: Clinical Updates and Three Strategic Approaches," *Current Rheumatology Reports*. 2017. doi: 10.1007/s11926-017-0643-y.

[10] L. Hylving and B. Bygstad, "Nuanced Responses to Enterprise Architecture Management: Loyalty, Voice, and Exit," *J. Manag. Inf. Syst.*, 2019, doi: 10.1080/07421222.2018.1550549.

[11] S. Farber *et al.*, "Linking ecology and economics for ecosystem management," *BioScience*. 2006. doi: 10.1641/0006-3568(2006)056[0121:LEAEFE]2.0.CO;2.

CHAPTER 14

DEVELOPING A CHANGE PLAN: CHARTING THE COURSE FOR TRANSFORMATION

Ms.Namrita Ahluwallia, Assistant Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-namrita.ahluwalia@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Organizations must be flexible and adaptable to navigate and manage change effectively. To create a successful change strategy, organizations must identify the need for change, define the scope, and identify specific objectives. This involves key stakeholders, thorough investigation of potential risks, consequences, and obstacles, and involving relevant specialists and stakeholders. A thorough implementation plan is essential, outlines steps, deadlines, and materials needed for successful implementation. A clear communication strategy is crucial for including and educating stakeholders, while a welcoming culture is essential for effective change management. Regular monitoring and evaluation are crucial for success, and continuous learning and progress are essential for navigating change challenges.

KEYWORDS:

Change, Evaluation, State, Transition, Time.

INTRODUCTION

When creating a change plan, one must consider what must happen in order to move a change target work group, department, or organization towards a desired end state.In cases when the desired outcome is known in advance, it might be useful to create a blueprint plan that details a variety of factors, including who will lead the change, what needs to be done, a timeframe for implementation, and the provision of resources at each stage along the way. However, blueprint planning may not be feasible in situations where it is difficult to identify the desired end state in advance, and the change plan will need to be more tentative and flexible. This kind of adaptable strategy must change over time[1], [2].

Planning can occasionally be a distinct, discrete activity, but more frequently, the distinctions between planning, implementation, and diagnosis are hazy. There are a number of planning-related concerns that need to be addressed even when this is the situation and planning is intimately tied to other activities.The formation of high-level plans is the first topic covered in this chapter. After that, it discusses what needs to be done to turn these high-level intentions into detailed plans. Eight tasks are the main focus of attention:

1. Designating a transition coordinator.
2. Determining what must be done.
3. Creating an implementation strategy with precise objectives that can track progress and flag any needs for corrective action
4. Utilizing numerous, dependable leverage factors for change
5. Activities for scheduling.
6. Ensuring that sufficient resources are devoted to the change and that a proper balance is maintained between maintaining the organization's operations and putting the changes into place that are required to get to the desired future state.
7. Putting in place incentives that support experimentation and change.

Especially when the plan calls for consistent change in a number of connected areas, having feedback systems that offer the information necessary to guarantee that the change programme proceeds forward in a coordinated manner is important.The interval between

recognizing a need for change and achieving a desired future condition is referred to as the transition state by Beckhard and Harris. Key stages of this state frequently differ from either the pre-change state or the post-change state in a distinctive way. An organization will go through a time of transition, for instance, if it decides to switch to an enterprise resource planning integrated information system after realizing that its information management has to be improved. There will come a time when the business must continue using the current system while the replacement is being created, set up, and tested. People who will be impacted by the transition will need to continue using the old system during this time while learning how to use the new one and creating the work roles and connections that will need to exist when the new system is operational[3].

It is common for many sorts of change to weaken current management systems and disrupt customary working procedures. According to Nadler, one of the main difficulties managements is currently experiencing is control. Any attempt to manage the shift may be frustrated if earlier management systems are dropped before replacements have been created unless a temporary management system is put in place. 'Transition devices' are necessary, according to Nadler. These include the selection of a transition manager, the creation of a timeline for the changeover between the current state and the desired future state, the allotment of particular transition resources like funds, staff, and time, and the creation of feedback systems to facilitate monitoring and control. These will be taken into account here, along with a few other planning-related difficulties.

Appoint a Transition Manager

Who should be in charge during the transition period is not always clear-cut.Should whoever be in command during the pre-change state remain in charge during the changeover? Should the person who will be in charge after the transition assume management responsibilities or a temporary project manager? According to Beckhard and Harris, there isn't a clear-cut solution to this problem. High degrees of uncertainty and disagreement are frequently present during the transition state, so the person in charge of managing the transition needs the following:

1. Influence to mobilize the assets required to keep the change going. When resources are limited, people in charge of maintaining the old system could be reluctant to give up the staff time and other resources needed to create the new system. The transition manager needs to have the authority and power to control resource allocation.
2. Regard for the current operational leadership and those involved in creating the new system.
3. Capacity to do tasks in a way that inspires dedication and support rather than compliance and resistance.

There could be numerous possibilities for the transition management position, depending on the type of change. It's possible for a senior member of the organization to take charge. There is a chance that a project manager will be hired on a temporary basis. In addition to their existing operating job, the person in control of the pre-change state may also be given responsibility for the transition. It may be possible to form a task force or temporary team. When a team method is used, the team's makeup must be taken into account.It may consist of representatives from the groups impacted by the change, a cross-section of staff from various organizational levels, natural leaders those who command the respect and loyalty of a sizable number of their coworkers, or a group of people who are brought together due to their shared technical expertise[4]–[9].

Avoid Unnecessary Fragmentation

Some of these solutions, like the selection of a temporary project manager, have the drawback of potentially fracturing the change process. According to Clegg and Walsh, many

change processes appear to be created without any consideration for the persuasive reasoning that underpins business process thinking. They relate to software development initiatives that are frequently handled through a number of consecutive phases, such as strategy, feasibility, conceptual design, detailed design, programming, implementation, use, and maintenance. Even when change projects involve fewer steps, they may still be fragmented. Recognition, initial diagnosis, and visioning are carried out by one group, which then transfers responsibility to another group for more in-depth work and implementation. This second group then transfers responsibility to users who must implement the changes. According to Clegg and Walsh, this can result in a number of issues, including:

1. Limited feedback loops.
2. Consequently, limited opportunities to influence and learn from one another.
3. Different people involved at each stage can make different assessments and prioritize different objectives, resulting in confusion, conflict, and waste.

Therefore, while it's crucial to choose a capable individual to manage the transition, it's also crucial to make sure that this individual stays in close contact with other parties involved earlier in the process and the post-transition manager, who will have to deal with the effects of the change[10], [11].

Identify What Needs to be Done

Following the identification of a change target, consideration must be given to the steps necessary to bring about the change.

The Awakishi diagram might be useful in this situation.The Awakishi diagram is an effective tool for inciting actionable thought. Let's say that the modification calls for the closure of a plant in order to reduce costs. Ideas about what needs to be done to accomplish this aim could be generated by an individual. The brainstorm may result in a huge number of problems that need to be solved and can be divided into categories.The primary 'bones' that connect to the skeleton's spine are provided by the most significant categories (see Figure 1).

These include employees, stocks, surplus equipment, and plants that will be shut down.The other tasks that will need to be completed can be determined and prioritized using these bones as guides. What steps must be taken, for instance, in order to decide which factory should be shut down, which equipment should be disposed of, and which employees should be fired?The necessary steps to actually shut down the target plant, dispose of surplus machinery, and coordinate the transfer or termination of surplus employees can then be addressed. Other topics that can be addressed include stakeholder management, communications, and so on.
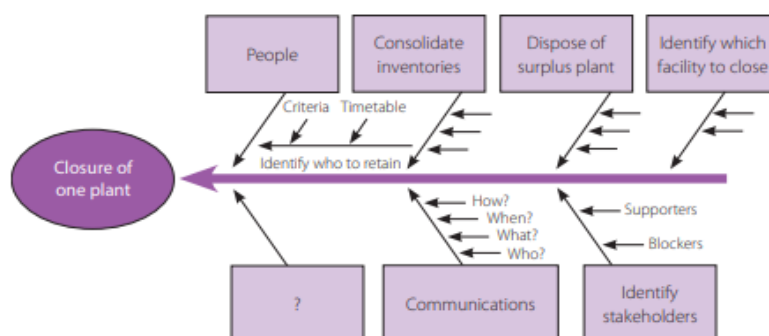

**Figure 1: Using the awakishi diagram as a change tool plant closure
[Fast Voice media. De].**

<div align="center">

DISCUSSION

</div>

Develop an Implementation Plan

Two factors will influence the change plan. Participants' opinions of the suggested change in terms of its desirability and likelihood of happening. Clarity of the intended outcome. Is the change a blueprint change, where the intended outcome is known, or an emergent change, where the intended outcome is still unknown?

Change Participants' Perceptions

Dibella cites four scenarios involving the appeal of the change and the chance that it will occur and explains how these views may influence how a change manager reacts (Figure 2).

<div align="center">

Figure 2: Change Participants' Perceptions of the Appeal and Likelihood of the Change[Fast Voice media. De].

</div>

1. Participants think the shift is a good thing and see it coming. The change manager's job in this situation is to hasten the change. The essential necessity is to create an implementation strategy that outlines crucial activities and deadlines because there won't be any pushback. This will lessen the chance that people engaged would become complacent and forget to do some critical activities because the change is seen as inevitable.
2. Participants are hopeful about the change but doubt it will materialize: In order to empower and motivate others, the change manager must devise strategies that alter people's perspectives and strengthen their belief that the change will be successful. According to Dibella, this can be accomplished by creating a change strategy that prioritizes initially obtaining little victories by taking care of the low-hanging fruit. Insuring early wins will assist establish credibility.
3. Participants believe the change is not desirable yet believe it is unavoidable. This is consistent with the stereotyped circumstance when opposition to change is anticipated. According to Dibella's theory, individuals will work to change the circumstances and lessen its likelihood by lowering their engagement, whether overtly or covertly. Delaying strategies, for instance, could keep the change from happening until it is overshadowed by a crisis or another endeavor that draws focus to something else. Change managers need to concentrate their efforts on rephrasing and improving the change in this situation. It's possible to alter some aspects of the modification to make it more desirable. The change manager will at the very least need to convey an inspiring vision.
4. Participants believe the change is undesirable and unlikely to occur because there isn't a compelling reason for them to take part in it. They might act in ways that put the change manager's credibility to the test and be overtly defiant.

Dibella proposes that the change manager's alternatives include retrenchment, which involves changing the environment to make the change seem more inevitable, or revitalization, which is adapting the change to make it more acceptable. One option for changing the environment is to bring in a group of champions or advocates who perceive the change in a more positive light, or to kick out some of the most stubborn participants.

Clarity of the End State

When the desired end state is known, planning becomes simpler. With a blueprint change, it is typically quite simple to specify the change objective, but occasionally it is not possible to have a precise vision of what the end state will entail. When an organization is losing market share or is not innovating as quickly as its rivals, for example, there may be a need for change, but it may not be immediately clear what has to be done to make things better. It may not be possible to specify in detail what this final state would entail, but there may be a broad objective and a direction for change, such as increasing competitiveness. In this case, change must be seen as an ongoing, iterative process that develops or emerges over time.

The change manager may need to think in terms of creating a number of smaller but reasonably well-defined plans rather than one large plan to achieve a clearly defined end state. The plan for the subsequent step in the process can be firmed up after each phase of the implementation process, as well as the step itself and the direction of the change. Quinn contends that even when change managers do have a vision for where they want the business to go, taking an incremental approach to planning and implementing change can be beneficial. He contends that making small steps, reflecting on them, and building on them can be successful because they:

1. Enhance the quality of the data used to make important decisions.
2. Aid in overcoming the political and personal pressures opposing the change deal with the various lead times and sequencing issues related to change and increase the level of awareness, understanding, and commitment needed to ensure implementation.

Quinn draws the conclusion that, frequently in practice, by the time change plans begin to crystallize, components of them have already been implemented based on his observations of senior managers in Xerox, GM, and IBM. According to him, change managers may create enough momentum and garner enough support for change plans by actively using this type of incremental approach to make them flow towards flexible and successful implementation. While acknowledging the value of preparation, Nadler and Tushman issue a warning against making a rigid commitment to an execution plan. It is expected that some unanticipated possibilities and issues will be found. Early activities will have unintended outcomes, some welcome, some not. They contend that ignoring unexpected possibilities just because they are not in the plan may be considered foolish. Learning and ongoing modification are necessary for planned transformation. It's important to strike a balance between planning and what they call bounded opportunism. However, within certain bounds, being opportunistic and altering plans can be beneficial. Change managers shouldn't feel obligated to respond to every issue, opportunity, or incident because doing so may result in taking actions that are at odds with the change's intended course of action.Seven features of successful transition strategies are listed by Beckhard and Harris. Planning that works is:

1. The planned activities have a clear connection to the change goals and priorities in number one.
2. Task-specific the tasks involved are specifically identified as opposed to being generally generalized.
3. The separate tasks are connected in three ways.
4. Temporal Scheduled events and activities.

5. There are backup plans and methods for responding to unforeseen possibilities and issues.
6. Concurred by top management, other important stakeholders, as necessary.
7. Cost-effectiveness number.
8. Preventing waste.
9. Some of the difficulties discussed below might be added to this list, such as providing sufficient resources and rewards for desirable behaviors.

CONCLUSION

Creating a change plan is an essential task for organizations looking to navigate and manage change successfully. Organizations can improve their chances of successfully implementing change initiatives by adopting a systematic approach that includes identifying the need for change, setting clear objectives, analyzing risks and impacts, developing an implementation plan, fostering a supportive culture, and tracking progress. A well-crafted change plan gives firms a road map for adapting, developing, and thriving in a constantly shifting business environment.Organizations are systems that seek equilibrium, as was previously mentioned. If only one part of the system is altered, forces may be set in motion that aim to realign all the parts and restore the pre-change state. Using a variety of consistent leverage points to effect change is one strategy to prevent this. In order to achieve the desired benefits, it could be required to adjust other system components simultaneously, such as the culture and career management systems, if it is chosen to change the structure of an organization.

REFERENCES:

[1] M. G. Barba, J. R. Robbins, E. J. Hayes, K. K. Valdez-Delgado, C. A. VanFosson, and E. A. Mann-Salinas, "A coordinator's perspective on implementation of an evidence-based burn precepting program in a burn progressive care unit," *J. Burn Care Res.*, 2015.

[2] O. Michail, P. G. Spirakis, and M. Theofilatos, "Brief announcement: Fast approximate counting and leader election in populations," in *Lecture Notes in Computer Science (including subseries Lecture Notes in Artificial Intelligence and Lecture Notes in Bioinformatics)*, 2018. doi: 10.1007/978-3-030-01325-7_7.

[3] M. Zwarteveen, D. Roth, and R. Boelens, "Water rights and legal pluralism: Beyond analysis and recognition," in *Liquid Relations: Contested Water Rights and Legal Complexity*, 2005.

[4] P. Ayris, A. López de San Román, K. Maes, and I. Labastida, "Open Science and its role in universities: A roadmap for cultural change," *Leag. Eur. Res. Univ.*, 2018.

[5] V. Pizzaro, S. Mahenthiran, D. Cademartori, and R. Curci, "The Influence of Insiders and Institutional Owners on the Value, Transparency, and Earnings Quality of Chilean Listed Firms," *SSRN Electron. J.*, 2011, doi: 10.2139/ssrn.982697.

[6] P. Hviid, "Editorial," *Outlines. Crit. Pract. Stud.*, 2017, doi: 10.7146/ocps.v18i1.26259.

[7] N. Michael-Tsabari and D. Wiess, "The Role of Communication in Launching a Succession Process: A Game Theoretic Approach Using Game Theory for Family Business Research," *Fam. Bus. Rev.*, 2015.

[8] J. A. Brush, M. P. Calkins, M. J. Kator, A. Wyatt, and H. Miller, "Creating Home and Building Community II: the Urban Experience," *Long-Term Living*, 2008.

[9] J. Wei, *Essays in Climate Change and Forest Management*. 2009.

[10] Z. Zhu, M. Chen, and C. Yan, "An Efficient Fragmentation Congestion Control Algorithm in Satellite DTN," in *2018 IEEE/CIC International Conference on Communications in China, ICCC 2018*, 2019. doi: 10.1109/ICCChina.2018.8641134.

[11] P. A., P. H., A. M., and M. N., "Management of retained dj stent in an ectopic kidney - A rare case report," *Indian J. Urol.*, 2017.

CHAPTER 15

ACTION RESEARCH: DRIVING CHANGE THROUGH CONTINUOUS LEARNING AND ADAPTATION

Ms. Namrita Ahluwallia, Assistant Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-namrita.ahluwalia@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Action research is a dynamic and inclusive method of study that focuses on resolving practical issues and enhancing practice. It involves a cyclical process of observation, contemplation, planning, and action, with collaboration and active participation of stakeholders. Researchers find problems and discuss them with stakeholders, obtaining a thorough understanding of the issue. They collaborate with practitioners and stakeholders to create and implement action interventions, ensuring timely and efficient results. Data is gathered and analyzed, using techniques like interviews, surveys, and document analysis. Action research includes reflection and evaluation, guiding future advancements. Its relevance and applicability to practice make it a valuable approach. Action research promotes ownership, empowerment, education, and creativity, leading to significant improvements in methods and results. Overall, action research fosters collaboration, learning, and significant results by actively including those impacted by the research.

KEYWORDS:

Action, Change, Learning, Social, Theory.

INTRODUCTION

The fundamental framework for the majority of organizational development interventions is action research. It serves as the foundation for the general process model of change described in Chapter 2 and entails the application of scientific methodologies fact-finding and experimentation to organizational problems.When Lewin realized that social scientists needed to base their theory development on research into real-world issues, he created the action research methodology. Early initiatives included Coch and French's work with Harwood Manufacturing Company employees to overcome change-resistance and Lewin's community effort to lessen violence between Catholic and Jewish juvenile gangs. In these early studies, social scientists teamed up with individuals from social systems to comprehend issues and take appropriate action to address them. The action research methodology assisted participants in using scientific principles to direct their behavior and assisted social scientists in learning about social processes that they could extrapolate to other contexts[1]–[4].

Lewin first envisioned action research as a process that entailed switching back and forth between an ever-deepening surveillance of the issue situation and a succession of research-informed action experiments, according to Dickens and Watkins. These experiments played a significant role in the procedure. The standard scientific paradigm, which entails experimental manipulation and observation of the effects of the modification, is the foundation of action research. However, action research and conventional science differ significantly in a number of ways, as Dickens and Watkins point out. Unlike traditional science, action research does not try to impose strict restrictions and controls on the experimental environment. A further difference between action research and traditional science is that the latter entails researching information for the aim of learning and often comes to an end at the point of discovery.

This dual emphasis on problem solving and theory development has shifted over time as those tasked with facilitating change have put more of their attention on enhancing

organizational performance within a specific context than on assisting social scientists in their efforts to advance theoretical understanding. However, an increasing number of social scientists have been employing action research as the foundation for theory development over the past few years. There is nothing so practical as a good theory, according to Lewin according to Brydon-Miller et al. This statement had a significant impact on their research. Action research, according to Brydon-Miller et al., recognizes that theory can and should be generated through practice. They also claim that theory is only truly useful when it is applied to a practice that aims to bring about positive social change[5]–[8].

