Unit – 1
Group Dynamics and Group Cohesiveness

Learning Objectives:

After completion of the unit you should be able to:

- Define a group.
- Understand various types of groups.
- Explain why people join groups.
- Know the stages of group development.
- Understand the significance of group cohesiveness.

Structure

1.1 Introduction

Groups have been a central part of our day to day lives. At any given time, we are members in many different groups such as family, student association, workgroups, and different clubs. A group is a collection of two or more individuals, interacting and interdependent, who have come together to achieve a particular common objective. According to D.H.Smith, "A group is the largest set of two or more individuals who are jointly characterized by a network of relevant communication, a shared sense of collective identity and one or more shared disposition with associated normative strength. The above definition stresses the following points. Interaction Size Shared goal interest Collective Identity.

1.2 Definition

According to D.H.Smith, "A group is the largest set of two or more individuals who are jointly characterized by a network of relevant communication, a shared sense of collective identity and one or more shared disposition with associated normative strength".

1.3 Types of Groups

Various methods are used to classify the types of groups that exist in our organizations. In organizations, the predominant operating groups are the functional groups, task or project groups and interest groups. In addition, groups are also classified as formal and informal groups.

Formal groups:

Formal groups are collections of employees who are made to work together by the organization to get the job done smoothly and efficiently. For example, if five members are put together in a department to attend to customer complaints they would be a formal group. The formal groups are those whose primary purpose is facilitating, through member interactions, the attainment of the goals of the organization .Task groups/project groups, command groups and committees come under formal groups.

Task or Project Groups: When a number of employees are formally brought together for the purpose of accomplishing a specific task – for a short-term or long term period – such a collection of individuals is called a task or project group. For example, the plant manager of a chemical processing plant may be interested in identifying potential safety problems in the plant. To provide a coordinated effort, the manager creates a four-person task force consisting of the production superintendent, maintenance superintendent, director of engineering and the safety engineer. The group members will deliberate these issues bring out suitable remediable measure for those safety problems within a deadline period. If any problems are found, the plant manager may create other task forces to work toward the elimination of the potential problems. These activities create a situation that encourages the members of the task force to communicate, interact and to coordinate activities, if the purpose of the group is to be accomplished.

Informal groups:

Informal groups are groups that emerge or randomly get formed due to the formal group members' interaction with each other, and thereby develop common interest. For example, members who are showing interest in cricket will join together and share and enjoy talking about the cricket games. Informal groups

provide a very important service by satisfying their members' social needs. Because of interactions that result from the close proximity of task interactions, group members play cricket together, spending their tea breaks together etc. Friendship groups, Interest groups and Reference groups come under informal groups.

Interest and Friendship Groups:

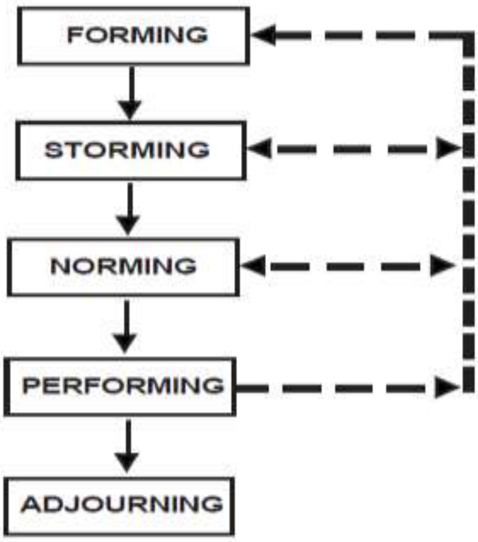
The group members form relationships based on some common characteristics such as age, political belief, or interests. Generally, it can be considered as informal group. Employees who joined together to have their fringe benefits continued to have its implementation, to support a peer who has been fired, or to seek more festival holidays etc. they tend to unite together to further their common interest. Groups often develop because the individual members have one or more common characteristics. This is called friendship groups. For example, recreation clubs, social groups etc. Management usually doesn't have any control over these informal groups.

1.4 Why People Join Groups

The most popular reasons for joining a group are related to our needs for security, identity, affiliation, power and engaging in common tasks. Protection of common and individual Interest: By joining a group, members can reduce the insecurity of being alone. The membership will make them feel stronger, gaining resistant to threats, having fewer self-doubts etc. New employees are particularly vulnerable to a sense of isolation and turn to the group for guidance and support. Employees develop a sense of security at personal as well as professional front by joining groups. Status: Inclusion in a group that is viewed as important by others provides recognition and status for its members. Being a member of Rotary Club, the members feel pride and gain status and recognition. Self-Esteem: Groups can provide people with feelings of self-worth. That is, in addition to conveying status to those outside the group, membership can also give increased feelings of worth to the group members themselves. The self-esteem is bolstered when members are accepted by a highly valued group. Being assigned to a task force whose purpose is to review and make recommendations for the location of the company's new corporate headquarters can fulfill one's intrinsic needs for competence and growth. Affiliation: Groups can fulfill social needs. People enjoy the regular interaction that comes with group membership. For many people, these on-the-job interactions at work are the primary source for fulfilling their needs for affiliation. Power: For individuals who desire to influence others, groups can offer power without a formal position of authority in the organization. As a group leader he or she may be able to make requests of group members and obtain compliance

without any of the responsibilities that traditionally go either formal managerial position. Goal Achievement: There are times when it takes more than one person to accomplish a particular task- there is a need to pool talents, knowledge in order to complete a job. In such instances, management will rely on the use of a formal group.