Action Research and Organizational Learning

Lewin's three-stage process of change is referred to as a learning process by Hendry in his study of the function of learning in the management of change. Cognitive dissonance and the sense of disconfirmation act as the driving force behind learning and transformation.The first questioning and unlearning brought on by this unfreezing experience, motivates people and groups to conduct the research, diagnose problems, and conduct experiments that result in new learning.It is continually necessary for people, groups, and entire systems to learn and adapt in order to deal with changing conditions. The most adaptable people are those who are able to take lessons from their mistakes[9]–[11]. Lewin's model was expanded upon by Kolb, who also developed a theory of experiential learning that conceptualizes learning as a four-stage cycle in which experience is converted into concepts that are then utilized to inform the selection of future experiences (Figure 1).
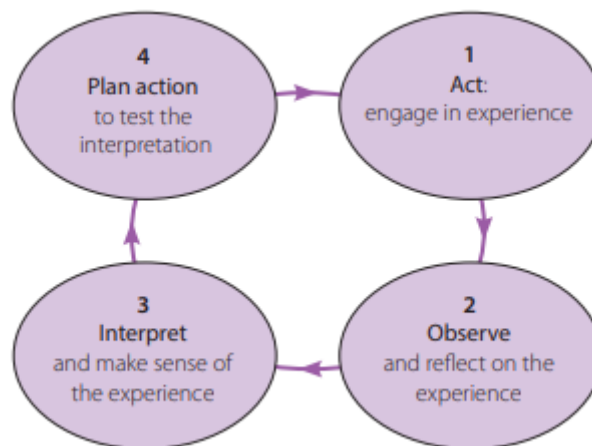

Figure 1: Represting the experiential learning model[Research Gate.Net].

Stage 1 entails having an immediate, concrete experience that will serve as the foundation for stage 2's observation and reflection. Stage 3 involves interpreting and incorporating these data into a theory from which fresh implications for action can be inferred. Stage 4 planning, which involves deciding how to act to produce new experiences, is then guided by these implications or hypotheses. Effective learners and action researchers are those who can:

1. Engage in their experiences fully, openly, and without prejudice.
2. Reflect on and observe their experiences from a variety of perspectives.
3. Develop concepts that incorporate their observations into logically sound theories.
4. Apply these theories to decision-making and problem-solving.

Role of the Facilitator

A change agent can help this process forward. Shepard promoted a partnership between the consultant and the client. In his opinion, a consultant's job is to 'assist' the client or client group create their fact-finding procedures and arrange their activities so they can learn from them in order to establish better organizational structures. There has been a lot of focus on the

change agent's function as a facilitator rather than a solution-prescriber. For instance, action learning promotes a method of education that involves resolving actual issues. Mumford argued that individuals who want to help learners should do so by facilitating their exposure to challenges and to one another. The facilitator's or trainer's job is to assist learners in creating their own plans of action and testing them through actual execution.In the past 60 years, action research has given rise to a variety of related action strategies that have been used with individuals, teams, organizations, and even larger networks of institutions special issues of Human Relations and Management Learning, both edited by Raelin in 1999 and 1993, respectively. Raelin mentions five more action research models in addition to the traditional one, including participatory research, action learning, action science, developmental action inquiry, and cooperative inquiry. Many people also see appreciative inquiry as a modern evolution of the traditional action research methodology.

The Participative nature of Action Research

All of these action plans have participation built into them. In order to 'unfreeze' the presumptions that underlie their behaviors, facilitators and members of the target system must mutually open themselves to an inquiry process, according to Raelin. The majority of their methods are experimental and are carried out in groups. Action research is defined by Reason and Bradbury as a democratic, participatory approach that focuses on creating practical knowledge in the service of noble human goals.It aims to integrate theory and practice, action and reflection, involvement with others, the pursuit of workable solutions to pressing problems facing people, and more generally the flourishing of unique individuals and their communities.The majority of people who support a cooperative strategy for solving challenges in organizations do so because they think a lot of the knowledge necessary is widely shared inside the organization. Participation makes it more likely that those who possess crucial information will divulge it to others. In addition to fostering commitment, collaborative problem-solving methods also make it easier to carry out the steps necessary to fix the issue. One of the earliest action research instances is reported by Blake and Mouton to highlight the value of participation.

DISCUSSION

The Process of Action Research

The traditional action research process entails gathering and analyzing data on the nature of a problem, acting to make a change, and then evaluating the results to inform future actions to improve the situation. Sometimes the process begins after a senior employee of the organization who has the authority and clout to affect change recognizes an issue. But there are other ways to introduce action research methodology into businesses than this top-down strategy. Members of a group may occasionally be aware of an issue, but for a number of reasons they struggle to handle it better. This can encourage them to take the initiative and ask an outside facilitator for assistance. Whatever the starting point, Lewin maintained that a felt need, or an internal realization that change is required, is an essential prerequisite for action research. This type of collaborative intervention will probably fail unless the group is willing to work on their issue.Action research comprises repeated cycles of action and evaluation after a problem-solving issue has been identified. A cycle has five steps in it. In order to assess the effects of the action taken at the conclusion of the previous cycle, data must first be collected and analyzed in the subsequent cycle (Figure 2).

Results From Action Research

Action research is well known for being a powerful tool for changing things. The Harwood Manufacturing Company project was already mentioned in example below, which shows how it might be utilized to get over resistance to changes suggested by upper management.

Employees successfully changed senior management's suggestion to outsource the manufacturing of specific components as part of an action research project at the Xerox Corporation, according to Greenwood et al.The Xerox Corporation made a number of significant modifications in the 1980s in reaction to a drop in market share and earnings. The creation of an employee involvement program at the Webster factories, the company's main US production base, was one result of this procedure. Later, this was combined with a quality improvement program and jointly managed by local managers and union members at the plant level. They had group problem-solving training so they could participate in the program as internal consultants and facilitators. This extensive cooperation established the foundation for an effective action research project. Xerox chose to outsource the production of parts that could be produced outside at a cheaper cost as part of a competitive benchmarking exercise.
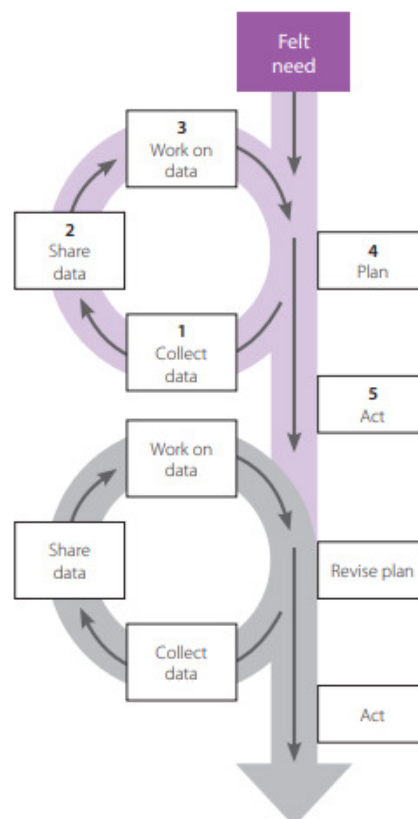

Figure 2: Represting the Action Research Process[Research Gate.Net].

The initial outsourcing choice centered on wire harness manufacturing. The corporation could save $3.2 million a year by outsourcing production and closing the wire harness section, according to benchmarking and cost comparison studies. 180 jobs were expected to be lost as a direct result of this outsourcing decision, but the union feared that this might only be the start of a significant program of layoffs as the competitive benchmarking exercise was expanded to include a wider range of components and local managers also realized that their jobs were in jeopardy.According to Greenwood et al., a cost study committee made up of six employees and two management representatives was established following many weeks of meetings with top union and management officials. The group was formed to see if Xerox could reduce its production costs enough to compete with the outside proposal and keep the jobs. A social psychologist, cost accountants, industrial engineers, and other experts were consulted for their input. The results of this action research intervention were exceptional, according to Greenwood et al. The team was able to show senior management significant cost savings that convinced them to continue producing wire harnesses in-house. Four additional examples were successfully added to the exercise, saving 900 jobs in the process.

CONCLUSION

In addition, noted further advantages as a result of the action research initiative at Xerox. As management's confidence in employees' talents grew, they promoted a number of other initiatives that involved workers in the design of new plants and the restructuring of the research and development program for the discovery of new goods and new manufacturing techniques. Both union officials and employees reported feeling more confident in their own capacity to contribute to the intellectual solution of production issues. The cost research teams learned how traditional methods of allocating indirect costs to industrial products could influence management to make choices that are detrimental to the business' and employees' economic interests. Additionally, according to Greenwood et al., their investigation resulted in a theoretical rethinking of the relationships between worker participation and production.

REFERENCES:

[1]   T. Gillier and S. Lenfle, "Experimenting in the Unknown: Lessons from The Manhattan Project," *Eur. Manag. Rev.*, 2019, doi: 10.1111/emre.12187.

[2]   M. Ganzha, M. Paprzycki, W. Pawłowski, P. Szmeja, and K. Wasielewska, "Semantic interoperability in the Internet of Things: An overview from the INTER-IoT perspective," *J. Netw. Comput. Appl.*, 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.jnca.2016.08.007.

[3]   T. D. S. Sutton and C. Hill, "Gut Bacteriophage: Current Understanding and Challenges," *Frontiers in Endocrinology*. 2019. doi: 10.3389/fendo.2019.00784.

[4]   J. C. Ferguson *et al.*, "A large animal model for standardized testing of bone regeneration strategies," *BMC Vet. Res.*, 2018, doi: 10.1186/s12917-018-1648-0.

[5]   D. Rosenbaum, E. More, and P. Steane, "Planned organisational change management: Forward to the past? An exploratory literature review," *Journal of Organizational Change Management*. 2018. doi: 10.1108/JOCM-06-2015-0089.

[6]   P. Reavey, S. D. Brown, A. Kanyeredzi, L. McGrath, and I. Tucker, "Agents and spectres: Life-space on a medium secure forensic psychiatric unit," *Soc. Sci. Med.*, 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.socscimed.2018.11.012.

[7]   S. Cummings, T. Bridgman, and K. G. Brown, "Unfreezing change as three steps: Rethinking Kurt Lewin's legacy for change management," *Hum. Relations*, 2016, doi: 10.1177/0018726715577707.

[8]   K. Lewin, "5. Intention, Will and Need," in *Organization and Pathology of Thought*, 2019. doi: 10.7312/rapa92214-008.

[9]   R. L. Baskerville, "Investigating Information Systems with Action Research," *Commun. Assoc. Inf. Syst.*, 1999, doi: 10.17705/1cais.00219.

[10]   M. Pedler and K. Trehan, "Action learning, organisational research and the 'wicked' problems," *Action Learn. Res. Pract.*, 2008, doi: 10.1080/14767330802461181.

[11]   S. Duffield and S. J. Whitty, "How to apply the Systemic Lessons Learned Knowledge model to wire an organisation for the capability of storytelling," *Int. J. Proj. Manag.*, 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.ijproman.2015.11.004.

CHAPTER 16

APPRECIATE INQUIRY:EMBRACING POSITIVE CHANGE FOR ORGANIZATIONAL GROWTH

Ms. Namrita Ahluwallia, Assistant Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-namrita.ahluwalia@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Appreciative inquiry is a positive and strengths-based approach to organizational and human growth. It focuses on identifying and highlighting strengths and good traits within individuals, teams, and organizations. The constructionist concept emphasizes the importance of sharing good experiences and goals through discourse and narrative. The simultaneous inquiry principle involves investigating various viewpoints and realities, while the anticipatory principle encourages imagining and constructing a desirable future. The positive principle emphasizes positive transformation through examining positive experiences and attributes. The 4-D cycle of appreciative inquiry includes discovery, dream, design, and destiny. It encourages participation, motivation, and collaboration, invigorating people and teams, promoting ownership and empowerment, and encouraging learning and discovery of new possibilities.

KEYWORDS:

Action, Change, Learning, Social, Theory.

INTRODUCTION

Exploring the best of what is or has been includes amplifying this best practice, which is the process of appreciative inquiry. Instead, then eradicating the problematic, it aims to highlight the positive; it concentrates attention on what is right and working rather than what is wrong and ineffective. In order to improve performance and quality of life in companies, this chapter analyzes appreciative inquiry from three angles a philosophy of knowledge, an intervention theory, and a methodology for doing so.The idea that there is an objective universe out there that is somehow enduring and physically observable is challenged by social constructionist theory. The idea is that reality is something that society creates. Despite the ambiguity of the facts we utilize, Elliot offers a straightforward exercise that demonstrates how easily we construct and defend our own versions of reality. Giving a group a set of squiggles on a flip chart and asking each participant to take a few minutes to decide what they stand for is the activity[1]–[4]. After a little while, he claims that each person starts to noticeor believes they are observing some emergent shape. When put into small groups of three or four and asked to reach an agreement on what the squiggles actually represent, participants typically begin with various interpretations, believe that their readings are true, and attempt to persuade the others that this is the case.

Everything we come across and go through can be interpreted in various ways. According to social constructionists, conversation and compromise produce our perceptions of reality. For instance, Dixon contends that communication and engagement among organizational members help them create a shared mental image of the company. She argues that people change the meanings they hold as a result of expressing their own meanings and understanding the meanings others have created. No single objective reality exists.The way we build realitythe way we see the world has a significant impact on how we act and the results of that behavior. And our beliefs influence how we perceive the world. Our beliefs, according to Srivastava and Cooperrider, determine what we look for, what we see, and how we interpret what we see. Therefore, our beliefs may result in expectations that turn out to be

true. According to Cooperrider and Srivastva, people are free to seek a change in traditional behavior by altering their belief and idea systems to the extent that action is based on beliefs, ideas, and meanings[5]–[8].The idea that organizational life is difficult is one that is frequently believed. This idea encourages a deficient perspective that emphasizes the dysfunctional elements of organizations, which has led to the construction of several solutions with the presumption that organizations are problems to be solved. These approaches often entail:

1. Identifying important issues.
2. Identifying causes and looking for solutions.
3. Creating plans of action to handle these issues more successfully.

Since the formulation of a problem assumes that someone has knowledge of what should be, Cooperrider and Srivastva contend that this type of organization development intervention is conservative because any corrective action is constrained by what is previously known. Appreciative inquiry proponents contend that this deficit strategy is comparatively unsuccessful at fostering organizational transformation since it frequently simply results in single-loop learning, or continual improvement inside the current paradigm.

An alternate view of organizations is that they are possibilities to be embraced rather than problems to be solved, which is the premise of appreciative inquiry. Appreciative inquiry proponents contend that a communal inquiry can aid in the process of revision and that organizations' social constructions are not just open to revision. They also contend that rather than focusing on a list of issues that need to be fixed, this group inquiry should focus on the factors that give the organization life. It entails valuing the best aspects of what is and using these to inspire a vision of what might be. The procedure is creative; it questions the beliefs and presumptions that underlie behavior and takes nothing for granted. The group is regarded as a complex riddle with a wide range of as-yet unexplored possibilities. Appreciative inquiry proponents contend that this social constructionist perspective is more likely to result in double-loop learning than a perspective that is more narrowly focused on organizational dysfunction, which will cause the organization to act differently or even differently.

A Theory of Intervention

The heliotropic hypothesis, according to Cooperrider, forms the basis of a potent theory of transformation. The core idea behind this theory is that social systems contain self-images that serve as the foundation for processes of self-organization and have a built-in propensity to advance in the direction of the most optimistic self-images held by their members. They develop toward the light that gives them life and energy, much like plants do. This supports the idea that interventions that encourage the intentional genesis of positive imagery present a workable means of improving social systems.A common misconception regarding organizations is that they are troublesome, as was already mentioned. According to Elliot, when he asked 45 managers to list 20 adjectives that best described their organization, 72% of the words they used were hostile, critical, or negative, such as chaotic, ineffective, inward-looking, lazy, poorly structured, over bureaucratic, slow, careless, or unaware. Only 15% were positive and approving, for example creative, exciting, thrilling, cutting edge, determined, rewarding, customer oriented, high-tech, accomplishment oriented; 13% were indifferent, for example mainstream, average, happy, unambitious.

Some organizations have a very positive conception of themselves, whereas the members of numerous organizations concentrate emphasis on aspects that are not operating properly. The foundation of appreciative inquiry is the idea that we are in control of the components of our experience we focus on. According to Elliott, one of the most significant changes that appreciative inquiry aims to bring about is the shift from a culture that views itself primarily negatively and is therefore prone to becoming stuck in its own negative construction of itself

to one that sees itself as having the capacity to enrich and enhance the quality of life for all stakeholders and, as a result, move toward this appreciative construction of itself.Elliott emphasizes the importance of imagination and memory. Every organization has a history, but this history is not an undisputed reality; rather, it is an artifact of the people who remember it. This is why memory is crucial. Organizational memory is founded on how persons who remember things perceive what happened, and how they build the present and where they are in the present are two things that have an impact on how they interpret the past. According to Elliott, the plasticity of memory and our ability to change the past of our organizations are fundamental to the appreciative approach:

The ability to create a narrative about the organization that emphasizes the noble and enriching themes while avoiding the darker or more somber tones that are likely to be present is at stake. Only when we are able to view history from this angle are we likely to be able to get past either the challenging present or the terrifying future. The way organizational members anticipate the future is a forerunner to how they construct and reconstruct the present and the past. Positive inquiry does not encourage the creation of impossible fantasies. It encourages people to imagine a future based on extrapolating the best aspects of the present or past.One of the biggest barriers to an ailing group's welfare, according to Cooperrider et al. (2003, p. 386), is the affirmative projection that now governs that group. In their view, affirmation refers to a holding firm and that the strength of affirmation, the degree of belief or faith invested, is what permits the imagery to carry out its heliotropic task.

They continue by saying that a group's current affirmative projection is insufficient if it discovers that its solutions only make matters worse or that the same issues persist despite efforts to resolve them. Cooperrider et al. agree with Elliot in asserting that every new affirmative projection of the future is a consequence of an appreciative understanding of the past or present. We don't have to see the present with an emphasis on its drawbacks. By emphasizing the positive, we may embrace the present and create optimistic visions of the future. According to the heliotropic hypothesis, we create the future we envision. A tremendous pull effect produced by strong images of affirmation may aid the organization in moving in the direction of this more promising future.The heliotropic hypothesis is supported by research on the Pygmalion and placebo effects, according to proponents of appreciative inquiry. The potency of self-fulfilling prophecies is referred to as the Pygmalion effect. Numerous studies have demonstrated how expectations of others affect the performance of individuals and organizations, including soldiers, apprentice welders, and students. For instance, Rosenthal and Jacobsen contend that pupils live up to the expectations that teachers set for them in terms of success and failure.

But in addition to reacting to the mental attitudes of people around us, particularly those who are in positions of control over us, we also react to our own mental attitudes and expectations of ourselves. Studies on the placebo effect in the medical sector have revealed that patients who anticipate an improvement in their health are more likely to do so than patients who do not. Similar to this, the people who maintain their optimism and resolve under extremely dangerous conditions have the best chance of surviving. Alternatively, nothing fails like the anticipation of failure and nothing succeeds like the expectation of failure.Although this serves as the foundation for an appealing intervention theory, Golembiewski issues two warnings. The first is about how appreciative enquiries turn out. According to the heliotropic hypothesis, people are driven to go in the direction of an imagined future that magnifies peak experiences, which is why social formations incline in that direction. Because it is said that you can catch more flies with honey than you can with vinegar, people are less inclined to oppose this kind of change. The question of whether or not people are driven to change, however, is a much smaller concern in the search for social forms.

Golembiewski poses the issue, Motivation for what purpose? and points out that there are numerous instances when individuals have been driven both to elevate bestial human systems as in Chang's 1997 description of the Nanking rape and to degrade them. Having said that, it appears from the evidence that appreciative inquiry not only captures the interest of organizational members but also promotes a process of organizational learning that steers the company in a way that benefits all stakeholders.His second word of caution concerns what appears to be appreciative inquiry's dislike of negative narratives. He worries that this can promote reckless optimism about the truth or certain ideas. However, Elliot expresses less concern. He contends that non-blaming, non-judgmental dialogues that express appreciation help individuals realize that the best is not always the case. When describing the best of what is currently available, someone could say, but it isn't usually like this, before going on to detail. Most of the time, we waste too much time arguing or hating the opposing department, mistrusting them, and finding fault with them. Even if this kind of comment admits flaws, it can encourage optimistic thinking. A skillful interviewer might do this by posing questions like, what is special about the good times? according to Elliott.What should you and your coworkers do or be, in your opinion, to increase the likelihood that the good times will become the norm?

DISCUSSION

A Methodology for Intervening in Organizations

A common process of inquiry into the best of what is how appreciative inquiry generates a shared vision of a better future. This envisioned future offers the strong pull effect that directs the growth of the group or organization. The investigation is a crucial component of the intervention. The process of change is initiated by the simple act of asking questions. It follows that the more positive the questions, the more positive the facts, under the premise that the things we choose to focus on and the questions we ask impact what we find. And the more convincing the evidence, the more optimistic people are likely to become about the factors that influence peak experiences. Additionally, the more optimistic these beliefs are, the more optimistic the organization's ideal vision is, and finally, the more optimistic this image is, the more energy it inspires for change. According to Bushe, there are three steps in the appreciative inquiry process:
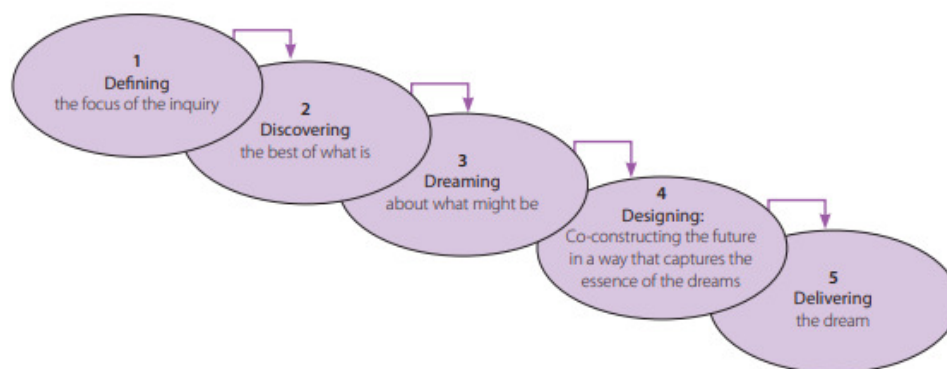
Figure 1: Five Steps of an Appreciative Inquiry [Research Gate. Net].

1. Finding the finest ofentails locating the best instances of planning and structuring inside the knowledge of organizational members.
2. Gaining insights into the factors that promote outstanding performance and what it is about the people, the organization, and the context that produces peak workplace experiences are all part of understanding what makes the best.

3. Reinforcing and amplifying those aspects of the environment that lead to exceptional performance is involved in amplifying the individuals or processes that represent the best of the five steps of a commonly used process for identifying, comprehending, and enhancing the best of what is are depicted in Figure 1 and are covered in more detail below.

Defining the Focus of the Inquiry

Early on in the 1990s, appreciative inquiry was frequently seen as a macro-organizational intervention that looked at the entire organization. The scope of appreciative inquiries has, however, recently been broadened to include more targeted inquiries into problems including turnover, team building, leadership, customer service, conflict management, inter-gender relationships, and culture change.A steering group of some kind, maybe one that includes representatives of the many organizational member types that may be participating in the investigation, is frequently responsible for defining the particular subject of inquiry. The investigation needs to be defined in a way that emphasizes people's good experiences rather than their negative ones. For instance, if a company has a problem with excessive staff turnover, the investigation might pay more attention to why employees decide to stay rather than the reasons why they leave. Similar to the previous example, if there is a problem with sexual harassment, the investigation might concentrate on the circumstances and elements that foster positive cross-gender working relationships rather than the issues linked to cross-gender interactions.

Discovering Examples of Excellence and Achievement

People are invited to share tales about the better aspects of the present through appreciation research.It can involve a group of interviewers or a pair of interviewers talking positively to ten or twenty different people each before presenting their results to the core group. Interviewers need to be good listeners, able to pay attention to what people are saying, and able to understand their thoughts and feelings from their perspective, regardless of the format of the inquiry. They must also be skilled at persuading others to share their tales of brilliance and accomplishment. The questions they pose are crucial to this. An Encyclopedia of Positive Questions was created by Whitney et al. in 2002, which some practitioners could find useful. It produces a positive feeling, but as Bushe points out, caution must be exercised to prevent social banter from developing from discussing peak experiences.

The most effective appreciative interviews offer at least one insight into the underlying causes of accomplishment. Beyond finding what works effectively, the interview must also examine why it works well and how this success may be maintained, boosted, and expanded to other areas of the business.Sharing the stories that have been gathered and finding themes about the organization's strengths are the final steps in this discovery phase. There are several ways to accomplish this. Interviewers can either share their tales with a core group that has been entrusted with interpreting the data and identifying key themes, or they can do it verbally in an open meeting to everyone who has participated in the inquiry process. The discussion of the stories can then be open to everyone in attendance in order to pinpoint and agree upon the main themes.According to Bushe, grouping the data into a inquiry matrix can help to concentrate attention on themes related to the inquiry's goal when there are many stories to analyze. Prior to gathering data, he suggests that the steering group might highlight the aspects of the organization they want to focus on and emphasize, such as inter-gender relationships in the workplace, teamwork, or customer service, and identify an organizational model they believe captures the key organizing principles, such as structure, technology, culture, leadership, job design, rewards, and so on. This data can be used to create a matrix, which can then be used to classify any themes that emerge from the stories. The matrix may be very straightforward and contain cells for things like cooperation and structure, teamwork

and technology, and teamwork and rewards, or it could be more sophisticated and contain a comparable set of cells for additional things that might have been covered in the inquiry, including customer service.

A different, less structured way is to have each member of the core group of interviewers independently study a sample of written reports of the appreciative dialogues before coming together to discuss the major themes. This method was described by Elliot. In the instance Elliot described, a core group of ten individuals had done 100 interviews. Three group members reviewed all 100 reports, while the remaining seven read and analyzed 10 reports in addition to the 10 reports from the interviews they had performed. The facilitator, who had been actively involved with every phase of the inquiry, presented a list of concerns he believed would emerge as major themes to aid in their analysis. Members of the group can utilize this type of list's category set to help them find relevant themes, but it's crucial that they not feel constrained to only evaluating the list's applicability. Everyone involved in the inquiry must feel free to identify other groups of statements that could point to different themes if they want it to be an inclusive and collaborative process. Members attend a meeting with their opinions of the reports' content and share and discuss their discoveries until they can agree on a list of key themes that reflect both the past and present as being positive.

Dreaming

The dreaming phase is all about using these themes to motivate a picture of a more optimistic future. Members of the organization are urged to consider what the future may look like if the best aspects of the present or past became the new standard. The following advice is given by Elliot to individuals who are concerned in analyzing the stories of brilliance and achievement:You're looking for recurring elements that, taken together, indicate a prospect that the company is currently just on the cusp of realizing. You're not looking for a majority opinion or a radical outlier; rather, you're looking for a collection of concepts that, when brought together, given coherence, and given shape, will elicit an Ah, yes from the vast majority of stakeholders who will recognize it as building on the best of the past but unlocking a new future.

Despite the literature's emphasis on visioning, Elliot contends that only a small number of organizational members consider their imagination to be a valuable resource they may offer to the workplace. As a result, a lot of employees don't accomplish much of it throughout their regular workday. He continues by saying that if imagination is not employed, it withers just like many of our other faculties, such as memory and muscles. Therefore, it's probable that some group members will require support and encouragement in order to utilize their imagination to picture a better future. Elliott offers five warm-up exercises that could give people the courage to consider novel ideas. Inquiries like, have you ever visited another organization and seen things you'd like to introduce here? and

if one of your grandchildren were to eventually work here, what do you hope it might be like for them? are examples.The process moves on to the design step once organizational members have agreed upon their ideal future.

Designing: Co-Constructing the Future to Deliver the Dream

It must be transformed into a series of assertions of intent in order to make the vision easier to realize. These are 'provocative suggestions' that will challenge organizational members and point them in the direction of a reachable preferred future. The process of developing the statements of intent usually involves a lot of energy and engagement, and it is through the discussion that results in testing, redrafting, and refinement that the potential for magnifying the best aspects of the past and present is achieved.If the intriguing ideas were created by a subgroup, it is crucial that they be shared with and approved by other organizational members

in order to broaden the audience for the discussion. When numerous individuals need to be involved, according to Bushe, it is possible to test the theories using an organizational survey. There can be a question such, to what extent do you believe this proposition is an important component of the topic under study? next to each proposition.

He contends that simply completing the questionnaire can generate momentum and contribute significantly to the ideas spreading throughout the firm.It is encouraged for people to consider and discuss potential futures. Sharing the survey results and letting everyone know how strongly people feel about each proposal can also inspire action, allowing organizational members to start putting the notions into practice in their daily work. These intriguing ideas are design concepts that can be utilized to pinpoint the organizations' dream-oriented structures, procedures, and practices. They are described as filters by Finegold et al. that can be used to assess any suggested adjustments.

Delivering the Dream

However, individuals in charge of the appreciative inquiry do not necessarily need to get involved in the finer points of execution in order to enhance the best aspects of what is and steer the business toward a more optimistic future. While some consider this to be significant, most practitioners only get involved when organizational members are developing and validating their vision.

 If the vision and the intriguing proposals that go along with it are strong enough, they not only inspire change but also serve as the central point of focus for individual and group projects as well as organizational action.Joep de Jong, a Dutch consultant Elliot spoke with, has a slightly different viewpoint. He notes that once organizational members return to their regular day-to-day responsibilities, they might not find it simple to utilize the provocative propositions to guide every action, but they might use them regularly as a motivator to return to the appreciating style of thinking. While pursuing the fulfillment of the provocative ideas continuously can be challenging, the process of generating them alters how they view themselves, their coworkers, and their organization. According to de Jong, this alters their routine tasks in a way that increases the likelihood that the core idea of the provocative proposition would materialize.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Appreciative Inquiry is a potent strategy that shifts the emphasis from solving problems to recognizing and highlighting strengths and triumphs. Appreciative Inquiry develops a positive company culture, improves engagement and creativity, and generates a common vision for the future by including stakeholders in a collaborative and inclusive process. This strategy equips people and organizations to realize their full potential, effect good change, and foster an environment that is vibrant and encouraging of growth and innovation.The system group or organization is propelled to achieve its objectives under the direction of the design principles incorporated within the provocative propositions. Inquiry leaders occasionally assist organizational members in creating implementation strategies, action plans, scorecards, and other methods for tracking success.

REFERENCES:

[1]   H. ADONI and S. MANE, "MEDIA AND THE SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF REALITY," *Communic. Res.*, 1984, doi: 10.1177/009365084011003001.

[2]   J. Dreher and H. Vera, "The Social Construction of Reality, A Four-Headed, Two-Fingered Book: An Interview with Thomas Luckmann," *Cult. Sociol.*, 2016, doi: 10.1177/1749975515616826.

[3]   P. Berger and T. Luckmann, "The social construction of reality," in *Social Theory Re-Wired: New Connections to Classical and Contemporary Perspectives: Second Edition*, 2016. doi: 10.4324/9781315775357.

[4]   D. M. Rose, P. L. Berger, and T. Luckmann, "The Social Construction of Reality," *Mod. Lang. J.*, 1967, doi: 10.2307/323448.

[5]   T. Gullickson, "Review of Narrative Therapy: The Social Construction of Preferred Realities.," *Contemp. Psychol. A J. Rev.*, 1997, doi: 10.1037/000559.

[6]   F. L. T. Yu and D. S. Kwan, "Social Construction of National Reality: Tibet and Taiwan," *J. Chinese Polit. Sci.*, 2013, doi: 10.1007/s11366-013-9249-z.

[7]   A. Sica, "Social Construction as Fantasy: Reconsidering Peter Berger and Thomas Luckmann's The Social Construction of Reality after 50 Years," *Cult. Sociol.*, 2016, doi: 10.1177/1749975515614869.

[8]   D. Du, "In The Era of Berger and Luckmann's Social Construction of Reality: How Media Change the Public's Perceptions of Police Legitimacy," *Int. J. Soc. Sci. Humanit.*, 2019.

CHAPTER 17

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT: NURTURING TALENT FOR ORGANIZATIONAL SUCCESS

Prof. Rajesh Mehrotra, Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-rajeshmehrotra.sbm@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Training and development are crucial for individuals and businesses, as they enhance work performance, personal and professional growth, and decision-making abilities. A thorough analysis of a company's needs and goals is essential for creating effective programs. Designing programs considers participant preferences, effective teaching strategies, and interactive learning opportunities. Blended approaches, combining online and in-person training, are increasingly used. Evaluation is essential for assessing the programs' impact on individuals and organizations, and measuring results using feedback mechanisms, assessments, and performance evaluations. Training and growth improve performance, self-esteem, career growth, and organizational productivity, efficiency, and innovation.

KEYWORDS:

Change, Development, Growth, Members, Training.

INTRODUCTION

Individual change, which is frequently the result of an unofficial and organic process of learning and development, is typically related with organizational change to some extent. To help people acquire new information, skills, attitudes, and behaviors, those in charge of managing organizational change may occasionally determine that some kind of deliberate training intervention is necessary. Such interventions might be quite organized and narrowly focused on achieving predetermined results, or they can be created to teach organizational members how to learn and motivate them to take an active role in their own self-directed professional development.Two broad categories of organizational members are typically the focus of training interventions. On the one hand, there are people who must take on new responsibilities related to managing the transformation. To lead a task force tasked with diagnosing organizational issues and determining what needs to change, or to facilitate activities that are part of the diagnostic, planning, or implementation phases of the change, they may need trainings[1]–[5].

On the other hand, some organizational members would need to behave differently as a result of the shift and might need training to meet higher performance criteria. For instance, training is a significant factor in determining the success of teams, according to Banker et al. When working in a team, the supervisor's position is frequently altered, or team leaders are appointed. To help leaders guide their teams, training is necessary. Team members may also receive training in group processes, covering other people's jobs, or taking on more responsibility for their work.This chapter briefly discusses how training can support the maintenance or restoration of alignment between organizational members' competencies and other system components like task and structure. The key components of a systematic method for creating efficient training interventions will also be covered. The last section examines a few Australian studies that looked at current trends in training delivery[6]–[8].

Adding a Match Between Organizational Members and Changing Task Demands

There are a lot of variables that will affect whether or not organizational members will adopt new behaviors when change is required. These include the effectiveness of reward systems in

motivating people to meet the revised performance outcomes, the quality of the fit between competencies and task requirements, and the accessibility of feedback to allow people and their managers to gauge whether the new performance standards are being met. The first of these is the subject of this chapter.Members of an organization may occasionally already have all the skills necessary to meet the new performance criteria. For these individuals to be able to perform in new ways, all they will need is knowledge of the updated performance goals they will need to meet. Other instances, the individuals who will be affected by the change might not have the necessary skills.Those in charge of the alteration may have a variety of alternatives here. They may look into ways to adapt the task to meet the competencies already held by organizational members, replace current employees with those who already possess the necessary competencies, or assist current employees in acquiring the necessary new competencies. The latter is discussed further below[9], [10].

A System Approach to Training

Effective training, according to Goldstein and others, entails three main processes, which are currently covered analysis of training needs, design and delivery of training, and evaluation of training efficacy.

Training needs Analysis

How the proposed change would impact organizational goals, objectives, and task demands is determined via a systems-level analysis. This summary gives you the knowledge you need to decide which tasks and people need additional in-depth studies. For instance, several organizational units' tasks altered as a result of the switch from optical to digital scanning technology in the reprographics equipment industry. A system-level evaluation in this scenario might have indicated the need for a more in-depth investigation in divisions like product design, assembly, technical support, sales, and so forth. The system-level study may have found few consequences for the nature of the tasks performed and the necessary competencies in other areas, such as finance.

A task analysis evaluates how changes to a unit's task will influence the type of performance that will be expected of its members. It focuses on certain occupations or positions. Additionally, it emphasizes the competencies knowledge, skills, attitudes, or behaviors that individuals in these new or changed roles will need to possess in order to meet the new standard. Using the manufacturer of reprographics equipment as an example, a task analysis of, say, the selling function might have shown how the advent of digital scanning technology altered the type of performance needed by salespeople to market digital reprographics equipment as opposed to optical reprographics equipment.

Person Analysis

A person analysis looks for gaps between the competencies needed to complete the new tasks, as identified by the task analysis, and the current competencies of the organizational members who can perform them.

This analysis gives the data required to pinpoint which people or groups will need training and define training objectives in terms of what learners must know and how they must act.Training objectives are best stated in terms of behavioral goals that outline what learners will be able to do after training. For instance, one of the training goals for salespeople for reprographics equipment might be to be able to:

1. Accurately describe how new technology affects the performance of the company's new range of copiers; and
2. Show customers how to maintain the equipment to keep it running at peak efficiency.

The Design and Delivery of Training

According to Smith, the kind of competencies the training is intended to transmit should, at least in part, dictate the choice of the training approach. For instance, some of the best training techniques might be lectures and reading from books and manuals when the goal is to convey knowledge and information. The most efficient techniques might be role playing or informal discussion groups when attitudes are the main focus. Case studies, simulations, projects, or mentoring may be employed in situations when the goal is to develop cognitive methods. Different approaches could be taken into consideration when perceptual and motor skills are the main focus. These could include the progressive components technique, a plan for organizing the practice of complicated motor skills, and the discriminating method, which is intended to assist learners notice differences between similar items. Training techniques are divided into five categories by Reid and Barrington on-the-job training, planned organization experience, internal courses, planned experience outside the organization, and external courses. To choose which of these tactics will be most effective, they suggest using the following four criteria:

1. Compatibility with training goals is a priority.
2. Estimated likelihood of learning transfer to the workplace.
3. The availability of resources including money, time, and skilled labor.
4. Aspects relating to trainees.

These criteria might be used, for instance, to find the best strategy to train new change project team members. Now, each is covered individually.

Compatibility with Training Objectives

The following could be among the learning outcomes for the new project team members:

1. Knowledge transfer to help learners comprehend, be able to explain to others, and recognize actions that will help the new project team achieve the goals of the change program.
2. Developing good attitudes will help trainees be dedicated to the program's goals and work cooperatively with other team members to meet these goals.
3. Developing group process skills, which will enable trainees to assess the state of the group and take actions that will improve the efficacy of the group.

Because they conflict with the training objectives, some approaches may be swiftly rejected by the change manager, while others may only be employed after adaption.

Because the organization might not currently be running any project teams that could provide useful on-the-job work experience, on-the-job training might be declined. External programs, such outward-bound-style team training, may be a useful means of cultivating cooperative attitudes and group-processing abilities.

The change agent or another employee from the organization would need to be involved, and the course would need to be modified to include some sessions that address the goals of the change program, in order to meet some of the other training demands. This would also necessitate limiting enrollment in the external course to managers from the same organization and to those managers who will collaborate on the new project team. A particularly created in-house course could be a desirable choice.