1.5 Stages of Group Development



Forming

At this stage, group members try to comprehend where they stand in the group and how they are being perceived by others in the group. The members are very cautious in their interactions with each other and the relationships among the group members are very superficial. Members' seldom express their feelings in the group and the individual members who are trying to understand who they are in the group have concerns about how they will fit in the group as permanent group members. This is characterized by much uncertainty about group's purpose, structure and leadership. Members are 'testing the waters' to determine what types of behavior are acceptable. This stage is complete when members have begun to think of themselves as part of a group.

Storming

At this stage, disagreement tends to get expressed among the group members, and feelings of anxiety and resentment are also expressed. Some power struggle may ensure at this stage to determine who should assume the informal leadership role in the group. This storming stage is also known as the sub-grouping and confrontation. This group is characterized by intra-group conflict. Members

accept the existence of the group, but there is resistance to the control the group imposes on individuality. There is sometimes conflict over who will control the group. When this stage is complete, there will be a relatively clear hierarchy of leadership within the group.

Norming

This stage is characterized by close relationships and cohesiveness. The group sets norms, tries to attain some degree of cohesiveness, understands the goals of the group, starts making good decision, expresses feelings openly and makes attempts to resolve problems and attain group effectiveness. At this stage, members' roles get defined, and task and maintenance roles are assumed by group members. Group members' also begin to express satisfaction and confidence about being members of the group.

Performing

This stage is characterized by collaboration and integration. The group members evaluate their performance so that the members develop and grow. The group relationships and structures are set and accepted. Group energy has moved from getting to know and understand each other, to performing the task at hand. Feelings are expressed at this stage without fear, leadership roles shared among the members, and the group members' activities are highly co-coordinated. The task and maintenance roles are played very effectively. The task performance levels are high and member satisfaction, pride and commitment to the group also high. Both performance and members' satisfaction are sustained indefinitely.

Adjourning

This stage is characterized by concern with wrapping up activities rather than task performance. The group prepares for its disbandment. High task performance is no longer the group's top priority. Instead, attention is directed towards finalizing activities. As the group approaches the terminal phase, members break off their bonds of affection and stop interaction with each other. Responses of group members vary in this state. Some feel pride in what the group has accomplished. Others may be negative and critical of the way the organization has treated the group and others may be sad over the loss of friendship gained during the life of the work groups. These five stages of group development are only a suggestive and not prescriptive. Sometimes, groups do not always proceed clearly from one stage to the next. Sometimes, several stages go on simultaneously as when groups are storming and performing at the same time. Under some conditions, high levels of conflict are conducive to high group performance.

1.6 Group Cohesiveness

Cohesion refers to the extent of unity in the group and is reflected in the members' conformity to the norms of the group, feelings of attraction for each other, and wanting to be co-members of the group. Attraction, cohesion and conforming to norms are all intertwined. The more the members feel attracted to the group, the greater will be the group cohesion. The greater the cohesion, the greater the influence of group members to persuade one another to conform to the group norms. The greater the conformity, the greater the identification of the members with the group, and the greater the group cohesion. Cohesive groups work together to achieve the group goals. They can be considered as valuable assets to the organization if the group's goals coincide with the organization's goals. Factors increasing Cohesiveness: The following factors can facilitate to increase the cohesiveness of the work group.

Common consent on Group Goals
If the group agrees on the purpose and direction of its activities, this will serve to bind the group together and structure interaction patterns towards successful goal accomplishment.

Frequent Interactions
When group member have the opportunity to interact frequently with each other, the probability for closeness to develop will increase. Managers can provide opportunities for increased group interaction by calling frequent formal and

informal meetings, providing a common meetings place or physically designing the facilities so that group members are within sight of one another.

Personal Attractiveness

Cohesiveness is enhanced when members are attractive to one another if mutual trust and support already exists. Personal attraction also helps group members to overcome obstacles to goal accomplishment and personal growth and development.

Inter-group Competition

Competition with other groups, both written and external to the organization is a mechanism that acts to bring groups closer together for attaining a common purpose.

Favorable Evaluation

If a group has performed in an outstanding manner, some recognition for its performance by management serves to elevate the prestige of the group in the eyes of the group members and other members of the group. Favorable evaluation helps make group members feel proud about being members of the group.

Group Size

As the size of the group increases, the frequency of interaction between members decreases, thus decreasing the probability of maintaining cohesiveness. Past studies have shown the groups of four to six members provide the best opportunity for interaction.

Pleasant experiences with the group

When group members are attracted to each other or there is a full trust and cooperation, interaction may become a pleasant experience resulting in high level of cohesiveness in the group.

Lack of Domination

When one or few members dominate the group, cohesiveness cannot adequately develop. Such behavior can create smaller “cliques” within the group or identify individual members as isolates or deviates.

Gender of Members

It is reported that women tend to have greater cohesion than men. A possible reason is that women are more likely to be feeling types than thinking types.

Previous Success

If a group has a history of success, it builds an espirit de corps that attracts and unites members. Successful organizations find it easier to attract and hire new employees than unsuccessful ones.

Humor

Humor has been linked to increased cohesion in several studies. It is reported that the greater the cohesion, the greater the influence of the group over the behavior of members and subsequently group performance.