It might combine formal presentations on the goals of the change program with informal discussion sessions to examine trainees' responses to these goals and group activities that could be used to hone group-processing abilities. In the next section we will discuss more about systematic approach to training.

DISCUSSION

Transfer of Learning

In terms of learning transfer, the external course, if it were only open to potential project team members, and the internal course could ease the transfer of group process skills and considerate behaviors toward other trainees to the workplace. If the group exercises entailed working on actual problems that the team would have to deal with once it went live, the in-house training may also score highly on the transfer of learning.

Availability of Resources

Time may be a constraint that prevents the use of internal or external planned work experience in terms of resource availability. Cost, measured in terms of the amount of money in the budget rather than the lost opportunity cost of the change agent's time, could also be a deterrent to an expensive external training. The in-house course might be less expensive, but the change agent would still need to find the time to create the training materials and the group activities that would be relevant to their place of employment. The change agent may feel confident in their ability to develop and deliver the internal program. Additionally, they might be aware of a third-party expert whose assistance could be obtained at a cost far lower than that of the outside course.

Trainee-Related Factors

From a business standpoint, it might not be viable to release all the managers at once to take a weeklong external training in terms of trainee-related aspects. Additionally, certain members of the planned project team might find it challenging to travel for a whole week due to domestic issues. In light of all these considerations, the change agent may choose the in-house course, which, if necessary, might be planned as a number of brief modules to accommodate trainee availability.

Evaluation of Training Effectiveness

There are several approaches to measure the efficacy of training, but according to Aguinis and Kraiger, the most popular model for evaluating training is Kirkpatrick's four-level approach:

1. The trainees' responses to the training are the criterion at level one. Did they think it was fascinating, relevant, demanding, etc.?
2. The standard at level two is what they learned. It is not uncommon for trainees to respond well to the training but to learn little or only reach acceptable learning standards in regard to some, but not all, of the learning objectives. Those in charge of choosing and creating the specifics of the learning activity must consider the ramifications of this type of feedback.
3. The third level's criterion is behavior. It's possible that trainees responded favorably to the instruction and gained the knowledge that was intended for them. Back at work, though, it's possible that their behavior hasn't changed much at all. In other words, it's possible that the course material wasn't applied to the workplace. It is very simple to employ the pertinent learning principles to create a training activity that will promote learning, but much more challenging to create one that will ensure that the learning is retained and put to use in the workplace. The social pressure trainees experience after leaving training is a frequent issue that prevents transfer. Even though they may have acquired best practices on the course, once they return to their jobs, coworkers frequently put pressure on them to resume using the conventional methods of working.

4. Results are the criterion at level four. Although the training may result in the desired behavioral changes, these changes may not have the desired effects. Sales personnel may have begun to contact clients more frequently, but this may not have resulted in the anticipated rise in sales. This kind of feedback suggests that the training approach needs to be completely rethought.

Paul Simpson: Using training to Deliver Culture Change

Paul Simpson works with businesses to help them perform better. He is a skilled HR and OD professional with a wealth of expertise. He formerly led organization development at London and Scandinavian Metallurgical Co. Ltd., was head of OD at Aviva, the director of learning and development, and the HR business partner for Arla in the UK. Paul serves as the chair of the Yorkshire HR Directors' Forum and makes contributions to the programs at the Leeds University Business School. He provides some information about how training was utilized to help improve the culture of a special metals firm below and in his video.

The company was struggling to thrive until recently, but over the past three years it has changed for the better and increased its profitability. The organization's culture needs to transform from a traditional top-down, prescriptive management style to one that is more open and engaging and encourages contributions from everyone throughout the entire enterprise in order to preserve this momentum, the CEO and a new HR director concluded. For the top 50 managers and directors to receive this training, they hired a company of training consultants to collaborate with them on designing and delivering a five-module training program over an 18-month period. Paul Simpson's responsibility was to assist the top 50 in integrating what they had learnt from the training program into their everyday management practices. Through coaching, one-on-one assistance, and group facilitation, he achieved this.

The lessons from this experience were numerous. First, offering one-on-one and group support to trainees in this case, managers and directors during the back-to-work periods in between modules helped them see the importance of what they had learnt and encouraged them to adopt new working practices.

Second, various reactions are displayed. Overall, participants responded favorably to the instruction, but while some tried hard to put theory into practice, others discovered that it was more difficult stated than done. Some people did not agree that they needed to modify their management approach.

Third, by encouraging trainees to share their triumphs, others were inspired to adopt the new culture. Fourthly, and somewhat surprisingly, a bottom-up movement for change started to emerge as some managers adopted the new ways of working and realized how this improved the atmosphere in their specific area of the organization. As a result, they became less tolerant of the senior managers who were still adhering to the previous top-down adversarial culture.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, training and development are essential elements of both individual and organizational progress. Organizations may improve performance, productivity, and innovation by making targeted investments in programs that fill skill gaps and encourage ongoing learning. People gain from better job performance, more job satisfaction, and more career options.

Organizations may prosper in a competitive and dynamic environment thanks to training and development, which act as catalysts for the development of a talented and adaptive staff.

REFERENCES:

[1]   S. Ristoska, B. Dzipunova, E. Stefanovska, V. Rendzova, V. Radojkova-Nikolovska, and B. Evrosimovska, "Orthodontic treatment of a periodontally - affected adult patient (case report)," *Open Access Maced. J. Med. Sci.*, 2019, doi: 10.3889/oamjms.2019.629.

[2]   R. E. Frisch, "Body fat, menarche, fitness and fertility," *Hum. Reprod.*, 1987, doi: 10.1093/oxfordjournals.humrep.a136582.

[3]   T. V. Lakeland, A. Samsudeen, L. Metcalfe, H. Govindaraju, and N. Turner, "Exploring How Compartment□specific Changes in NAD Biosynthesis Influence the Response to Endurance Training," *FASEB J.*, 2020, doi: 10.1096/fasebj.2020.34.s1.02831.

[4]   I. Gillam, R. Telford, and S. Skinner, "Is there a critical tissue vitamin E level to maintain cell membrane integrity and assist recovery in elite endurance trained athletes?," *J. Sci. Med. Sport*, 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.jsams.2018.09.068.

[5]   "Expression of BNDF Through Stretching and Recovery," *Case Med. Res.*, 2019, doi: 10.31525/ct1-nct04059120.

[6]   K. Sendawula and S. Nakyejwe Kimuli, "TRAINING, EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE: EVIDENCE FROM MAKERERE UNIVERSITY, KAMPALA, UGANDA," *J. Wind Eng. Ind. Aerodyn.*, 2019.

[7]   O. Hazzan *et al.*, "Preface," *J. Syst. Softw.*, 2009.

[8]   DairyCo, "Supplementing grazing," *J. Dairy Sci.*, 2013.

[9]   C. P. *et al.*, "Rehabilitation needs in hematology and bone marrow transplantation unit: One year experience at san raffaele institute," *Bone Marrow Transplantation*. 2014.

[10]   "Limited," in *Definitions*, 2020. doi: 10.32388/oijv3f.

CHAPTER 18

HIGH PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT: CULTIVATING EXCELLENCE FOR BUSINESS SUCCESS

Prof. Rajesh Mehrotra, Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-rajeshmehrotra.sbm@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

High Performance Management is a strategy aimed at improving organizational performance through goal alignment, fostering a high-performance culture, and utilizing efficient management techniques. It focuses on excellence, ongoing improvement, and fostering a high-performance culture. Leaders play a crucial role in setting an example and providing tools for staff success. Efficient performance management procedures, frequent performance reviews, criticism, and coaching, as well as clear communication channels and performance indicators, help employees reach their full potential. This approach leads to enhanced output, employee engagement, and organizational effectiveness. By coordinating goals and fostering a high-performance culture, organizations can increase employee satisfaction and retention, while fostering creativity and adaptation, enabling firms to stay ahead in a rapidly changing business environment.

KEYWORDS:

Agent, Change, Development, Management**,** Performance.

INTRODUCTION

Change agents can employ high performance management as an intervention to harmonize people management practices and enhance performance. It entails creating and putting into place a collection of people management techniques that are internally consistent, compatible with other business procedures, and congruent with the organization's business plan. This intervention, it is said, is far more successful than attempting to enhance other people management techniques, like as training, performance management, or incentive programs, on their own. This chapter begins with a brief overview of the commitment maximization and cost reduction approaches to managing an organization's human resources and makes the case that high performance management initiatives are most effectively supported by the commitment maximization philosophy. Then, it is discussed how employing people management techniques can boost performance by enhancing workers' knowledge and abilities, inspiring them to engage in discretionary behaviors that depend on their knowledge and abilities, and changing organizational structures in ways that help workers perform their jobs more effectively. There are a few people management techniques that can produce these results[1]–[4].

Two change tools are presented in the last section. The first factor, which focuses on external alignment, can be used to gauge how closely people management methods adhere to the organization's business plan.

The second measures internal alignment and can be applied to determine how closely people management techniques line up with one another. It is possible to intervene and realign processes to increase performance when misalignments are discovered. With open systems thinking and the idea of fit, high-performance management is a strategy for enhancing organizational performance. Additionally, it is in line with what Paul Simpson argues in his film regarding the necessity of changing more than just one people management practice, such as training, if systemic change is to be achieved[5]–[8].

Soft and Hard Models of Human Resource Management (HRM)

Human resources (HR) are commonly underutilized, according to Bailey, because employees frequently perform below their capacity. Walton distinguished between two fundamentally distinct approaches to human resources management, one centered on imposing control and the other on evoking commitment. When examining HRM practice in eight businesses in the UK, Truss et al. drew a similar distinction between hard and soft commitment techniques.

The Cost Reduction or Control Approach

The cost-cutting or cost-control strategy emphasizes the application of controls to lower direct labor expenses and boost productivity. This is accomplished by applying precise rules and procedures to enforce compliance. Many of the presumptions that underlie Beer's economic change strategy, which emphasizes the drive for economic value through tough top-down, results-driven action, are shared by this method. According to Truss et al., this hard approach is founded on McGregor's theory X statement that individuals detest labor and must be controlled and directed in order to exert sufficient effort toward the accomplishment of organizational goals. Walton makes reference to the kind of environment where control tactics are successful. He gives an example of a factory where workers have certain tasks to do and must meet minimal performance standards, but peer pressure prevents them from going above and beyond this need and from making efforts to increase performance. Here, management uses tight monitoring, supervision, and what MacDuffie refers to as efficiency wages to ensure proper job effort because motivation is low[9], [10].

Commitment Maximization Approach

The commitment maximization strategy is predicated on the idea that when employees are totally committed to the company, they perform at their highest level and contribute the most to organizational performance. Insofar as it entails developing the competencies necessary to preserve competitive advantage and high performance over the long term, this strategy is similar to many of the presumptions underlying Beer's organization development strategy for change. According to Truss et al. (1997), the HR movement, the use of unique skills, and McGregor's theory Y, which contends that individuals will practice self-direction and self-control in the service of goals to which they are devoted, are the origins of soft HRM. It focuses on creating devoted workers who can be relied upon to exercise discretion when working in a manner that is in line with corporate objectives. This strategy makes the assumption that when workers are trusted and given autonomy, commitment is produced. It makes the supposition that people are capable of working hard and intelligently without the need for punishment or other forms of external pressure. High performance management techniques are supported by this approach to commitment maximization.

Theoretical Foundations: How Commitment Strategies Work

By developing employees' knowledge and skills and encouraging them to engage in discretionary behaviors that draw on their knowledge and skill, Huselid, drawing on the work of Bailey, claims that people management methods can have an impact on an individual's performance and changing organizational structures so that workers may execute their duties more effectively. Some examples of the practices that contribute to these outcomes are listed below.

Improving Employees Knowledge and Skills

A variety of procedures can improve staff expertise. These include:

1. Recruitment practices that produce a sizable pool of qualified applicants; Selection practices that identify those individuals who possess the necessary competences; It

might be possible to improve selection practices by concentrating attention on what the organization does to attract suitably qualified individuals and how this influences the types of people who apply for positions Pfeffer contends that rather than emphasizing abilities, focus should be given on screening for cultural fit and attitudes.

2. Induction practices that influence how people are socialized into the organization: It may be possible to improve induction practices by paying attention to what happens to new employees after they join the organization and how this affects the development of competencethe technique of induction may also affect employees' incentive to participate in discretionary behavior and influence their desire to work more diligently and intelligently.

3. Training practices that develop the knowledge and abilities needed by organizational members. Pfeffer contends that training is a crucial element of high-performance work systems because these systems depend on frontline staff using their competence and initiative to recognize and address issues, bring improvements to work processes, and take ownership of quality. Due to the fact that training budgets frequently fluctuate with company economic fortunes, a perverse, procyclical training schedule typically develops: training funds are most abundant when the company is doing well. Nevertheless, some organizations fail to invest sufficiently in training, and many more are too quick to cut training budgets when times are tough. However, when a company is doing well, its employees are busiest and have the most work to perform, making it the least feasible for them to travel for training. In contrast, when a company is less busy, people have more time to work on their abilities and participate in training exercises. However, training is least likely to be made available at that time.

4. Additional training exercises that foster the knowledge, abilities, and work habits necessary for successful performance include: These practices, including coaching, mentoring, on-the-job training, secondments, and job rotation, might be examined to see whether they are as effective as they could be and if there is a good balance between them and more formal training activities. The practice of performance appraisal is described below as one that influences how motivated individuals are to engage in discretionary behaviors, but it can also serve as a means of fostering competence.

Do retention strategies that reward valuable employees for sticking around encourage individuals who are most likely to be snatched up by rivals to stay with the company?

1. Do they motivate staff members to show up on time and complete their assigned tasks so they can learn from others and teach others from their own expertise and experience?

2. Information-sharing procedures that give staff members the background on both current work-related difficulties and broader business challenges they need to function well: The manner and timing of information delivery as well as its appropriateness may be taken into account.

Motivating Employees to Engage in Discretionary Behaviors

Huselid contends that if employees lack motivation to work, even the most highly skilled ones will be ineffective. Several people management techniques can motivate employees to perform more diligently and strategically. These consist of:

1. Depending on whether employees are seen as a changeable cost or a valuable asset, their loyalty to the company may be affected.

2. How do the company handle the issue when employees are no longer needed in their existing positions? How does this effect the motivation of both the employees who will be transferred and their coworkers?

3. By taking into account issues like: What are the goals of the performance appraisal system?, it would be able to enhance the advantages of evaluating performance. It measures what exactly? Are people or groups evaluated? Who performs the evaluation? Is the procedure viewed as fair?

4. There are many variables that might influence the relationship between incentives and perform, but some of the questions that fall under this category include: How are people paid? Are incentives correlated with the achievement of performance goals or the development of new skills? If they are, is compensation determined by an organization's, a group's, or an individual's performance?

5. How are candidates for advancement found and prepared? Because they can impact motivation, it may be helpful to go over the many status distinctions that exist and their influence on output.

Enabling Motivated Employees to Engage in Discretionary Behaviours

According to Bailey, the contribution of highly skilled and motivated workers would be constrained unless their occupations are designed in a way that enables them to use their knowledge and abilities to enhance how they carry out their duties. Employees are able to engage in such discretionary behaviors thanks to a variety of initiatives.

Organizational structures: How are they set up, and how does that effect how well-rounded employees can become in their work?

For instance, is the organization process-based or does it have a functional structure with people working in silos?Does the organization employ parallel and ad hoc structures to encourage the sharing of concepts for performance improvement, such as quality circles and awaydays?

1. **Job Design:**Are workers hired to carry out precisely defined tasks that are low skill-required, or does the job design place an emphasis on a total activity that combines doing and thinking? Do people work alone or in groups?

2. **Locus of decision-making:** Is decision-making decentralized and delegated or is it centralized at the top of the organization?

3. **Employee voice:** Is feedback welcomed? Is it permitted to discuss both broad and specific topics? How are upward, lateral, and downward communications facilitated?

4. **Self-managed teams:** Do self-managed teams have any authority to make decisions?

Self-managed teams and delegated decision making are recommended as the guiding concepts for organizational design by Pfeffer.

He contends that teams can replace hierarchical control with peer-based control, encourage people to share ideas and find better solutions to problems, and offer a setting in which employees can more readily assist one another and share their production knowledge.

Other Benefits from High Performance Management Practices

According to Pfeffer, high commitment work methods can result in savings through lowering administrative costs.

Many supervisory positions can be eliminated by giving more authority to employees lower on the organizational hierarchy. High commitment work practices can also cut back on many of the expenses related to having a disenchanted staff that is at odds with management.

DISCUSSION

Alignment of People Management Practices: The Essence of High-Performance Management

Because changes are made piecemeal and are concentrated on certain practices, such selection, performance appraisal, compensation, or training, many attempts to increase performance through the adoption of new people management practices fail. If other practices stay the same, increasing resources for one activity, such as training, may not have much of an impact. For instance, if positions are not changed in a way that allows people the freedom to use their new knowledge and abilities, the potential benefits of training may be lost. If employees and the organization are to gain from what MacDuffie refers to as multiple, mutually reinforcing conditions, people management methods must be coordinated with one another.

Some people believe that alignment is the key component of high-performance management systems and that techniques can be used in any way as long as they are internally consistent. However, there is a broad consensus that a high level of commitment is the best method to ensure excellent performance. This school of thinking supports a set of procedures that supports the commitment approach to management rather than the control approach. The three-pronged approach to performance improvement described above is theoretically underpinned by the idea that techniques in people management should be aimed at boosting commitment in order to encourage discretionary behavior. High commitment management practices include employment security, selective hiring, self-managed teams and decentralized decision making, high compensation contingent on performance, extensive training, reduced status distinctions, and extensive information sharing, which are all characteristics of systems that produce profits through people.

Being implemented is not always simple. It can be challenging to transition from a control- to a commitment-oriented set of management practices since many managers are devoted to the control philosophy. According to the one-eighth rule, which Pfeffer mentions, only approximately half of all senior managers think there might be a link between how firms manage their employees and their financial success. Only approximately half of these will seek to change more than one people management practice, failing to recognize that effective people management necessitates a more thorough and organized approach. Only approximately half of the firms where managers do implement significant changes will stick with them long enough to see any financial rewards.Many times, it takes a paradigm shift for some managers to adopt a commitment-based high performance management strategy. Pfeffer contends that any attempt to implement high performance management practices is likely to fail if managers view their staff as expenses that need to be cut, as recalcitrant employees prone to opportunism, shirking, and free riding, as people who can't be trusted and who need to be closely controlled through monitoring, rewards, and sanctions. Implementation success demands a mentality that sees people as inherently reliable, smart, and driven.

Diagnosing the Alignment of People Management Practices

The two-part alignment diagnosis, which is a crucial component of every high-performance management solution, as described by Pfeffer. The first, which deals with external alignment, entails determining how closely management practices match the organization's business goal. The second focuses on internal alignment and involves determining how closely people management methods line up with one another.Use the Change Tools 1 and 2 listed below to evaluate how well your organization's people management practices are aligned. If you are a student with little to no work experience, you can still practice diagnosing external alignment by researching a company's strategy online (some businesses publish their strategy on their

website), and then coming up with a list of the competencies and people management techniques you believe would be necessary to achieve this.

Change Tool 1: Diagnosing External Alignment

Diagnosing external alignment involves four steps

1. Examining the company's approach.
2. Recognizing the important behaviors and related competencies needed to implement the plan.
3. Determining the methods used by the company to manage people.
4. Evaluating how each people management and HR practice aligns with the skills and attitudes needed to carry out the organization's strategy.

Does each practice encourage the presence and use of essential skills and behaviors?We'll think about each stage in turn.

1. Defining the plan of the company. A company's strategy outlines how it will match its resources with the opportunities, restrictions, and demands in the external environment. The value propositions the firm makes to stakeholders are implied in this claim. Please summarize your company's strategy.
2. Identifying the crucial actions and relevant skills needed to carry out the approach. When a company's strategy is built on providing outstanding customer service and the majority of employees deal directly with customers, the company requires employees with the skillsets to back up this value proposition. A different set of competencies will be necessary if, on the other hand, the strategy is predicated on being the first to market with innovative items. Pfeffer advises focusing only on the six or so behaviors and associated abilities that are most crucial. The external alignment matrix shown below allows for these to be entered at the beginning of the columns.
3. Identifying the methods, the business use to manage its personnel. According to Bailey'sconcept of how HR practices might impact performance, the external alignment matrix is separated into three sections. The first section deals with the practices and regulations that have an impact on the availability and development of the competencies required to exhibit the requisite behaviors. Recruitment, selection, induction, training, additional professional development opportunities, attendance, and information exchange are a few examples of these procedures. The second section deals with procedures that influence workers' motivation to engage in independent actions that call for using crucial skills to enhance performance.
4. These practices include internal promotion systems, status distinctions, performance evaluation, redeployment and severance pay, incentives, and employee security. The third section focuses on procedures that enable motivated workers to participate in independent actions that boost performance. Organizational design, temporary and parallel structures, job design, locus of decision-making, and employee voice are some of these techniques. To reflect your organization's current approach to HRM, review your people management procedures and make the necessary changes to the list in the external alignment matrix below. You might also add more techniques to this list that, if used properly, could help you achieve high performance.
5. Evaluating each people management practice's congruence with the skills and conduct necessary to realize the organization's business strategy. This entails determining the likelihood that each people management practice indicated in your external alignment matrix would support the competencies and behaviors you selected as being essential for the strategy's implementation. Pfeffer advises using a three-point scale, with +1 denoting alignment with the organization's business plan and supporting the development of necessary competences and behaviors, 0 denoting neutral effect, and -

1 denoting misalignment. This process is an effective technique to pinpoint areas with significant misalignment and a clear need for action to create and put into place a revised people management practice. Some of the most typical alignment-related issues are listed by Pfeffer. Two of these relate to the relationship between training activities and skills as well as the relationship between pay and the accomplishment of important performance goals:

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, high performance management is a tactical strategy that seeks to maximize organizational performance through goal alignment, the establishment of a high-performance culture, the adoption of efficient management techniques, and the investment in personnel development.

Organizations may increase productivity, employee engagement, and overall effectiveness by putting a strong emphasis on excellence, responsibility, and continuous improvement.

Organizations are given the tools they need by high performance management to innovate, adapt to changing surroundings, and prevail over the competition of today. When it comes to training and necessary skills, many businesses prioritize topics like time management and negotiating skills since they are generally useful, but they disregard the essential talents that are directly related to achieving strategic goals. Pfeffer illustrates the issue with remuneration and key performance targets by using the example of a company rewarding managers for making budget numbers when the really crucial criteria had to do with being innovative, quick, and customer-focused.

REFERENCES:

[1]   D. Llinas and J. Abad, "The role of high-performance people management practices in industry 4.0: The case of medium-sized Spanish firms," *Intang. Cap.*, 2019, doi: 10.3926/ic.1485.

[2]   R. Wiesner, J. Mcdonald, and H. C. Banham, "Australian small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs): A study of high performance management practices," *J. Manag. Organ.*, 2007, doi: 10.5172/jmo.2007.13.3.227.

[3]   J. Miles, A. González, and N. Mandirola, "High performance management and their impact on business results: The case of uruguay and Argentina," *J. Technol. Manag. Innov.*, 2018, doi: 10.4067/S0718-27242018000200057.

[4]   H. Ismail and A. Warrak, "The Impact of High Performance management on Employee Retention," *Int. J. Acad. Res. Bus. Soc. Sci.*, 2019.

[5]   S. Wood and C. Ogbonnaya, "High-Involvement Management, Economic Recession, Well-Being, and Organizational Performance," *J. Manage.*, 2018, doi: 10.1177/0149206316659111.

[6]   K. Murphy and M. Olsen, "Dimensions of a high performance management system: An exploratory study of the US casual restaurant segment," *Int. J. Contemp. Hosp. Manag.*, 2009, doi: 10.1108/09596110910985313.

[7]   J. Jyoti and A. Rani, "High performance work system and organisational performance: role of knowledge management," *Pers. Rev.*, 2017, doi: 10.1108/PR-10-2015-0262.

[8]   K. S. Murphy and S. Murrmann, "The research design used to develop a high performance management system construct for US restaurant managers," *Int. J. Hosp. Manag.*, 2009, doi: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2009.03.003.

[9]   C. J. Salgado *et al.*, "Feminizing the Face: Combination of Frontal Bone Reduction and Reduction Rhinoplasty," *Case Rep. Surg.*, 2018, doi: 10.1155/2018/1947807.

[10]   Z. Wang, F. Zheng, and S. Xue, "The economic feasibility of the valorization of water hyacinth for bioethanol production," *Sustain.*, 2019, doi: 10.3390/su11030905.

CHAPTER 19

A BRIEF OVERVIEW TO BUSINESS PROCESS RE-ENGINEERING

Prof. Rajesh Mehrotra, Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-rajeshmehrotra.sbm@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Business process re-engineering (BPR) is a strategic strategy that aims to restructure and enhance organizational processes to provide transformative outcomes. It involves a methodical analysis of current procedures to eliminate inefficiencies, cut costs, and improve overall performance. BPR focuses on customer value, fresh start, and cross-functional cooperation. The process involves identification, analysis, redesign, implementation, and monitoring stages. Analyzing current procedures helps identify bottlenecks, overlaps, and potential improvements. The redesign stage focuses on developing a new, efficient procedure aligned with corporate goals, redefining roles and responsibilities, and optimizing workflows. Implementation involves managing the change process, training staff, and implementing new systems or tools. BPR offers advantages such as enhanced customer satisfaction, decreased costs, higher operational efficiency, and increased agility. By rethinking and redesigning processes, organizations can adapt to changing market conditions and consumer expectations, gain a competitive edge, and foster a culture of innovation and continuous improvement.

KEYWORDS:

Business, Change, Organization, Process, Reengineering.

INTRODUCTION

Business process re-engineering (BPR) is a technostructural intervention that involves switching attention away from fragmented functional thinking towards cross-functional processes. Reviews some of the debates about BPR, such as whether it requires a fundamental rethink and radical change or incremental improvement organization wide wholesale transformation or localized piecemeal changetop-down direction or collaborative effort. Presents BPR as a seven-stage process that involves process mapping, identifying which process to reengineer, understanding the selected process, defining key performance objectives, designing new processes, testing and implementation. Argues that BPR can be a highly politicized process that often involves jurisdictional disputes when managers are required to let go of activities or decisions they value. Discusses research findings regarding the success of BPR interventions. Some reports suggest that a high percentage of interventions fail to deliver intended outcomes, but there is evidence that when BPR is successfully implemented it can deliver impressive improvements. Contextual factors that can affect outcomes are discussed [1]–[4].

The Effect of Organizational Structure on Performance

The division of labor theory, which Adam Smith1776/1950 initially introduced in The Wealth of Nations, has had an impact on the structure of the majority of companies. Smith noted that rather than assigning the entire operation to a single generalist worker, it was considerably more effective to divide the process of creating pins into numerous parts that could be completed by specialists. Today, firms that organize their activities around specialized roles rather than value-generating processes exhibit this principle. According to Hammer and Champy, a lot of businesses have vertical structures that resemble functional silos and are constructed from small segments of a process.

They use the order fulfillment process, which begins when a consumer puts an order and concludes when the goods are delivered, to demonstrate how this impacts organizational functioning: A member of the credit department, which is most likely a division of the financial organization, is responsible for checking a customer's credit. Workers in the warehouse who may be subordinates of the vice president of manufacturing pick up inventory. On the other side, logistics also includes shipping. No one in a process looks outward toward the client; instead, everyone is focused inward toward their department and upward toward their boss. BPR entails refocusing on cross-functional activities that add value for the organization rather than fragmented, functionally driven thinking. According to Kaplan and Murdock, businesses can become more responsive to changes in competitive conditions, market expectations, product life cycles, and technology by concentrating on and rethinking fundamental processes to make them faster and more flexible[5]–[8].

The Nature of BPR

BPR is the basic rethinking and radical redesign of business processes to yield noticeably better performance, according to Hammer and Champy. Below, some of the opposing viewpoints on BPR are reviewed.

Fundamental Rethink and Radical Change or Incremental Improvement?

BPR, according to Hammer and Champy, is 'fundamental' because it entails posing the most fundamental inquiries regarding an organization's operations, which raise numerous challenging hypotheses. BPR entails investigating why an organization does what it does, as opposed to just looking at if something can be done better. For instance, personnel in charge of re-engineering the order fulfillment process mentioned above should wonder whether credit checks are actually necessary rather than assuming they are a necessary step in the procedure. Because doing a check is more expensive than any potential losses from bad debts, it is feasible that monitoring a customer's credit adds no value at all. According to Hammer and Champy, established practices, routines, and procedures should not have an impact on new thinking. They recommend a clean sheet strategy for process redesign.

It is refuted by Davenport and Stoddard. They claim that, in practice, a clean sheet technique is infrequently used based on interviews with managers from more than 200 different firms and thorough study on 35 reengineering initiatives. Companies that do use this strategy frequently distinguish clearly between clean sheet design and clean sheet implementation. They might utilize a clean sheet approach to design since it might offer a picture of a world with the best-of-all-processes on which the organization can concentrate its transformation initiatives. Davenport and Stoddard reported that designers frequently start with a dirty slate, taking into account the opportunities for enabling a new process and the constraints that disable it You can design assuming a clean slate, but you must implement assuming the existing state. The design team could create the best process feasible given the enablers and constraints if they kept both design components in mind. Although this is a less appealing and more challenging design approach, designing with a dirty slate typically results in a more workable process.

Organization-Wide Wholesome Transformation or Localized Piecemeal Change?

According to Hammer and Champy, fast transformation rather than piecemeal change is necessary for BPR to succeed. Re-engineering is not, according to Davenport and Stoddard1994, incompatible with continuous improvement. They concur that re-engineering is a process that can aid in organizational change, but they do not concur that the two are equivalent. They note that numerous organizations have failed in their attempts to undergo dramatic transformation because they tried to alter too many processes at once. They also note that they observed a number of businesses effectively implementing hybrid designs, in

which processes were re-engineered within a functional organization like the marketing division. In their thorough investigation of BPR at the Leicester Royal Infirmary McNulty and Ferlie present findings that are consistent with Davenport and Stoddard's viewpoint. They discovered that, in contrast to the intended strategy, which was radical and revolutionary, the emerging strategy of re-engineering had an overall convergent and evolutionary approach. The initial radical ambition for organizational process reform was scaled back as the re-engineering effort progressed and recast in accordance with functional organizational principles that supported the preexisting pattern of specializations and clinical directorates. Re-engineers quickly realized that in order to affect change at the specialty and clinical directorate levels, they needed the help of managers and clinicians.

Top-Down Direction or Collaborative Effort

Re-engineering is typically seen as a top-down process by those who contend it offers a radical, system-wide approach to change. For instance, Hammer and Champy think that those on the front lines lack the wide perspective that re-engineering requires. They may be able to identify the specific issues that plague their departments possibly better than anyone else - but they struggle to view a process holistically and identify that a process' poor general design is the root of their issues.Additionally, they contend that middle managers lack the necessary power to alter processes that transcend organizational boundaries. However, other people think that re-engineering might be a process that is more participatory. Despite acknowledging that innovative designs for broad processes are unlikely to come from anyone whose head is buried deep in the bowels of the existing process, Davenport and Stoddard see no reason why all members of design teams must be high up in the organizational hierarchy. They contend that folks on the front lines may offer important insight into the planning of certain process activities.

Additionally, they provide instances of organizational members who failed to put newly created processes into practice since they had no involvement in their development.At the Leicester Royal Infirmary, re-engineering began as a top-down initiative to identify, rethink, and implement hospital-wide fundamental procedures. An architecture of reengineering committees, reengineering laboratory's physical locations where teams of reengineers may work on the redesign of processes and internal and external change agents was used to develop a central reengineering competence. This initial plan started to fail and was later replaced by a decentralized model in which management within clinical directorates took up reengineering duties from a specific team of re-engineers. It was at this juncture, according to McNulty and Ferlie, that the enthusiasm and momentum for change intensified because people felt more able to adopt, adapt and customize re-engineering ideas to suit specific local needs and goals[9], [10].

DISCUSSION

The Application of BPR

BPR typically involves seven steps, which are now discussed in detail. A process is a sequence of steps that results in a result. Process maps demonstrate the movement of work within an organization. Manufacturing, R&D, or marketing are examples of organizational units that people are more familiar with than the processes that these divisions support. Order fulfilment order to payment, including intermediate phases like manufacturing, product development idea to prototype, and sales prospect to order are a few examples of processes in a commercial organization. Patient testing referral to diagnosis and patient stays admit to discharge are two examples of processes in a healthcare setting. There are typically only a few fundamental processes in most businesses, but each one may include several subprocesses. Any BPR initiative should begin by mapping the processes that help the organization achieve its goals.

It will typically be impossible to re-engineer all of the organization's processes at once, even when the goal is to use BPR to drastically transform the business in the shortest amount of time. Three criteria are offered by Hammer and Champy1993 for selecting which processes to reengineer and in what order. As follows Dysfunction refers to processes that are the most problematic. Processes that have the biggest impact on the organization's consumers are the most important. Feasibility the procedures that are most amenable to effective redesign. According to the classical school of BPR, the re-engineering team does not need to do any in-depth analysis; rather, it only needs to understand the process, what it does, how well it does it, and any significant factors that govern its performance. Too much analysis, according to Hammer and Champy1993, can focus attention on internal processes rather than on questioning ingrained preconceptions.

They contend that effort should be directed on achieving a high degree of understanding, beginning with what the process produces and how closely these results adhere to what customers actually desire. This then serves as the foundation for an exercise in clean sheet design. However, other people believe that it is beneficial to start with a dirty slate and search for chances to incrementally enhance processes as was said above. Working with an existing process and looking for chances for gradual improvement is one way to improve processes in healthcare settings. Another method is to start from scratch and drastically alter a process.

The re-engineering team and other stakeholders' assumptions about what the customer needs from the process provide the foundation for the key performance objectives. They serve as a foundation for defining the metrics that will demonstrate whether the adjustments have been successful. Sometimes benchmarking is used to assist define performance goals, but re-engineers must be aware of the risk that benchmarking may limit ambition to what is already being achieved by the best of the rest and stifle creative thinking about what the process might produce. Baselining, the process of gathering and storing information about past performance-re-engineering, can aid in the creation of reasonable performance goals and serve as a foundation for evaluating the project's success.

An employee of an insurance business noted that working on a large claim cost the same per hour as working on a small claim. This made people consider what may be done to lower the price of resolving claims. The goal of the gathering was to discuss potential solutions. One suggestion was to modify the process for small claims to shorten the time needed to settle them by introducing a phase early in the process that would sort out those claims that would cost a lot to resolve often those including a claim for personal injury and those that would not. One idea for reaching this result was to settle any claim for less than a specific sum right away. While some team members believed that this could encourage fraud and drive up the cost of claims, others believed that this risk could be minimized by only providing fast settlement to policyholders with a strong no-claims history. Another suggestion was to give the agent control over claims under a certain threshold. This prompted someone else to propose that the garage be given the opportunity to handle the claim, doing away with the requirement for several of the steps in the current procedure.

This idea was first rejected because to concerns that garages may drive up the cost of repairs. The team was brought back to this notion, though, and someone made the argument that many garages would be ready to toil for low margins if doing so would help them gain more business from the insurance company. It was also acknowledged that doing so would increase consumer happiness while also lowering expenses for the insurance provider. Customers most desired to have their vehicle back on the road as soon as feasible. Some new, difficult concepts were brought forward at this first meeting that deserved additional consideration and testing. In order to reduce hand-offs and waiting times, it also included applying a number of re-engineering ideas, such as structuring work around outcomes like decreased cost and increased customer satisfaction. Additionally, it entailed challenging some deeply ingrained

beliefs, such as the notion that garages cannot be trusted. The new process can be put into place and, if necessary, distributed to other areas of the company if the testing are successful. If the redesigned procedure is to be applied to influential persons or groups that were not involved in and committed to the re-engineering process, however, extreme caution must be taken. When managers are forced to abandon tasks and choices they value, BPR can become extremely politicized and frequently involves legal disputes.

Results from BPR

Research findings on the effects of BPR are conflicting. According to research by Cummings and Worley2001 of 497 US companies and 1,245 European companies, 60% of US companies and 75% of European companies had at least one re-engineering project underway, but only 15% of them had reported successful results. Compared to the results published by Caron et al.1994, this is very different. Although just half of Cigna's 20 BPR initiatives, a top provider of insurance and related financial services, were successful the first time around, they discovered that reengineering had a very beneficial impact and the business saved more than $100 million overall. They stated that some of the most effective projects were those carried out in isolated places. Process re-engineering attempts to drastically alter a big hospital were fiercely debated, according to McNulty and Ferlie2002, and the results of the transformation were varied throughout the institution. Results were significantly influenced by contextual factors, particularly those that dealt with how much control doctors had over work procedures.

Additionally, they discovered that procedures or portions of processes that did not cross borders between clinical directorates or between directorates and outside agencies were simpler to secure change in. This supports one of the conclusions made by Caron et al.1994, who found that some of the initiatives that were carried out in isolated locations were the most effective ones.McNulty and Ferlie noted that the re-engineering process did play a significant role in securing change despite the numerous challenges faced when attempting to redesign the hospital. For instance, there were some beneficial results in the field of trauma orthopedic care. The baseline activity generated facts about patient activity that could be used to support the case for change. The re-engineers and other stakeholders, including doctors, were able to analyze and comprehend the care process using process mapping and create a vision for change. Finally, piloting enabled some modifications to be implemented, frequently without people recognizing a significant shift had occurred.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, business process re-engineering is a revolutionary strategy that empowers companies to significantly boost productivity, cost-effectiveness, and client pleasure. BPR enables firms to minimize inefficiencies, optimize workflows, and utilize technology for peak performance by questioning conventional ways of thinking and completely reinventing processes. Increased operational effectiveness, lower costs, improved customer value, and a continuous improvement culture are all advantages of BPR. Organizations may adapt, innovate, and survive in a dynamic and cutthroat business environment by adopting business process re-engineering.

REFERENCES:

[1]   D. Remenyi and A. Heafield, "Business process re-engineering: Some aspects of how to evaluate and manage the risk exposure," *Int. J. Proj. Manag.*, 1996, doi: 10.1016/0263-7863(96)00013-0.

[2]   A. Patwardhan and D. Patwardhan, "Business process re-engineering - Saviour or just another fad? One UK health care perspective," *International Journal of Health Care Quality Assurance*. 2008. doi: 10.1108/09526860810868229.

[3] S. K. Sia and B. S. Neo, "The impacts of business process re-engineering on organizational controls," *Int. J. Proj. Manag.*, 1996, doi: 10.1016/0263-7863(96)00015-4.