As groups are composed of individuals who are attracted to the goals of the group and to each other, one would expect to find a strong relationship between cohesiveness and group performance. The major difference between highly cohesive and low cohesive groups would be how closely members conformed to the group norms. Further, the group performance would be influenced not only by cohesion, but by the level of group norms.

Group Decision Making

Decisions made by the members of the group in a collective way is known as group decision making. Groups offer excellent techniques for performing many of the steps in the decision making process. If the group is composed of individuals with diverse backgrounds, the alternatives generated should be more extensive and the analysis will be more critical.

Advantages of Group Decision-making:

The following aspects identified the main advantages that groups offer over individuals in the making of decisions.

- More information and knowledge: By aggregating the resources of several individuals, the group brings more input into the decision process.
- Increased diversity of views: Group brings heterogeneity to the decision-making process and this opens up the opportunity for more approaches and alternatives to be considered.
- Increased acceptance of a solution: The group acceptance facilitates higher satisfaction among those employees required to implement it.
- Increased legitimacy: The group decision making process is consistent with demographic ideals and therefore may be perceived as being more legitimate than decisions made by an individual.

Limitations of group decision making:

- Time-consuming: It takes time to assemble a group.
- Pressures to conform: The desire by group members to be accepted and considered as an asset to the group can result in squashing any overt disagreement, thus encouraging conformity among viewpoints.
- Domination by the few: Few people will try to dominate the group discussion. If such people are happened to be mediocre, the group overall effectiveness will suffer.

- Ambiguous responsibility: In group decision, the responsibility of any single member is reduced.

1.7 Let's Sum-up

A group is a collection of two or more individuals, interacting and interdependent, who have come together to achieve a particular common objective. You could know about various types of groups and relate the same to your work situations to which you belong.

Members join with different groups depending on their needs and choices. All the group members generally come across the various stages of group development like forming, storming, norming, performing and adjoining. Cohesive groups work together to achieve the group goals. They can be considered as valuable assets to the organization if the group's goals coincide with the organization's goals.

1.8 Key Terms

- Group
- Group dynamics
- Group development
- Group cohesiveness

1.9 Self-Assessment Questions

1. What do you mean by a group? How groups can contribute towards performance in organizations?

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2. Explain the various types of groups in an organization.

1.10 Further Readings

2. SS Khanka . Organization Behavior, S. Chand and Co. Ltd, New Delhi.
3. Uma Sekaran, Organization Behaviours, The Mc Graw –Hill Company, New Delhi.
4. Keith Davis, Human Behaviour at Work - M.cGraw Hill Book Co., New Delhi.
5. LM Prasad, Organization Behaviour, S. Chand and Co. Ltd, New Delhi.

1.11 Model Questions

1. What do you mean by group dynamics? Why is it considered to be so important for organizational performance?

2. Identify the major factors which contribute towards group cohesiveness in organizations.

Unit-2

Transactional Analysis

Structure

1.1 Introduction

Transactional analysis, commonly known as **TA** to its adherents, is a psychoanalytic theory of psychology developed by psychiatrist Eric Berne during the late 1950s.

Revising Freud's concept of the human psyche as composed of the Superego, the Ego and the Id, Berne postulated instead three "ego states", the Parent, Adult and Child states [1], which were largely shaped through childhood experiences.

Unhealthy childhood experiences could damage the Child or Parent ego states, which would bring discomfort to an individual and/or others, in a variety of forms including many types of mental illness.

Berne considered how individuals interact with one another, and how the ego states affected each set of transactions. Unproductive or counterproductive transactions were considered to be signs of ego state problems. Analysing these transactions, according to the person's individual developmental history, would enable the person to "get better". Berne thought that virtually everyone has something problematic about their ego states and that negative behaviour would not be addressed by 'treating' only the problematic individual.

Berne identified a typology of common counterproductive social interactions, identifying these as "games".

Berne presented his theories in two popular books on transactional analysis. As a result, TA came to be disdained in many mainstream mental health circles as an example of "pop psychology". A light rock song, "Games People Play", reinforced the idea of lightweight inanity.

TA was also dismissed by the conventional psychoanalytic community because of its radical departures from Freudian theory. However, by the 1970s, because of its non-technical and non-threatening jargon and model of the human psyche, many of its terms and concepts were adopted by eclectic therapists as part of their individual approaches to psychotherapy. It also served well as a therapy model for groups of patients, or marital/family counselees, where interpersonal (rather than intrapsychic disturbances) were the focus of treatment.

The more dedicated TA purists banded together in 1964 with Berne to form a research and professional accrediting body, the International Transactional Analysis Association, or ITAA. The organization is still active as of 2006.

1.2 TA outline

TA is a theory of personality and a systematic psychotherapy for personal growth and personal change.

- As a theory of personality, TA describes how people are structured psychologically. It uses what is perhaps its best known model, the ego-state (Parent-Adult-Child) model to do this. This same model helps understand how people function and express themselves in their behaviour.
- As a theory of communication it extends to a method of analysing systems and organisations.
- it offers a theory for child development.
- It introduces the idea of a "Life (or Childhood) Script", that is, a story one perceives about ones own life, to answer questions such as *"What matters"*, *"How do I get along in life"* and *"What kind of person am I"*. This story, TA says, is often stuck to no matter the consequences, to "prove" one is right, even at the cost of pain, compulsion, self-defeating behaviour and other dysfunction. Thus TA offers a theory of a broad range of psychopathology.