[4] M. A. Larsen and M. D. Myers, "When success turns into failure: A package-driven business process re-engineering project in the financial services industry," *J. Strateg. Inf. Syst.*, 1999, doi: 10.1016/S0963-8687(00)00025-1.

[5] J. Peppard, "Broadening visions of business process re-engineering," *Omega*, 1996, doi: 10.1016/0305-0483(95)00063-1.

[6] K. Wei Khong and S. Richardson, "Business process re-engineering in Malaysian banks and finance companies," *Manag. Serv. Qual. An Int. J.*, 2003, doi: 10.1108/09604520310456717.

[7] B. Beškovnik and M. Zanne, "Business Process Re-Engineering of a Maritime Car Terminal: Changing from Inbound to Outbound Intermodal Node in Finished Vehicle Logistics (FVL)," *Polish Marit. Res.*, 2018, doi: 10.2478/pomr-2018-0096.

[8] G. N. Evans, D. R. Towill, and M. M. Naim, "Business process re-engineering the supply chain," *Prod. Plan. Control*, 1995, doi: 10.1080/09537289508930275.

[9] S. Mohapatra and A. Choudhury, "Readiness Framework for Business Process Re-engineering," *Strateg. Chang.*, 2016, doi: 10.1002/jsc.2077.

[10] B. Ostadi, M. Aghdasi, and A. Alibabaei, "An examination of the influences of desired organisational capabilities in the preparation stage of business process re-engineering projects," *Int. J. Prod. Res.*, 2011, doi: 10.1080/00207543.2010.501829.

CHAPTER 20

LEAN: STREAMLINING PROCESSES FOR EFFICIENCY AND EFFECTIVENESS

Prof. Rajesh Mehrotra, Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-rajeshmehrotra.sbm@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

This chapter examines whether lean is a philosophy underlying the lean enterprise, providing value to end customers, or a set of tools and procedures. It covers the evolution of lean thinking, takes into account Womack and Jones' five tenets, and reviews tools and techniques used by practitioners. It also discusses the Toyota Production System, a successful example of lean application in both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing contexts.Lean Enterprises is a management concept that focuses on adding value to consumers while reducing waste and increasing efficiency. It originated from the Toyota Production System and has spread across various sectors. Core tenets include waste detection, continuous improvement, respect for people, and a customer-centric approach. Kaizen, or continuous improvement, involves staff members in identifying and implementing incremental changes, fostering a culture of innovation and adaptation. Lean emphasizes pull, minimizing waste and inventory. Tools like value stream mapping, standardized work, the 5S methodology, just-in-time production, and visual management help organizations analyze processes, cut waste, and improve workflow and communication. This approach leads to increased productivity, lower costs, higher quality, shorter lead times, and higher customer satisfaction.

KEYWORDS:

Change, Communication, Lean, Organizations, Times.

INTRODUCTION

The term lean was first used by Womack et al. to describe a manufacturing system that produces more with progressively less. It is a customer-focused approach that attempts to give clients precisely what they need, without any flaws, at the precise time they need it.Womack and Jones outlined five guiding principles for their lean methodology Set values with precision for each product or product family. Determine value streams for each product to reveal waste. Ensure uninterrupted value flow. Let consumers extract value from the producer, Strive for excellence by identifying and eliminating more waste [1]–[4].

A Philosophy or a Set of Tools

Lean is seen as a philosophy by some practitioners while a set of tools and procedures by others. The focus of toolkit-oriented practitioners is on applying tools, such as control charts, the 5S and 7 wastes, total productive maintenance, just-in-time JIT inventories, and so forth, to achieve particular goals. These specialized outcomes may involve change initiatives that are limited to certain areas of the business or aimed at achieving certain objectives, such cost reduction. Those that see lean as a philosophy, on the other hand, place more emphasis on working in accordance with guiding principles and overall objectives to develop a lean enterprise. They take a more comprehensive approach and take into account how performance throughout the entire company may be impacted by relationships between and the synergistic impacts of related practices.Lean thinking was initially created in the context of manufacturing, but it has since branched out and is now widely used in industries including finance, health, and education. This chapter discusses the problems that must be taken into account while applying lean in these various contexts[5]–[8].

Antecedents of Lean Thinking

In order to construct Model T Fords, Henry Ford developed the first flow production line in 1913. It was a noteworthy invention to manufacture car parts on specialized equipment that generated identical and interchangeable parts. Because they were identical and could be fitted without any last-minute alteration, these components were transported to the necessary location on a moving assembly line. Workers followed standardized procedures to fit them and quickly build their section of the automobile as it proceeded down the line.Ford's assembly line, which incorporated flow and inventory control to supply affordable automobiles to a growing market, was groundbreaking. But it has several significant drawbacks. For instance, the production system was unable to keep up with the demands of increasingly sophisticated and diversified clients. It wasn't adaptable. Almost every machine used to create components created a single part. Years could be used to quantify cycle times. Production of new products moved slowly. For instance, the chassis manufactured when production ceased in 1926 were substantially the same as those manufactured when it started in 1913.

Customers had a restricted selection due to this rigidity, which is best summed up by the oft-quoted adage: You can have any color you want as long as it's black. Customers were eventually given a choice of body types;however, this was accomplished by dropping several bodies onto identical cars at the end of the assembly line.Some of the advantages of flow production have been diminished by efforts to improve flexibility. Businesses created production processes that entailed building batches of components on more powerful and quick machines. Machines were reset to generate a fresh batch of various components once a sufficient number of one component had been produced. Greater flexibility and lower component unit prices were provided by this batch method, but these advantages came at a price.The production process frequently has separate steps. Times for throughput accelerated. A entire batch of subpar components could be produced, and the error might not be discovered until an item from that batch was utilized, necessitating higher inventories to accommodate components that had to be stored until needed.

Sakichi Toyoda, the creator of the Toyota Group, created a loom that would stop immediately if a thread snapped in 1902, eleven years before Henry Ford created his first manufacturing line. This sparked the creation of additional self-monitoring devices that could spot flaws deviations from the norm as soon as they appeared. Process halting, to identify and remove the source of problems, eventually evolved beyond self-monitoring devices and became one of the pillars of the Toyota Production System. When they noticed an issue, workers were urged to step in and halt production. This made it possible to contain issues. The elimination of the root cause was given urgent attention, which helped with continual improvement. The work that is reflected in lean thinking involved numerous additional people. Standardized work methods were developed and implemented with help from F.W. Taylor.JIT scheduling techniques were created by Toyota engineer Taiichi Ohno, who was motivated by customer demand rather than sales or production goals. W.E. Deming's early work on the statistical control of processes during the interwar period served as the basis for his subsequent research on the common ordinary, measurable and special rare, non-quantifiable causes of variation and the idea of quality.

 He started working with Japanese manufacturers shortly after the Second World War to implement his ideas to enhance quality while lowering costs by eliminating waste and gaining market share by giving customers what they desired. He used systems thinking to optimize end-to-end procedures like order fulfillment from the time an order is placed to the time payment is received, including intermediate steps like manufacturing, statistics to understand and manage variation, motivating staff by showing them how their actions affected performance, matching goals to actual customer needs, and using a plan, do, study,

act PDSA approach to learning.Members of the Toyoda family studied Ford's assembly lines in the 1930s and again after the end of World War II, as well as other innovations in Japan and elsewhere, to investigate the possibility of developing a production system that could offer high variety, low cost, high quality, and quick throughput times. These ideas were brought together by Taiichi Ohno, who also created the Toyota Production System, which is covered in greater detail below[9].

DISCUSSION

Womack and Jones's Five Principles of Lean Thinking

Lean thinking, as mentioned in the chapter introduction, entails defining value, sequencing value-creating activities in the most efficient order, carrying out these activities uninterrupted whenever customer demand pulls them to do so, and continually looking for new ways to improve this process. We'll go over each of Womack and Jones's 1996 five principles one at a time.

Specifying Value

Lean thinking's crucial first step, specifying value, must be carried out from the viewpoint of the final consumer. All too frequently, value definition begins with consideration of other stakeholders, such as stockholders.According to Womack and Jones 1996, it can be challenging to define value since many producers place an undue emphasis on the goods or services they already create while many consumers only consider some variation of what they already receive. If they do make an effort to rethink value, they might just fall back on tried-and-true formulas like reduced price, more variety, or rapid delivery rather than questioning the status quo and determining what is actually required. They provide various examples to support this idea. As an illustration, Doyle Wilson Housebuilders launched a radical total quality management TQM program that was well-received by clients and assisted the business in gaining market share.

Doyle Wilson started to wonder why the other 78% of homebuyers selected older homes when he realized that just 22% of individuals who were buying a home purchased a new home. Instead of focusing just on what his current clients' purchasers of new homes valued, he looked into why 78% of non-clients chose older homes. This led to some insightful discoveries. Because of the perceived hassle involved in negotiating the build specification, the lengthy lead times before moving in, the unavoidable to-be-done lists of work still needing to be done after moving in, and the phony choices offered by builders who promised customized homes but then loaded them with standard equipment, they shied away from purchasing new homes. Womack and Jones discuss how this fresh viewpoint sparked a radical reevaluation of what consumers valued and what a new home builder needed to offer.

The Specification of Value in terms of the Whole Product or Service

Value is typically produced by numerous departments within an organization or numerous businesses within a supply chain. When any of these components of the value stream fails to understand how their activities affect value from the perspective of the end user, problems start to occur. For instance, a business committed to creating well-designed, high-quality furniture and selling directly to consumers may decide to cut expenses by outsourcing delivery to a private trucking company. In exchange, the haulage contractor can choose to reduce expenses by paying drivers on a commission basis. This may have the effect of encouraging drivers to perform as many 'drops' as they can in order to increase their earnings and discouraging them from spending time with clients in order to assist them in removing and discarding packaging, inspecting the quality of their purchase before signing for delivery, or carrying the furniture from the front door to the desired location.

Customers may value each of these services individually. This last component of the value chain has the potential to seriously disrupt the furniture company's efforts to provide value to the client. The haulage contractor and the drivers it employs have the power to erode client loyalty and negatively impact product demand by concentrating on their own short-term objectivesin order to rethink value, it is necessary for all participants in the value stream to have frank conversations with one another about how they might each increase the value of the whole good or service from the viewpoint of the consumer.

Target Cost

After value has been established, target cost can be specified. After all, currently visible waste has been eliminated from the process, this is the quantity of resources and labor needed to manufacture the good or service in accordance with the necessary specifications, according to Womack and Jones 1996. This target cost serves as the lens through which each stage in the value stream is examined.

Identifying the Value Stream and Eliminating Wasteful Steps

One efficient method of revealing waste is through identifying and mapping value streams.The process of mapping a value stream entail identifying every action that, in the eyes of the consumer, provides value and classifying those that don't into type one and type two waste. All operations that provide no value but are necessary given present technologies and production resources are classified as type one waste. Activities that don't bring value but are easily preventable are referred to as type two waste. Once type two waste has been eliminated, it will be possible to use flow, pull, and other lean strategies that will be covered later in this chapter to work on removing the remaining type one non-value-adding steps.Value stream mapping shouldn't be limited to the confines of a single supply chain organization. The lean enterprise idea encompasses the entire value chain, which frequently involves contributions from multiple organizations.

Making Value Flow

The remaining value-creating processes can be made to flow once the value has been defined, the value stream has been mapped, and steps that are manifestly inefficient have been removed. Radical change may be necessary when re-engineering to achieve flow. For instance, a batch and queue production system might need significant adjustment. This could entail the creation of more compact machines, quicker techniques for switching tools to enable the manufacturing of smaller batches, and the co-location of related processes in the production process to reduce waste from moving partially finished components between locations. A continuous flow arrangement frequently entails sequencing related production steps within a single cell and transporting the product swiftly from one step to the next without any wasted work-in-progress gaps in between.

Making value flow calls for a three-pronged strategy, according to Womack and Jones 1996. Following the product as it moves through the value stream is the first step, which is taken once value has been defined and the end-to-end value stream has been recognized. The second strategy, which is similar to the clean sheet approach to BPR discussed in Chapter 21, ignores traditional boundaries and other barriers to continuous flow, and the third strategy entails reevaluating particular work practices and tools to eliminate backflows, scrap, and all other unnecessary sources of stoppages so that the process can continue continuously.

Womack and Jones 1996 are skeptical of the re-engineering movement, despite the fact that some lean principles and some features of BPR are identical. Although re-engineers aim to divert attention from inefficient departmental/functional thinking to value-creating processes, in their opinion, they focus excessively on aggregated processes, such as taking orders for a wide variety of products, rather than the value-creating activities for a particular product or

product family. Additionally, they contend that re-engineers frequently focus only on implementing change within a single business and that they take a top-down, expert-driven strategy that frequently fails to involve workers. They contrast this with their own lean mindset, which promotes employee involvement, concentrates on particular products, and adopts a lean enterprise approach that takes into account all the phases in a value stream, even if they span other enterprises.

Pulling Flow

Although flow is essential, it is insufficient. The production system needs to be pulled through with flow. According to the pull theory, nothing is created until it is needed downstream. In 1996, Womack and Jones made a crucial distinction between push and pull. Any unexpected drop in demand when products are pushed through a production system to fulfill a sales projection can result in a quick accumulation of undesirable finished goods waste, which, if not discarded, may have to be sold off at a steep discount. Making exactly what clients want, when they want it, is a component of lean production. Figure 1 shows how the system pulls flow as a result of requests made farther down the line. Customers take the product from the manufacturer, and every step of production downstream in the system takes inputs from stages of production upstream that are close by.
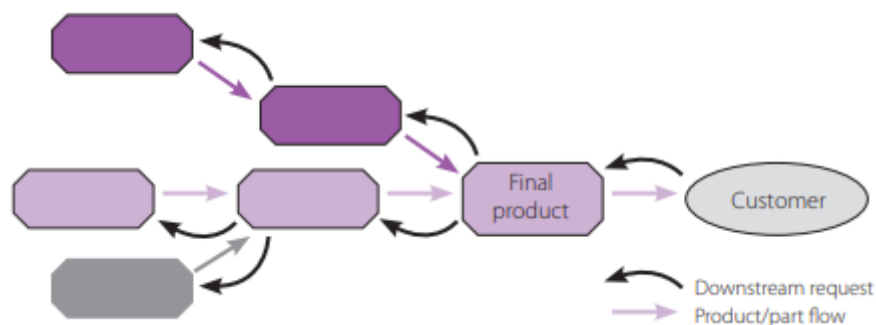

Figure 1: Parts being pulled in response to customer requests [Research Gate.Net].

Perfection: Continually Searching for Improvement

Early stages of the lean transformation process may entail discontinuous change, such as a dramatic realignment of the value stream, such as switching from a batch and queue system to a continuous flow system pushed by customer demand. However, this is not where the hunt for progress should end.

The constant pursuit of continuous improvement, or kaizan, is a key lean philosophy. The full eradication of waste is perfection. The pursuit of perfection is an endless endeavor, according to Womack and Jones 1996, p. 94, who compare perfection to infinity: Trying to envision it and to get there is actually impossible, but the effort to do so provides inspiration and direction essential to making progress along the path. They contend that the first four lean principles work in concert to create a positive feedback loop.

Attempts to increase value flow reveal hidden sources of waste. Pulling products through the system reveals barriers to flow, and working with consumers to clarify the meaning of value invariably reveals new opportunities for value addition, streamlining flow, and enhancing pull.

The pursuit of perfection entails determining the distance between the present state of affairs and perfection; then, as opposed to attempting to address every issue at once, prioritizing the primary sources of waste and concentrating effort on them to close the distance.Womack and Jones 1996 argue that when pursuing perfection, one thing at a time should be the center of attention, and this should be done continually until the desired improvement is attained.

Some Other Lean Tools and Techniques

Waste can be found via value stream mapping, the fundamental tool for implementing lean. Employees can utilize Taiichi Ohno's seven wastes as a helpful framework for identifying and removing all the activities that don't contribute value. These are the seven wastes producing more than is necessary or doing so earlier than is necessary. Things are waiting for the next stage of production, or people are waiting for work to be done. Idling transportation transporting goods further than necessary. Overprocessing of goods or components this might be brought on by inadequate tool design or usage. Unneeded movement individuals moving or walking more than is strictly necessary, such as while hunting for tools or bending to pick up a part or tool from the ground as opposed to picking it up from a waist-high, non-stoop scaffold. It will take work to evaluate and repair the seven problematic pieces.

Womack and Jones 1996 added the production of goods and services that fall short of customer expectations as an additional eighth source of waste. Asking a group of employees to utilize the categories of trash checklist and locate as many waste sources as they can in their office is a helpful place to start. The 5S Methodology 5S is a further method for enhancing how work is carried out. According to Kocakülâh et al. 2008, it can be used in a kaizen event, which is when a variety of managers and production workers are pulled out of their regular routines to concentrate on the 5Ss in a particular area. Separateassessing and removing anything from the producing area that is not necessary. Sort Outlining and labeling the locations of all additional objects needed to complete the assignment. Locations are picked to reduce movement. Sweep to promote effective working, the space is cleaned and kept clean. Standardize Ensure that everything is uniform. To facilitate the flexibility of employees between work stations, machines are set up identically and duties are carried out in a consistent manner. We don't have a maintenance schedule for our equipment. The damaged safety rail is not the main issue; the issue is the absence of a maintenance schedule for the equipment.

CONCLUSION

To sum up, Lean Enterprises provides a potent management philosophy and method that enables businesses to streamline their procedures, get rid of waste, and continuously enhance their business operations. Organizations may boost productivity, save costs, improve quality, and ultimately provide customers more value by adopting Lean concepts and establishing a culture of constant improvement. Lean Enterprises equips businesses with the tools they need to be responsive to market changes, agile, and efficient, giving them a competitive edge.A safety rail repair or even a one-time trolley safety rail inspection won't ensure that patients will never be late for the theater due to broken equipment. The PDSA cycle, total productive maintenance, single-minute dye exchange, six sigma, control charts, cause-and-effect diagrams, and many more tools and approaches are among the others.

REFERENCES:

[1] G. A. Redeker, G. Z. Kessler, and L. M. Kipper, "Lean information for lean communication: Analysis of concepts, tools, references, and terms," *International Journal of Information Management*. 2019. doi: 10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2018.12.018.

[2] F. Pakdil and K. M. Leonard, "Implementing and sustaining lean processes: the dilemma of societal culture effects," *Int. J. Prod. Res.*, 2017, doi: 10.1080/00207543.2016.1200761.

[3] K. Yamamoto, M. Milstead, and R. LIoyd, "A Review of the Development of Lean Manufacturing and Related Lean Practices: The Case of Toyota Production System and Managerial Thinking," *Int. Manag. Rev.*, 2019.

[4]   I. Alhuraish, C. Robledo, and A. Kobi, "A comparative exploration of lean manufacturing and six sigma in terms of their critical success factors," *J. Clean. Prod.*, 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.06.146.

[5]   K. Morrison, "Educational philosophy and the challenge of complexity theory," *Educ. Philos. Theory*, 2008, doi: 10.1111/j.1469-5812.2007.00394.x.

[6]   S. Čaušević and E. Avdagić-Golub, "The challenges and opportunities of introducing six sigma at customer support telecommunication company," *TEM J.*, 2019, doi: 10.18421/TEM84-29.

[7]   A. McKenna *et al.*, "The genome analysis toolkit: A MapReduce framework for analyzing next-generation DNA sequencing data," *Genome Res.*, 2010, doi: 10.1101/gr.107524.110.

[8]   H. G. Zilian, "Studies in the Way of Words," *Grazer Philos. Stud.*, 1991, doi: 10.5840/gps19913934.