- In practical application, it can be used in the diagnosis and treatment of many types of psychological disorders, and provides a method of therapy for individuals, couples, families and groups.
- Outside the therapeutic field, it has been used in education, to help teachers remain in clear communication at an appropriate level, in counseling and consultancy, in management and communications training, and by other bodies.

1.3 Key ideas of TA

Like Neuro-linguistic programming (NLP), TA is pragmatic, that is, it seeks to find "what works" and where applicable develop models to assist understanding. Thus it continually evolves. However some core models are part of TA as follows:

1.4 The Ego-State (or Parent-Adult-Child, PAC) model

At any given time, a person experiences and manifests their personality through a mixture of behaviours, thoughts and feelings. Typically, according to TA, there are three ego-states that people consistently use:

- **Parent ("exteropsychic"):** a state in which people behave, feel, and think in response to an unconscious mimicking of how their parents (or other parental figures) acted. For example, a person may shout at someone out of frustration because they learned from an influential figure in childhood the lesson that this seemed to be a way of relating that worked.
- **Adult ("neopsychic"):** a state in which people behave, feel, and think in response to what is going on in the "here-and-now," using all of their resources as an adult human being with many years of life experience to guide them. While a person is in the Adult ego state, he/she is directed towards an objective appraisal of reality.
- **Child ("archaeopsychic"):** a state in which people revert to behaving, feeling and thinking close to how they did in childhood. For example, a person being told off by the boss at work may look down and feel shame or anger, as they used to when being told off as a child.

Within each of these are sub-divisions. Thus parental figures are often either *nurturing* (permission giving, security giving) or *controlling*, childhood behaviours are either natural (*free*) or *adapted* to others. Each of these tends to draw an individual to certain patterns of behaviour, feelings and ways of thinking, which may be beneficial (*positive*) or dysfunctional/counterproductive (*negative*).

Ego states are not intended to correspond to Freud's Ego, Superego and Id, though some have compared the two theories. Rather, ego states are consistent for each person and are more readily observable than the hypothetical Freudian model. In other words, the particular ego state that a given person is communicating from is determinable by external observation and experience.

Ego states also do not correspond directly to thinking, feeling, and judging, as these behaviours are present in every ego state.

There is no "universal" ego state; each state is individually and visibly manifested for each person. For example, a child ego state is individual to the specific human being, that is, it is drawn from the ego state **they** created as a child, not some 'generalised childlike' state.

Ego states can become contaminated, for example when a person mistakes Parental rules and slogans, for here-and-now Adult reality, and beliefs are taken as facts. Or when a person "knows" that everyone is laughing at them, because "they always laughed". This would be an example of a childhood contamination, insofar as here-and-now reality is being overlaid with memories of previous historic incidents in childhood.

1.5 Transactions and Strokes

- *Transactions* are the flow of communication, and more specifically the unspoken psychological flow of communication that runs in parallel.
- Transactions occur simultaneously at both explicit and psychological levels. Example: sweet caring voice with sarcastic intent. To read the real communication requires both surface and non-verbal reading.
- *Strokes* are the recognition, attention or responsiveness that one person gives another. Strokes can be positive (nicknamed "warm fuzzies") or negative ("cold pricklies"). A key idea is that people hunger for recognition, and that lacking positive strokes, will seek whatever kind they can, even if it is recognition of a negative kind. We test out as children what strategies and behaviours seem to get us strokes, of whatever kind we can get.

People often create pressure in (or experience pressure from) others to communicate in a way that matches their style, so that a boss who talks to his staff as a controlling parent will often engender self-abasement or other childlike responses. Those employees who resist may get removed or labeled as "trouble".

Transactions can be experienced as positive or negative depending on the nature of the strokes within them. However, a negative transaction is preferred to no transaction at all, because of a fundamental hunger for strokes.

The nature of transactions is important to understanding communication

1.6 Kinds of transactions

Reciprocal or Complementary Transactions

A simple, reciprocal transaction occurs when both partners are addressing the ego state the other is in. These are also called complementary transactions.

Example 1

A: "Have you been able to write the report?" (Adult to Adult)

B: "Yes - I'm about to email it to you." (Adult to Adult)

Example 2

A: "Would you like to come and watch a film with me?" (Child to Child)

B: "I'd love to - what shall we go and see?" (Child to Child)

Example 3

A: "Is your room tidy yet?" (Parent to Child)

B: "Will you stop hassling me? I'll do it eventually!" (Child to Parent)

Communication like this can continue indefinitely. (Clearly it will stop at some stage - but this psychologically balanced exchanged of strokes can continue for some time).

Crossed Transactions

Communication failures are typically caused by a 'crossed transaction' where partners address ego states other than that their partner is in. Consider the above examples jumbled up a bit.

Example 1a:

A: "Have you been able to write that report?" (Adult to Adult)

B: "Will you stop hassling me? I'll do it eventually!" (Child to Parent)

is a crossed transaction likely to produce problems in the workplace. "A" may respond with a Parent to Child transaction. For instance:

A: "If you don't change your attitude you'll get fired"

Example 2a:

A: "Is your room tidy yet?" (Parent to Child)

B: "I'm just going to do it, actually." (Adult to Adult)

is a more positive crossed transaction. However there is the risk that "A" will feel aggrieved that "B" is acting responsibly and not playing his role, and the conversation will develop into:

A: "I can never trust you to do things!" (Parent to Child)

B: "Why don't you believe anything I say?" (Child to Parent)

which can continue indefinitely.

Duplex or Covert transactions

Another class of transaction is the 'duplex' or 'covert' transactions, where the explicit social conversation occurs in parallel with an implicit psychological transaction. For instance,

A: "Would you like to come and see the barn?"

B: "I've loved barns ever since I was a little girl."

Social level adult-to-adult; psychological level child-to-child flirtation.

1.7 Phenomena behind the transactions

Life (or Childhood) Script

- Script is a life plan, directed to a pay-off.

- Script is decisional and responsive, ie decided upon in childhood in response to perceptions of the world and as a means of living with and making sense of. It is not just thrust upon a person by external forces.
- Script is reinforced by parents (or other influential figures and experiences)
- Script is for the most part outside awareness
- Script is how we navigate and what we look for, the rest of reality is redefined (distorted) to match our filters.

Each culture, country and people in the world has a Mythos, that is, a legend explaining its origins, core beliefs and purpose. According to TA, so do individual people. A person begins writing their own life story (script) very young, as they try to make sense of the world and their place within it. Although it is revised throughout life, the core story is selected and decided upon typically by age 7. As adults it passes out of awareness. A life script might be "to be hurt many times, and suffer and make others feel bad when I die", and could result in a person indeed setting themselves up for this, by adopting behaviours in childhood that produce exactly this effect. Or it could as easily be positive.

Redefining and Discounting

- *Redefining* means the distortion of reality when we deliberately (but unconsciously) distort things to match our preferred way of seeing the world. Thus a person whose script involves "struggling alone against a cold hard world" may redefine others' kindness and state that they are just trying to get something by manipulation.
- *Discounting* means to take something as worth less than it is. Thus to give a substitute reaction which does not originate as a here-and-now Adult attempt to solve the actual problem, or to not choose to see evidence that would contradict one's script. Types of discount can also include: passivity (doing nothing), over-adaptation, agitation, incapacitation, anger and violence.

Injunctions and Drivers

TA identifies twelve key injunctions which people commonly build into their scripts. These are injunctions in the sense of being powerful "I can't/mustn't ..." messages that embed into a child's belief and life-script:

Don't be (don't exist), Don't be who you are, Don't be a child, Don't grow up, Don't make it in your life, Don't do anything!, Don't be important, Don't belong, Don't be close, Don't be well (don't be sane!), Don't think, Don't feel.

In addition there is the so-called episcript, *"You should (or deserve to) have this happen in your life, so it doesn't have to happen to me."*

Against these, a child is often told other things they must do. There are six of these 'drivers':

Be perfect! Please (me/others)! Try Hard! Be Strong! Hurry Up! Be Careful!

Thus in creating their script, a child will often attempt to juggle these, example: "It's okay for me to go on living (ignore *don't exist*) so long as I *try hard*".

This explains why some change is inordinately difficult. To continue the above example: When a person stops *trying hard* and relaxes to be with their family, the injunction *You don't have the right to exist* which was being suppressed by their script now becomes exposed and a vivid threat. Such an individual may feel a massive psychological pressure which they themselves don't understand, to return to *trying hard*, in order to feel safe and justified (in a childlike way) in *existing*.

Driver behaviour is also detectable at a very small scale, for instance in instinctive responses to certain situations where driver behaviour is played out over five to twenty seconds.

Broadly, scripts can fall into Tragic, Heroic or Banal (or Non-Winner) varieties, depending on their rules.

1.8 Series of transactions

Rituals

A ritual is a series of transactions that are complementary (reciprocal), stereotyped and based on social programming. Rituals usually comprise a series of strokes exchanged between two parties.

For instance, two people may have a daily two stroke ritual, where, the first time they meet each day, each one greets the other with a "Hi". Others may have a four stroke ritual, such as:

A: Hi!

B: Hi! How do you do?

A: Getting along. What about you?

B: Fine. See you around.

The next time they meet in the day, they may not exchange any strokes at all, or may just acknowledge each other's presence with a curt nod.

Some phenomena associated with daily rituals:

- If a person exchanges fewer strokes than expected, the other person may feel that he is either preoccupied or acting high and mighty.
- If a person exchanges more strokes than expected, the other person might wonder whether he is trying to butter him up or get on good terms for some vested interests.
- If two people do not meet for a long time, a backlog of strokes gets built up, so that the next time they meet, they may exchange a large number of strokes to *catch up*.

Pastimes

A pastime is a series of transactions that is complementary (reciprocal), semi-ritualistic, and is mainly intended as a time-structuring activity. Pastimes have no covert purpose and can usually be carried out only between people on the same wavelength. They are usually shallow and harmless.

Other kinds of transactional series

The other kinds include procedures, operations and games. Games are discussed below.

Games and their analysis

Definition of game

A game is a series of transactions that is complementary (reciprocal), ulterior, and proceeds towards a predictable outcome. Games are often characterized by a *switch* in roles of players towards the end.

Each game has a **payoff** for those playing it. The *antithesis* of a game, that is, the way to break it, lies in discovering how to deprive the actors of their payoff.

Students of transactional analysis have discovered that people who are used to a game are willing to play it, even if as a different actor from what they originally were.