[9]   M. R. Hallowell, A. Veltri, and S. Johnson, "Safety & Lean. One manufacturer's lessons learned and best practices," *Prof. Saf.*, 2009.

CHAPTER 21

CULTURE PROFILING: UNDERSTANDING ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURES FOR BETTER MANAGEMENT

Prof. Rajesh Mehrotra, Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-rajeshmehrotra.sbm@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:

Culture profiling is the study of a culture's traits, values, beliefs, and actions, focusing on language, traditions, conventions, social norms, and historical influences. It helps gain insights into people's interactions, worldviews, and decision-making. Culture profiling helps identify trends, parallels, and contrasts between cultures, promoting successful communication, teamwork, and adaptability. It helps researchers, companies, and individuals manage cross-cultural interactions, create inclusive policies, and promote intercultural understanding. Culture profiling provides a framework for understanding cultural aspects and tendencies, rather than stereotypes or generalizations. It acknowledges the diversity and individual variance within each culture, facilitating better communication, teamwork, and adaptability.

KEYWORDS:

Culture, Group, Members, Organization, People.

INTRODUCTION

Culture profiling is the practice of looking at and studying a certain culture or set of people's traits, values, beliefs, and actions. It entails researching a variety of elements that contribute to a society's overall identity, including its language, traditions, conventions, social norms, and historical influences. Understanding a culture's distinctive characteristics and dynamics may help one gain important insights into how people interact with one another, view the world, and make decisions. It aids in seeing trends, parallels, and contrasts between cultures, promoting successful communication, teamwork, and adaptability in a variety of contexts [1]–[4].

Researchers, companies, and people may better manage cross-cultural interactions, create inclusive policies, and promote intercultural understanding by undertaking culture profiling, which gives them a deeper grasp of cultural subtleties. It facilitates navigating any misunderstandings, disputes, and prejudices that could develop when individuals from various backgrounds join together. The goal of culture profiling is to give a framework for comprehending cultural aspects and tendencies rather than to stereotype or generalize people within a culture. It recognizes that although different cultures may share some characteristics, there is also substantial diversity and individual variance within each culture [5], [6].

People's Response to Mergers

When a merger is being considered, much of the anticipated advantages depend on the desire of the employees to support the new unit or organization and to collaborate to produce high performance. According to Cartwright and Cooper, the successful fusion of people, knowledge, and organizational cultures is the primary element influencing merger success. This necessary level of interpersonal synchronicity is not frequently attained. This chapter will make mention of both mergers and acquisitions at various times. Most corporate mergers and acquisitions involve one group, department, or organization acquiring control of another; however, to make the takeover more acceptable to the members of the acquired unit, the combination is frequently referred to as a merger. Mergers are met with a variety of reactions

from employees. Some regard the merger as a method to increase job security or elevate status by affiliation with the new unit or organization, and they welcome the prospects for professional advancement, increased challenges, and expanded scope and diversity of work. Others hold a less rosy opinion.

For instance, employees of an acquired company could feel as though they have been sold out and, particularly if the merger was challenged, as though they have been outnumbered and vanquished. Even if redundancy is not an immediate danger, members of the amalgamated units could worry about their job security and feel less in control of their short-term working conditions and long-term career possibilities. This combined with stress and mental health issues have been shown to have a negative impact on performance, according to Ashford and Cooper and Payne. These outcomes include anxiety, stress, poor performance, higher absenteeism, and an increase in turnover. There are several accounts of these undesirable results. According to a number of studies, including those cited by Cartwright, lower post-merger performance is a result of reduced morale and perceived unfairness. Cabrera cites instances of unproductive behavior such as wasting time chit-chatting about merger-related matters, engaging in political maneuvering, and jockeying for position in an effort to obtain an edge or prevent a loss. According to Walsh , top executives from acquired firms turnover at a rate 25% greater than normal top team turnover during the first year [7]–[10].

Organizational Identity and Negative Effects: Social Identity Theory

Social identity theory is cited by a number of authors as providing a conceptual framework for comprehending why many workers respond adversely. Their sense of belonging to a group or organization is a crucial component of their social identity, and mergers pose a danger to this identity. In addition to identifying as I, or their unique physical attributes, interests, skills, and personality traits, people also identify as we, or their connections with societal categories like nationality, occupation, and religion. For many people, membership in a work group or organization is a significant component of their social identity. Following a number of influential research on intergroup prejudice conducted by Tajfel and colleagues, the social identity theory was created [11].

Their laboratory tests looked at the bare minimum requirements that cause members of one group the in-group to discriminate against members of another group the out-group. The most arbitrary criteria, such as a coin flip or participants' preferences for an abstract painter, were used to divide participants into groups. Results showed that when people classified themselves as belonging to a group, even if the foundation for this classification was unimportant, it might lead to a sense of belonging that had an impact on their behavior. Tajfel and Turner understood, nevertheless, that group membership did not always result in favoritism inside the group. They discovered three factors that contribute to both intra- and intergroup prejudice. Which are:

1. The degree to which people internalize belonging to an in-group as a component of their self-concept and identify with it.
2. The perceived significance of the comparison group, which in turn depends on the relative and
3. Absolute status of the in-group, is a key factor in how much the current situation encourages comparison and rivalry between groups.

All three of these circumstances are present in mergers. A key component of many employees' self-concepts is their identification with a work group or organization. Undoubtedly provide groups the chance to compare and compete with one another, and in nearly every merger and acquisition scenario, there are status discrepancies between the merging units or organizations. According to Van Dick et al, mergers have an impact on employees' social identities because they redraw or eliminate the lines that formerly

distinguished two different firms. Employees' pre-merger group identification becomes more salient and in-group differences and out-group similarities are reduced when they regard the merger or acquisition as a threat to its distinctiveness. The employees create favorable judgments of their own pre-merger organization while forming unfavorable opinions about the other organization. This usually encourages people to hold onto all they treasure about their pre-merger group or organizational identity and to oppose any changes that will compromise it.

The members of the weaker unit are most likely to face the greatest harm to their group or organizational identity in mergers if there is a dominating partner. The individuals who are more likely to feel continuity and see less variations in their unit's culture and day-to-day operations are those who belong to the dominant group or organization. This enables people to transfer their identify to the new post-merger company while simultaneously preserving their identification with their prior group or organization. Group identity may be significantly impacted by continuity and absence of continuity.

A study of two merging banks that indicates the benefit of continuity is cited by Van Dick et al. The stronger people's connection with the combined bank and the more favorable their sentiments about individuals from the merger partner were, the happier they were with how their pre-merger bank continued in the merged bank. But frequently, the acquiring company won't make an effort to maintain continuity for the members of the acquired unit or organization. It will seek to make adjustments that break continuity and endanger the organizational identity of its members.

The speed with which employees shed their distinct pre-existing us and them identities and assume a new shared organizational identity has been suggested by Cartwright as a proxy measure of successful M&A integration.

This idea is supported by evidence that high levels of identification with the post-merger organization result in increased work motivation, performance, and organization citizenship behaviors. Each unit group or organization in a merger has its own culture, which is made up of common values and ideas that have been socially acquired over time and serve as the foundation for how things are done and how people interact with one another.

According to Elsass and Veiga, the social identification processes offer a valuable theoretical framework for analyzing the cultural difference that takes place when groups or organizations unite. The principles of social identity theory would imply that the sheer existence of these two subcultures is enough to contribute to emotions of in-group out-group bias, discrimination, and conflict. According to Hubbard, one of the issues with cultural diversity is that although employees implicitly understand their own culture, they frequently struggle to convey it to new coworkers. As a result, figuring out the unwritten rules of conduct in the new amalgamated unit is a laborious process of trial and error [12].

DISCUSSION

Acculturation

Acculturation is described by Berry as the simultaneous process of cultural and psychological change that results from contact between two or more cultural groups and each of its individual members. Early research on acculturation concentrated on the colonial powers' dominance of indigenous people and how immigrants changed as they assimilated into a receiving community. More recently, the adaptation of organizational members to M&As has been studied by Nahavandi and Malekzadeh and Elsass and Veiga. Nahavandi and Malekzadeh outline the many ways that members of acquired and acquiring units' groups or organizations might integrate their cultures, practices, and systems by drawing on Berry's research:

1. Integration includes some degree of change for both units, but it also gives them the opportunity to keep many of the fundamental presumptions, convictions, working methods, and systems that are significant to them and give them a sense of identity.
2. Separation occurs when members of the acquired unit try to maintain their own culture and practices by remaining apart and independent of the dominant unit department or organization.
3. Assimilation is a unilateral process in which one group voluntarily adopts the identity and culture of the other.
4. Deculturation entails unit members refusing cultural interaction with both their unit and the other unit, and if permitted, the acquired unit will operate as a distinct unit under the financial protection of the acquiring unit. It happens when members of an acquired unit do not respect their own culture and do not want to be absorbed into the acquiring unit perhaps because they believe their work group, department, or organization has failed.

The degree of agreement between the acquired and acquiring unit's chosen modes of combining, as well as each partner's capacity to enforce its desire, determine how much acculturation really takes place.

The Acquired Unit's Preferred Mode of Acculturation

The degree to which members of the acquired unit value and desire to maintain their own culture, as well as their opinion of how appealing the acquiring unit's culture is, determine the chosen style of acculturation (see Figure 1). When its members appreciate their own culture and many of their current practices and desire to retain them, but also see some appealing parts of the acquiring unit's culture and practices they would want to embrace, integration will be their preferred form of acculturation.

1. Assimilation will be the favored approach when members are drawn to the culture and practices of the acquiring unit and do not value or desire to retain their own.
2. When members value and desire to retain their own culture and current practices and are not drawn to the acquiring unit's culture and practices, separation will be their preferred form of acculturation.
3. When members feel alienated because they do not appreciate the culture and practices of either their own or the acquiring unit, deculturation will be their preferred approach.
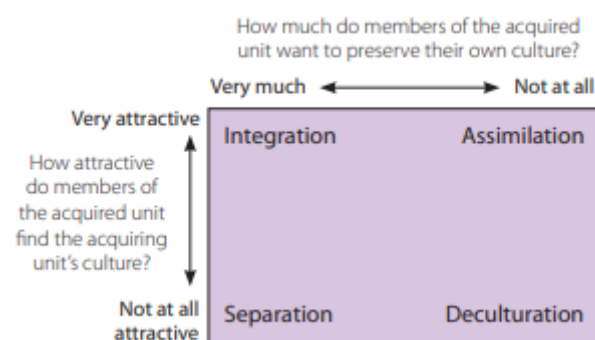

Figure 1: Acquired unit's Preferred Mode of Acculturation [Research Gate. Net].

The Acquiring Unit's Preferred Mode of Acculturation

The degree to which the acquiring unit is multicultural and the degree of relatedness between the merging units both affect the chosen form of acculturation (see Figure 1). It will be more probable for the acquiring unit to impose its culture and systems on the acquired organization

if it is uncultured and values compliance. Contrarily, if it is multicultural that is, if it embraces a wide range of subcultures, it will be more inclined to let the acquired unit keep its unique culture. The degree of relatedness between the merging organizations and the degree of integration or assimilation sought by the acquiring business are frequently related. For instance, the goal of the acquisition can be to grow the purchasing company's size or lessen its reliance on a certain aspect of the environment. When this is the case, the acquirer may be content to take a hands-off strategy, pursuing only the minimal amount of necessary procedural integration legal and financial. However, the driving force behind buying a related company is frequently some kind of synergy that may be obtained through combining physical assets, operational methods, and other things. Higher levels of physical and cultural integration will be necessary for this. Therefore, when a multicultural unit merges with a related unit, integration will be the acquiring unit's preferred method of acculturation.

1. If the unit is uncultured and the merger is with a related unit.
2. Assimilation will be the preferred mode.
3. If the acquirer is multicultural and the merger is with an unrelated unit, separation will be the preferred mode.
4. Deculturation is unlikely to be a mode of acculturation that will be preferred, unless it is committed to creating a wholly new culture for the new unit.

Organizational members are likely to experience significant levels of merger stress if the chosen modes of acculturation of the acquiring and acquired units are not compatible. Negative feelings like denial, sadness, and rage can result from this, which can lower morale, raise confusion and intergroup conflict, and trigger unproductive behaviors that obstruct the integration process. On the other side, high degrees of congruence might have the opposite impact and encourage interpersonal synergy and organizational fit. How organizational fit is established is seen in Figure 2. The way the purchase is handled will determine whether or not personnel synergies are realized. The focus of the next section is on what those driving the transformation can do to reduce the dysfunctional effects of cultural difference and the lack of continuity that M&A participants frequently encounter.
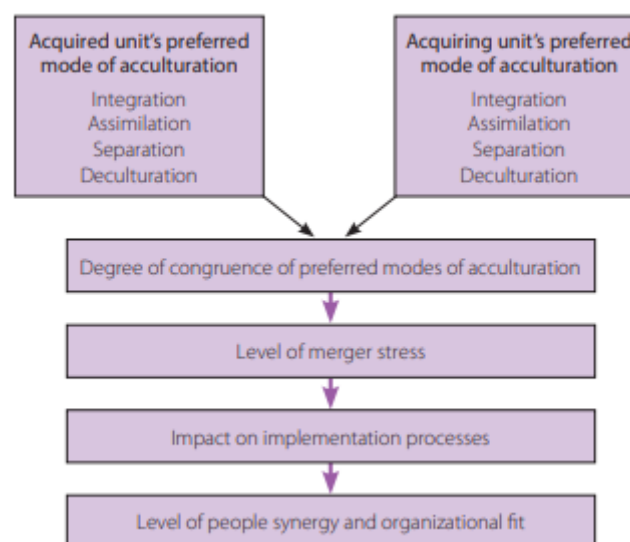

Figure 2: Acculturative Model for Implementing Organizational Fit[Research Gate. Net].

Managing the Implementation Process

Managers can take a variety of actions to encourage people synergy. The acquiring organization can pre-screen possible target units or organizations for cultural compatibility

early on in the merger process. When there are significant disparities in organizational culture and preferred acculturation methods, the acquiring unit may decide to drop the merger proposal or look for another, more congenial partner. An analysis of the partner units' cultural similarities and differences may be done later on to determine which aspects of group or organizational functioning will be the most challenging to integrate and which aspects of the merger process are most likely to result in merger stress. A cultural assessment of this kind could: guide the selection of an integration plan. It's possible to establish worthwhile synergies without aiming for total integration.

By avoiding some of the disruption that is sometimes brought on by high merger stress, a looser style of integration might lessen the severity of the discontinuities that employees feel and produce extra value. Involving the managers who will be in charge of running the acquired unit early in the acquisition process and having them concentrate on potential personnel issues are just a few examples of how to help manage the many components of the integration process. Ensuring effective communication about the changes, including personnel from the acquiring and acquired units in joint task teams to plan how certain organizational components would be integrated. Cross-posting personnel to the other unit to gain first-hand knowledge. Offering socioemotional assistance.Looking into transitional arrangements that will make the implementation of standard employment conditions easier; and so on.

Culture Profiling at Different Points in the Process

The due diligence process, which includes culture profiling, can aid in choosing the best merger partners. Although strategic fit is crucial, it is not the only requirement for a merger to be successful because human resource-related concerns can scuttle the process. As previously indicated, culture profiling at a later stage of the merger process might give information that can be utilized to examine similarities and contrasts between the partner firms and flag problems that may need further attention. People who, for instance, are accustomed to working in a more restricting power or role culture may require assistance in changing their management or other work styles to fit in with a new task achievement culture.

Although they may enjoy more freedom, they might not be sure how to fit in with new working conditions, and because they are not being constantly watched, they might feel deprivation of input that could help them perform better. Similar to this, workers who are accustomed to less restrictive task or person cultures may find it challenging to shift to a more restrictive work environment. Instead of just letting them get by as best they can, it could be more beneficial to look into ways of assisting individuals in adjusting to the new culture. By recognizing their abilities and assisting them in contributing positively, individuals in charge of leading the new, combined unit following the merger may aid people from the acquired unit in adjusting. Before they have had a chance to acclimate to working in the new post-acquisition culture, it is all too simple to pass judgment on their future contribution.

CONCLUSION

Finally, culture profiling provides a helpful framework for figuring out and negotiating the difficulties of cultural diversity. Culture profiling offers insights that help improve communication, cooperation, and intercultural understanding by looking at the traits, convictions, values, and behaviors of a certain culture. It encourages cultural competency by assisting people and organizations in acquiring the abilities and information required to function politely and successfully in multicultural environments. However, it's crucial to keep in mind that culture profiling should only be used as a technique for identifying cultural characteristics and trends rather than to stereotype or generalize people within a culture. In the end, culture profiling promotes a more varied and respectful global community by

encouraging empathy, appreciation, and the understanding of the wide diversity of human experiences that exist across other cultures.

REFERENCES:

[1]   J. T. Lau *et al.*, "Capturing the diversity of the human gut microbiota through culture-enriched molecular profiling," *Genome Med.*, 2016, doi: 10.1186/s13073-016-0327-7.

[2]   C. D. Sibley *et al.*, "Culture enriched molecular profiling of the cystic fibrosis airway microbiome," *PLoS One*, 2011, doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0022702.

[3]   B. Liang *et al.*, "Raman profiling of embryo culture medium to identify aneuploid and euploid embryos," *Fertil. Steril.*, 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.fertnstert.2018.11.036.

[4]   A. Maseleno, G. Hardaker, N. Sabani, and N. Suhaili, "Data on multicultural education and diagnostic information profiling: Culture, learning styles and creativity," *Data Br.*, 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.dib.2016.11.024.

[5]   A. Amaretti *et al.*, "Profiling of Protein Degraders in Cultures of Human Gut Microbiota," *Front. Microbiol.*, 2019, doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2019.02614.

[6]   I. Dekio *et al.*, "Detection of potentially novel bacterial components of the human skin microbiota using culture-independent molecular profiling," *J. Med. Microbiol.*, 2005, doi: 10.1099/jmm.0.46075-0.

[7]   A. Abramovich *et al.*, "Letters.," *Conf. Pap. -- North Am. Assoc. Environ. Educ.*, 2009.

[8]   S. N. Sibtain, "DESIGN FOR SURVIVAL.," 1984. doi: 10.2307/40199685.

[9]   "State strategies in the global political economy," *Choice Rev. Online*, 1997, doi: 10.5860/choice.34-3428.

[10]   S. K. Harvey, "The Role of Mergers and Acquisitions in Firm Performance: A Ghanaian Case Study," *J. Child Psychol. Psychiatry*, 2015.

[11]   W. Wang, Y. Fu, H. Qiu, J. H. Moore, and Z. Wang, "Corporate social responsibility and employee outcomes: A moderated mediation model of organizational identification and moral identity," *Front. Psychol.*, 2017, doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2017.01906.

[12]   A. Paruzel, M. Danel, and G. W. Maier, "Scrutinizing Social Identity Theory in Corporate Social Responsibility: An Experimental Investigation," *Front. Psychol.*, 2020, doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2020.580620.