Analysis of a game

One important aspect of a game is its number of players. Games may be two handed (that is, played by two players), three handed (that is, played by three players), or many handed. Three other quantitative variables are often useful to consider for games:

- *Flexibility*: The ability of the players to change the currency of the game (that is, the tools they use to play it). In a flexible game, players may shift from words, to money, to parts of the body.

- *Tenacity*: The persistence with which people play and stick to their games and their resistance to breaking it.

- *Intensity*: *Easy* games are games played in a relaxed way. *Hard* games are games played in a tense and aggressive way.

Based on the degree of accepitability and potential harm, games are classified as:

- *First Degree Games* are socially acceptable in the agent's circle.
- *Second Degree Games* are games that the players would like to conceal though they may not cause irreversible damage.
- *Third Degree Games* are games that could lead to drastic harm to one or more of the parties concerned.

Games are also studied based on their:

- Aim
- Roles
- Social and Psychological Paradigms
- Dynamics
- Advantages to players (Payoffs)

Contrast with rational (mathematical) games

Transactional game analysis is fundamentally different from rational or mathematical game analysis in the following senses:

- The players do not always behave rationally in transactional analysis, but behave more like *real* people.
- Their motives are often ulterior

Some commonly found games

Here are some of the most commonly found themes of games described in *Games People Play* by Eric Berne:

- **YDYB**: Why Don't You, Yes But. Historically, the first game discovered.
- **IFWY**: If It Weren't For You
- **WAHM**: Why does this Always Happen to Me?
- **SWYMD**: See What You Made Me Do
- **UGMIT**: You Got Me Into This
- **LHIT**: Look How Hard I've Tried
- **ITHY**: I'm Only Trying to Help You
- **LYAHF**: Let's You and Him Fight

[edit] Rackets

- A racket is the dual strategy of getting "permitted feelings" and covering up those which we truly feel, as being "not allowed".

More technically, a racket feeling is "a familiar set of emotions, learned and enhanced during childhood, experienced in many different stress situations, and maladaptive as an adult means of problem solving".

A racket is then a set of behaviours which originate from the childhood script rather than in here-and-now full Adult thinking, which (1) are employed as a way to manipulate the environment to match the script rather than to actually solve the problem, and (2) whose covert goal is not so much to solve the problem, as to experience these racket feelings and feel internally justified in experiencing them.

Examples of racket and racket feelings: "Why do I meet good guys who turn out to be so hurtful", or "He always takes advantage of my goodwill". The racket is then a set of behaviours and chosen strategies learned and practised in childhood which in fact help to cause these feelings to be experienced. Typically this happens *despite* their own surface protestations and hurt feelings, out of awareness and in a way that is perceived as someone else's fault. One covert pay-off for this racket and its feelings, might be to gain in a guilt freeway, continued evidence and reinforcement for a childhood script belief that "People will always let you down".

In other words, rackets and games are devices used by a person to create a circumstance where they can legitimately feel the racket feelings, thus abiding by and reinforcing their childhood script. They are always a substitute for a more genuine and full adult emotion and response which would be a more appropriate response to the here-and-now situation.

The first such game theorized was *Why don't you/Yes, but* in which one player (*White*) would pose a problem as if seeking help, and the other player(s) (*Black*) would offer solutions. White would point out a flaw in every Black player's solution (the "Yes, but" response), until they all gave up in frustration. The secondary gain for White was that he could claim to have justified his problem as insoluble and thus avoid the hard work of internal change; and for Black, to either feel the frustrated martyr ("I was only trying to help") or a superior being, disrespected ("the patient was uncooperative").

Games can be classed as level 1, 2 or 3 according to the stakes played. Level 1 would be lots of small paybacks (the girl who keeps meeting nice guys who ditch her, and feeling bad). Level 3 would be payback built up over a long period to a major level (ie court, mortuary, or similar).

They can also be analysed according to the Karpman drama triangle, that is, by the roles of Persecutor, Victim and Rescuer. The 'switch' is then when one of these having allowed stable roles to become established, suddenly switches role. The victim becomes a persecutor, and throws the previous persecutor into the victim role, or the rescuer suddenly switches to become a persecutor ("You never appreciate me helping you!").

(This section with thanks to: *TA Today: A New Introduction to Transactional Analysis* by Ian Stewart, Vann Joines)

1.9 Philosophy of TA

- People are OK; thus each person has validity, importance, equality of respect.
- Everyone (with only few exceptions) has full adult capability to think.
- People decide their story and destiny, and this is a decision that can be changed.
- Freedom from historical maladaptations embedded in the childhood script is required in order to become free of inappropriate unauthentic and displaced emotion which are not a fair and honest reflection of here-and-now life (such as echoes of childhood suffering, pity-me and other mind games, compulsive behaviour, and repetitive dysfunctional life patterns).
- TA is goal-oriented, not merely problem-oriented.
- The aims of change under TA are autonomy (freedom from childhood script), spontaneity, intimacy, problem *solving* as opposed to *avoidance* or *passivity*, cure as an ideal rather than merely 'making progress', learning new choices.

Pop TA

Berne's ability to express the ideas of TA in common language and his popularisation of the concepts in mass-market books inspired a boom of 'popular' TA texts, some of which simplify TA concepts to a deleterious degree.

One example is a caricature of the structural model, where it is made out that the Parent judges, the Adult thinks and the Child feels. Most serious TA texts, including those aimed at the mass market rather than professionals, avoid this degree of oversimplification.

Thomas Harris's highly successful popular work from the late 1960s, *I'm OK, You're OK* is largely based on Transactional Analysis. A fundamental divergence, however, between Harris and Berne is that Berne postulates that everyone starts life in the "I'm OK" position, whereas Harris believes that life starts out "I'm not OK, you're OK". Many transactional analysts have regarded Harris as too far-removed from core TA beliefs to be considered a transactional analyst.

Unit – 3
Organisation Change and Development

Learning Objectives:

After completion of the unit you should be able to:

- Understand the concept of organisational change.
- Explain the significance and types of changes and forces of change.
- Factors determining organisational change.

Structure

1.1 Introduction

Change is inevitable. Nothing is permanent except the change. It is the duty of the management to manage change properly. Organizations must keep a close watch on the environment and incorporate suitable changes if the situation so demands. Change is a continuous phenomenon. Organizations must be proactive in affecting change. Even in most stable organizations change is necessary just to keep the level of stability. The major environmental forces, which make the change necessary are technology, market forces and socio-economic factors. Resistance to change is not desirable. It is counterproductive for growth and destructive in nature. Managers must evolve policies to affect change. Change refers to any alteration which occurs in over all work environment of an organization. It may relate to change in technology, organizational structure, working processes, work environment, organizational policy and even the roles people play. Introduction of change in one part in an organization forces change in other part. If the change is beneficial people accept it willingly. If it is not desirable, there is great resistance. If it is of no consequence to the people, they may adopt an attitude of indifference. If they consider the change detrimental to their growth and prosperity, they may resist through counter pressure. This reaction is based not necessarily on the reality or facts but on their perception. The change therefore should be sufficiently strong enough to overcome the counter pressure. Due to advancement of technology and social environment change has become a necessity.

Why is change important to managers and organizations? Simply stated, organizations that do not bring about timely change in appropriate ways are unlikely to survive. One reason that the rate of change is accelerating is that knowledge and technology feed on them, constantly creating innovations at exponential rates. Few business leaders would have envisioned in the mid-1990s, the revolutionary impact the Internet and World Wide Web would have on business practices in the early 21st century. An organization is thus subject to two sets of forces: those of the external political, social, economic and competitive environment and those internal to the organization

1.2 Forces for change

An organization is an open system which has to interact with environment and is solely dependent on it. Any change in environment makes it necessary for the organization to incorporate change in the internal systems, sub-systems and processes. This change has a chain reaction on the other internal elements of organization. For example any change in consumer preferences, may change product feature, cost, technology, marketing strategy and the like. Organization must interact with external environment in order to survive.

1.2.1 External forces

1. Political Forces

The transition of the East-European nations to democracy and a market economy, the opening up of the economy of South-East Asia, the collapse of the erstwhile Soviet Union, the unification of Germany, the Gulf War, the Iraq war are some examples of the political upheavals that have had widespread repercussion around the world, bringing a plethora of changes in their wake.

2. Economic Forces

The uncertainty about future trends in the economy is a major cause of change. For example, fluctuating interest rates, declining productivity, uncertainties arising from inflation or deflation, low capital investments, the fluctuating prices of oil (petrol), recession, and the lowering of consumer confidence have a marked impact on different economies, and therefore, an organization. The national financial systems of countries are so interrelated that a change in one produces a ripple effect on the others- for example, the economic crisis in Thailand affecting markets across South-East Asia. Changes in the capital markets arise out of change in the accessibility of many of the banking systems of different economies.

3. Technological Forces

The world is presently characterized by dramatic technological shifts. Technological advancements, particularly in communication and computer technology, have revolutionized the workplace and have helped to create a whole new range of products/services. For example, a super- communication system is one the anvil in which about 20 Japanese companies will join a Motorola Inc. led project to set up a satellite cellular telephone system that can be used from anywhere on earth, an idea that services the defunct Iridium global telephony venture. The companies include Sony Corporation, Mitsubishi Corporation, Kyocera Corporation and long distance telephone carriers whose interests include Sony and Kyocera.

Advances in technology have contributed to the development of economies. A case in point is Singapore, which, with almost no natural resources, has created a powerful economic advantage by exploiting the use of information technology in its overall planning. It is poised to become the world's first fully networked society– one in which all homes, schools, businesses and government agencies will be electronically interconnected.

4. Government Forces

i. Governmental interventions in the form of regulation also lead to change. A few examples for government regulated change are:

ii. *Deregulation*: This is lessening of governmental rules and increasing decentralization of economic interventions at the level of the state. What previously used to be essentially government sector services and industries are now being handed over to private companies for operation maintenance.

iii. *Foreign Exchange*: Foreign exchange affects international trade transactions. In these transactions, payments are often made in terms of a country's own currency, in US dollars, or the currency of a third country. The exchange rate variations determine the currency payments. Prediction of exchange rate movements depends upon a number of factors such as a country's balance of payments, interest rates, and supply and demand, making it often difficult to forecast.

5. Increased Global Competition

In order to survive and grow, companies are increasingly making their presence felt globally. The case of the global automobile industry highlights this concept. Japanese automakers Toyota, Nissan, and Mitsubishi have continuously been relocating their manufacturing and assembling operations to South-East Asia where the cost of labour is much cheaper compared to that in Japan. They have also established their plants all over Europe and America to get past import restrictions and in the process have been able to retain a competitive edge in catering to the world automobile market.