CHAPTER 22

SELECTING INTERVENTIONS: CHOOSING THE RIGHT APPROACHES FOR CHANGE

Prof. Rajesh Mehrotra, Professor
School of Business and Management, Jaipur National University, Jaipur, India
Email Id-rajeshmehrotra.sbm@jnujaipur.ac.in

ABSTRACT:
In various disciplines, such as psychology, education, and healthcare, choosing interventions is a crucial step in identifying and implementing efficient solutions to meet specific needs or issues. This process involves weighing the pros and cons of available alternatives and selecting the best treatments based on available data, viability, and individual or contextual considerations. The underlying aims and objectives must be taken into account, and treatments must align with the target results and meet the specific requirements of the target group. This may involve gathering information, conducting requirements analyses, researching related topics, and considering best practices. Evidence-based procedures are essential for assessing intervention programs' efficacy and applicability in the given environment. Feasibility is another important factor in choosing interventions. Examining variables like available resources, logistical issues, and organizational capability is crucial. Although theoretically good and based on data, an intervention may not be the optimal option if it cannot be executed due to real-world constraints. Contextual and individual factors also influence the choice of interventions. Treating the traits, interests, and requirements of the people or groups involved is essential, as is considering the socio-cultural, economic, and environmental context to ensure culturally appropriate treatments.

KEYWORDS:

Change, Dimensional Model, Group, Intervention, Management.

INTRODUCTION

This chapter looks at the elements that should be taken into account when deciding the kind of intervention to utilize. The Company, Change, Element, Intervention, Management. Variables that may influence judgments on the sequence of interventions when more than one may be required are also taken into account. This is crucial because occasionally, an improper order might reduce a change program's efficacy. There is a significant risk that change agents may utilize fewer innovative and favorable interventions than more established, tried-and-true ones [1]–[3]. According to Ettorre's life cycle theory of management fads, there are five steps that must be taken before an intervention is adopted:

1. Discovery people start to notice the intervention.
2. Wild acceptance unquestioning adoption.
3. Detractors start to claim it is not a cure-all.
4. Acknowledging issues with the intervention
5. Few people still participate in the intervention.

However, the most popular interventions might not necessarily be the best ones. Staw and Epstein conducted a survey of the top 100 Fortune 500 companies and discovered that while the use of popular interventions, such as teamwork, empowerment, and total quality management, was positively associated with corporate reputation organizations were admired, seen as more innovative, and had higher quality management, CEO pay, it was not associated with an improvement in economic performance measured over a one-to-fif ratio. The treatments that will work best in a certain situation should be chosen and used. This may occasionally need utilizing tried-and-true interventions.

Factors Indicating which interventions to use

Priority is given to the variables that must be taken into account when determining which actions are most likely to help a change program achieve its objectives. Three key elements are highlighted the nature of the issue or window of opportunity for action must deal with the identified problem, the degree of change target who will be the center of the change, and the depth of intervention needed. Two other elements are also taken into account. These are the amount of time that may be used to effect change and the effectiveness of various intervention approaches [4]–[7].

Diagnosed Issue

The nature of the identified issue or opportunity is a critical factor in determining the most effective remedy. This supports the change program's goal and identifies the problems that must be solved to transition a company or unit from its present condition to a more desired future one. The problem might be described in terms of either transformative change or gradual change at the macro level. The most successful interventions, according to Burke and Litwin, will be those that are aimed at changing system-wide components, such as mission and strategy, leadership, and culture, where the problem is articulated in terms of the need for transformational change. If these factors are effectively changed through interventions, nearly every other element in the system will be affected as well. The most successful treatments may, however, be those that focus on aspects that, if modified, may have a more localized influence in terms of the units or levels impacted, especially when the problem is stated in terms of incremental change or fine-tuning.

These interventions include those that focus on things like structure, systems, climate, tasks, and roles. For instance, improving task performance in a given department can be the main concern. The remedy used to solve this problem may be a redesign of the workplace. The competencies needed by employees who execute the job or the departmental structure may be impacted by restructuring the work to enhance task performance. This is especially true if the redesign calls for fewer levels in the hierarchy. Even if this type of intervention does have some consequences for how the target unit interacts with other units, it may not have much of an overall influence on how the organization runs [8]–[10]. At the micro level, problems may be easily characterized in terms of the organizational components that are most closely related to the identified opportunity or problem. This classification of challenges might be based on the 12 components of the Burke-Litwin model. The typology used to categorize interventions by Cummings and Worley is an option and is employed in the three-dimensional model shown below. It highlights four different categories of detected problems:

1. Communication, problem-solving, decision-making, interpersonal and intergroup relationships, and leadership are among the human process challenges.
2. Difficulties with technology and structure, such as vertical and horizontal differentiation, coordination, technology and production methods, and work design
3. Challenges with human resources, include finding, choosing, training, inspiring, and keeping qualified personnel.
4. Managing the organization's interaction with its environment is one of four strategic problems, along with choosing which markets to enter, what goods and services to provide, how to obtain a competitive edge, and what values should direct the organization's development.

Level of Change Target

In their categorizations of units that can be the target for change, Schmuck and Miles, Blake and Mouton, Pugh, and others all include the person, group, intergroup, and organization. Additionally, the wider social system is mentioned by Blake and Mouton as a potential client

or change target, while Schmuck and Miles add dyads/triads as a separate entity. Five levels are identified by the three-dimensional model for choosing interventions individual, group, intergroup, organizational, and trans organizational (see Figure 1). For instance:

1. A diagnostic investigation may show that the fundamental problem has to do with a mismatch between work requirements and individual competencies, indicating that the individual should be the target of change.
2. The diagnosis can indicate that a group has to undergo transformation because of poor working relationships inside the group.
3. The diagnostic can highlight the dysfunctional intergroup interactions, indicating that intergroup connections ought to be the emphasis.
4. The diagnosis may point to a lack of alignment between organizational strategy and market circumstances or a failure on the part of organizational members at all levels to adequately understand it, pointing to the entire organization as the target for change.
5. At the trans organizational level, the diagnostic may indicate that all the organizations that contribute to a value stream should be included in a lean business, or that finding a partner for a joint venture or merger may be the best course of action.

Depth of Intervention

According to Harrison, a critical element in deciding whether an intervention will be successful is the level of personal emotional engagement. This element considers how much the essential aspects of personality or self are the focal point of changing occurrences. He suggests a dimension that extends from surface to depth. At the surface end of the continuum are interventions that target an individual's outward characteristics and address their more visible and noticeable behaviors. At the extreme are interventions that make reference to or aim to change personal and private perceptions, attitudes, or feelings. Operations research is an illustration of an intervention that may be categorized at the surface end of the continuum. This is because it is a method of logical analysis that deals with roles and functions without paying much regard to the specific qualities of the people who hold these positions. Management by objectives is an instance of a more thorough intervention.
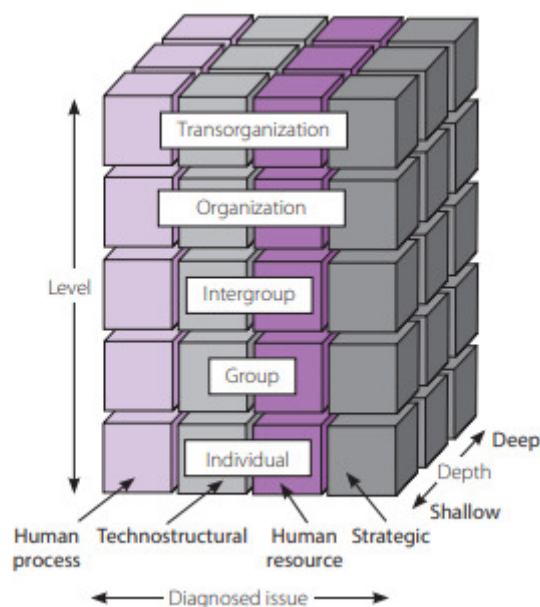

Figure 1: A Three-Dimensional Model to Aid Choice of Interventions [Research Gate.Net].

In order to do this, a supervisor and a subordinate must set mutually acceptable performance goals and track progress toward them. The sharing of information is frequently restricted to visible information. Interventions that are further down the continuum include management counseling, which, for instance, can entail a consultant working with managers to raise their knowledge of how their personality, role connections, and prior experience impact their management style. Group members may discuss with peers the interpersonal processes that influence their contribution to group performance as part of deeper interventions. Members of the group may share personal information about themselves, how they view their own behavior and that of others, and may discuss with one another how they and others may change their attitudes, roles, and behavior to enhance group performance.

According to Harrison, as the level of involvement increases, so does the amount of information provided. Examples include the information necessary by operations researchers, which is frequently a matter of record, and the information needed by individuals involved in management by objectives, which is frequently observable. People might not be open to receiving comments from others about their interpersonal style or to discussing openly their views and feelings toward others. Harrison proposed the following standard as a result of these factors. Change agents should only get involved at the level necessary to deliver a long-lasting solution to the issue at hand. While important, this criterion is insufficient to assess the scope of the intervention. The change target person, group, or system may not feel comfortable working at this level, despite the change agent's perception of the nature of the knowledge needed and the extent of the action required to create it.

Harrison contends that any intervention must be accepted as consistent with group or organizational norms and must appear to address the members' perceived needs in order to be effective. This prompted him to propose a second standard: intervene no lower than the level at which the client can devote their attention and resources to problem-solving and transformation. According to Harrison, when change agents believe that the necessary knowledge is hidden at a depth deeper than the client feels comfortable exploring, they should fix the problem by choosing an intervention based on the second criterion. Once the client has acquired confidence, they may be willing to participate in an intervention that requires discussing information that they would typically consider private and personal, such as attitudes and sentiments.

DISCUSSION

A Three-Dimensional Model to Aid Choice

The criteria taken into account thus far may be merged to create a three-dimensional model that can be used as a general guide for deciding which kind of intervention could be most useful in a particular circumstance. Figure 1 illustrates this. The following figures provide examples of interventions for each of the four diagnosed issues.

Because they indicate circumstances that are unlikely to necessitate an action that satisfies all three requirements, certain cells in Figure 2. For instance, there might not be many circumstances that necessitate a profound technological intervention focused on the person. Some treatments could show up in many cells. For instance, team building is an example of a human process intervention that is aimed at the group. However, some interventions for team development are shallow and others are fairly deep. At the shallow end, interventions could just be concerned with establishing the group's goals, benchmarks for successful performance, and performance tactics that might help it get there. On the other side, interventions might go deep and examine interpersonal connections and how they either support or detract from performance. Only a selection of the interventions that are accessible to change agents is shown in Figure 3. There are many additional options available in the

literature on change management. The amount of time available and the effectiveness of the intervention are two additional criteria that may potentially affect the choice of intervention.
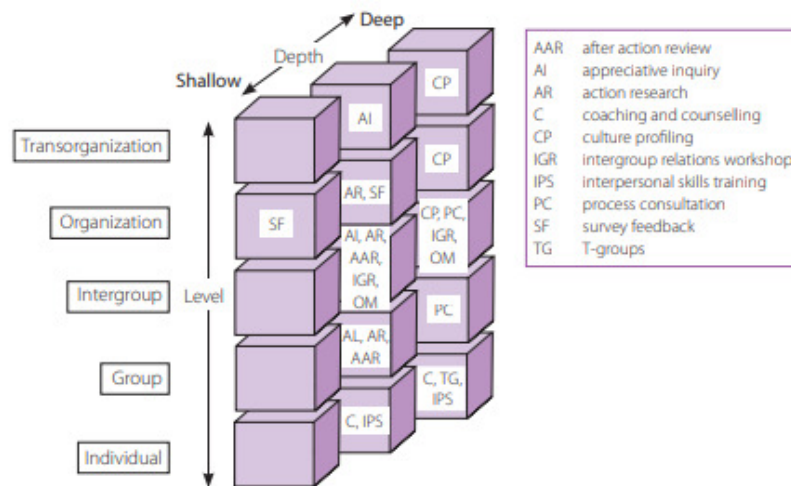
Figure 2: Represting the examples of human process interventions[Research Gate. Net].

Time Available to Implement the Change

There might not be enough time to implement some of the more time-consuming interventions that provide organizational members the chance to participate in determining what needs to change or how the change will be achieved in situations where the need for change is urgent and the stakes are high. It can be required to limit the options to treatments that can be put into place fast this might, for instance, include using professionals who can swiftly prescribe remedies. Interventions that are prescriptive or directive can be helpful, especially in the short term and when organizational members are aware that this sort of activity is required. But it's always possible that some organizational members won't like how the change was handled, won't feel much ownership over the procedure or the result, and won't agree to the change unless their behavior is strictly monitored and there is a perceived risk of punishment for disobedience. The change agent may be able to evaluate a considerably larger choice of actions if the demand for change is less urgent.
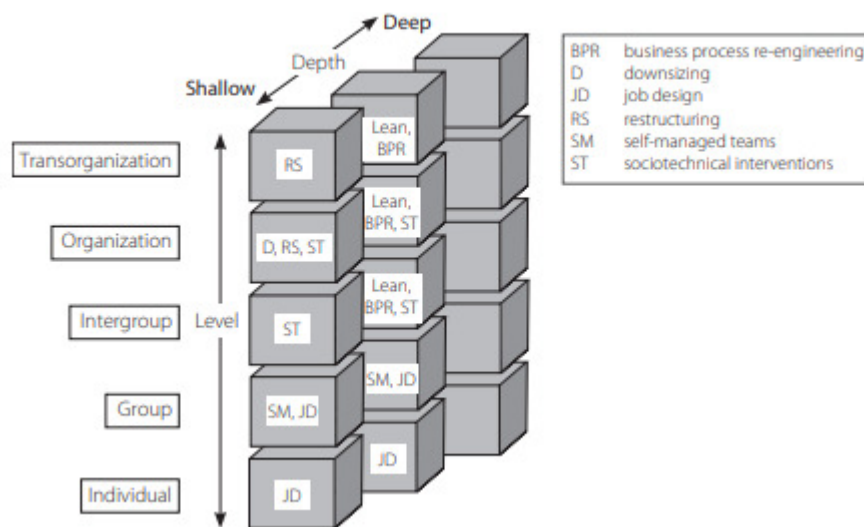
Figure 3: Represting the example of Technostructural Interventions[Research Gate. Net].

Efficacy of the Interventions

Will it accomplish the anticipated result? is a fundamental issue that must be answered before picking a certain intervention. Some well-known initiatives are not always as successful as people would like to think. Disappointment with the results of significant change programs that have included interventions like BPR, TQM, job design, or interpersonal skills training is frequently reported in academic publications and the business press. Ineffective interventions are sometimes chosen by the change agents, which causes problems. By looking for proof of the effectiveness of treatments from reports, colleagues, and other sources, this type of issue may be avoided. But frequently, the issue is not that the intervention is useless, but rather that it depends on a variety of unforeseen circumstances. In these situations, it is crucial to consider these elements while choosing treatments. Three of the numerous interventions instances that are impacted by contingent factors are now briefly reviewed.

T-Group Training

T-group training is a type of social skills instruction that gives participants the chance to become more conscious of themselves and how they affect others in order to learn how to work in groups more successfully. There is evidence that T-groups can enhance abilities to diagnose individual and group behavior, as well as foster better communication, more tolerance, consideration, competence, and flexibility. However, occasionally this learning and behavior modification may not translate to the workplace. The degree of transfer depends on a variety of variables, one of which is the degree of similarity between the structures and norms that distinguish training and work environments; the higher the similarity, the greater the transfer, and vice versa.

Job Design

When individuals are asked to complete simple, repetitive tasks with short cycle times, job design is frequently promoted as the all-encompassing solution to low commitment and poor performance. According to motivation theory, people are more dedicated and perform at their best when they are given a variety of challenging tasks that:

1. Give them feedback on how well they are doing.
2. Let them feel personally responsible for outcomes.
3. Give them the opportunity to produce outcomes that are thought to be worthwhile and meaningful.

Job design has been proven to be helpful in certain situations in practice but not in others. The degree to which workers are looking to have their needs met at work is one of the most significant dependent factors associated to the effectiveness of this intervention. Where employees are looking to use their work to meet higher order requirements for personal development, job design seems to be most effective.

Total Quality Management (TQM)

TQM is a long-term, organizational-wide transformation initiative created to center all organizational operations around the idea of quality. According to Cummings and Worley, around 75% of Fortune 1000 organizations in the USA had adopted TQM in some capacity. They also state that 83% of people have either had a favorable or extremely positive experience with TQM. Other assessments of the efficacy of TQM programs, however, are pessimistic. For instance, Crosby claims that more than 90% of TQM interventions by US corporations fail, and Burnes cites several studies that opine that European organizations have also suffered a high failure rate.

It is not immediately clear why TQM interventions work better in some contexts and less well in others, but top management behavior is one theory. TQM may perform less well in situations when there is a sincere commitment to consistently meeting or surpassing customer expectations, such as when it is seen as a means of obtaining a kite mark like ISO 9000 that will give a competitive advantage.

Organizational members may view the intervention as a need to abide by a new set of rules when the goal is only to get a kite mark. Their ideals and attitudes toward consumers might not be much impacted in the long run by this. A more customer-focused culture may not last long once the kite mark has been attained since senior management may turn their focus elsewhere.

CONCLUSION

Finally, choosing interventions is a critical decision-making process that has to carefully take into account a number of criteria.

Practitioners and decision-makers can raise the possibility that treatments will be successful by coordinating interventions with goals, taking into consideration evidence-based practices, evaluating feasibility, and accounting for individual and contextual characteristics. In order to successfully address specific needs or issues and promote good impact across multiple domains, the choice of the right interventions is crucial. In the end, choosing interventions carefully and methodically increases the likelihood of attaining desired results and enhancing the wellbeing of people and communities.

REFERENCES:

[1]   N. O'Connor and S. Clark, "Beware bandwagons! The bandwagon phenomenon in medicine, psychiatry and management," *Australas. Psychiatry*, 2019, doi: 10.1177/1039856219848829.

[2]   A. A. Kaissi and J. W. Begun, "Fads, fashions, and bandwagons in health care strategy," *Health Care Manage. Rev.*, 2008, doi: 10.1097/01.HMR.0000304498.97308.40.

[3]   P. Van Munching, *Beer Blast: The Inside Story of the Brewing Industry's Bizarre Battles for Your Money*. 1997.

[4]   J. Hefelfinger, A. Patty, A. Ussery, and W. Young, "Technical assistance from state health departments for communities engaged in policy, systems, and environmental change: The achieve program," *Prev. Chronic Dis.*, 2013, doi: 10.5888/pcd10.130093.

[5]   H. Xiang *et al.*, "What did China's National Wetland Conservation Program Achieve？Observations of changes in land cover and ecosystem services in the Sanjiang Plain," *J. Environ. Manage.*, 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.jenvman.2020.110623.

[6]   S. van der Hel, "Research programmes in global change and sustainability research: what does coordination achieve?," *Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability*. 2019. doi: 10.1016/j.cosust.2019.07.006.

[7]   B. Cislaghi *et al.*, "Changing Social Norms: the Importance of 'Organized Diffusion' for Scaling Up Community Health Promotion and Women Empowerment Interventions," *Prev. Sci.*, 2019, doi: 10.1007/s11121-019-00998-3.

[8]   B. Olivier, "Psychometric validation of an organisational performance questionnaire (Opq) based on the burke-litwin model," *J. Psychol. Africa*, 2018, doi: 10.1080/14330237.2017.1409479.

[9]   N. Martins and M. Coetzee, "Applying the Burke–Litwin model as a diagnostic framework for assessing organisational effectiveness," *SA J. Hum. Resour. Manag.*, 2009, doi: 10.4102/sajhrm.v7i1.177.

[10]   B. Filej, B. Skela-Savič, V. H. Vicic, and N. Hudorovic, "Necessary organizational changes according to Burke-Litwin model in the head nurses system of management in healthcare and social welfare institutions-The Slovenia experience," *Health Policy (New. York).*, 2009, doi: 10.1016/j.healthpol.2008.09.013.