6. Changing Customer Needs and Preferences

Customer needs and preferences are always changing. Organisations are forced to adapt and constantly innovate their product offerings to meet these changing needs. For example, Sony Corporation, Japan, known throughout the world for its technological innovations in tune with changing customer preferences, has developed a 2.5" hard disk drive for a laptop computer that could hold as much as 1.5 billion bytes of data costs less than the current disk drive holding 80 mega bytes.

1.2.2 Internal forces

A variety of forces inside an organization also cause changes that relate to system dynamics, inadequacy of existing administrative process, individual/group expectations, technology, structures, profitability issues and resources constraints.

1. System Dynamics

An organization is made up of subsystems similar to that of the sub-personalities in the human brain. The sub-personalities in the brain are in constant interaction with each other creating changes in human behaviour. Similarly, subsystems within an organization are in creating changes in human behaviour. Similarly, subsystems within an organization are in constant and dynamic interaction. The factors that influence the alignment and relationships among the various subsystems in the context of an organization are, for example technology, internal politics, dominant groups/cliques, and the formal and informal relationships within.

2. Inadequacy of Administrative Processes

An organization functions through a set of procedures, rules and regulations. With changing times and the revision of organizational goals and objectives, some of the existing rules, procedures and regulations could be at variance with the demands of reality. To continue with such functionally autonomous processes can lead to organizational ineffectiveness. Realisation of their inadequacy is a force that induces change.

3. Individual/Group Speculations

The organization as an entity is a confluence of people, each one raring to satisfy his/her needs and aspirations. In an anthropological context, man is a social animal whose needs and desires keep changing. This creates differing expectations among individuals and groups as to the needs they intend satisfying in the organizational context. Positive factors such as one's ambitions, need to achieve, capabilities, career growth, and negative aspects such as one's fears, insecurities, and frustrations operate as complex inter-individual and inter-group processes inducing change in an organisation's functioning and performance (which may or may not be to the organisation's best interests).

4. Structure Focused Change

]It's a change that alters any of the basic components of an organisation's structures or overall designs. Organisations make structural changes to reduce costs and increase profitability. Structural change can take the form of downsizing, decentralization, job-redesign, etc. For example, IBM, the global computer conglomerate has been trying to downsize. While many people were asked to leave, IBM is now very selective about hiring new personnel. In the process of downsizing, IBM has also changed the firm's strategy and operational procedures.

5. Technological Changes

Changes that impact the actual process of transforming input into outputs are referred to as technological changes. Examples include the change in equipment, work process, work sequence, information-processing systems, and degree of automation.

Using new technology influences the subsystems in the organization. For example, the technological advancement in computers has revolutionized the design, development and manufacture (e.g. CAD/CAM, robotics) of products. The electronic point of sales system for instance, that permits improved stock control by instantaneously updating records and assessing the actual effects of price change, has improved the sales and marketing of goods.

6. Persons Focused Change

This is the change concerned with human resources planning and with enhancing employee competence and performance. Redefining organsational strategy and goods; structural change in terms of expansion, contracting technological inputs– all these have implications for human resources management. For example, introduction of new technologies result in person focused change such as: replacement (when an employee cannot be trained further), replacement (to where an employee’s current skills are best suited), and employee training and development. It may also lead to laying down new recruitment and selection policies in tune with changing technologies and their requirements. The availability or non-availability of employees with the required skills also influences an organisation’s plan for expansion, of venturing into new products/services and of profitability.

7. Profitability Issues

A significant change form that has obliged a number of organizations to restructure (downsize, resize) and re-engineer themselves related to profitability issues such of loss of revenues, market share, and low productivity.

8. Resource Constraints

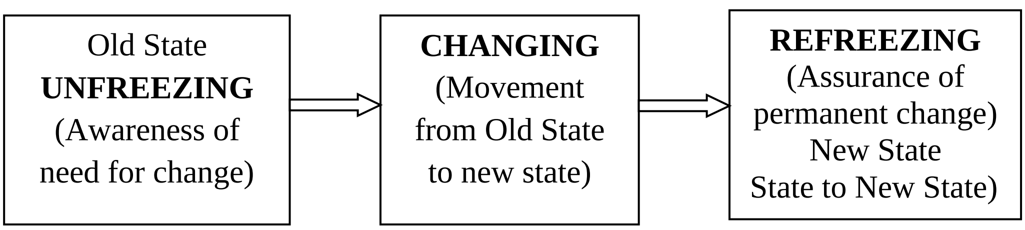
Resources refer to money, material, machinery, personnel, information and technology. Depletion, inadequacy or non-availability of these can be a powerful change force for any organization

1.3 Change Models

Change Process

We have earlier discussed that the environment forces companies to change the way they operate which is relatively easy to visualise. What is more difficult to see is the complex interplay of these forces against other organisational dynamics. Psychologist Kutt Lewin developed the Force Field Analysis model to help us understand how the change process works. Although developed over almost fifty years ago, Lewin’s Force Field Analysis model remains the prominent way of viewing this process.

Kurt Lewin suggests that efforts to bring about planned change in an organisation should approach change as a multistage process. His model of planned change is made up of three steps— unfreezing, change, and refreezing as shown below:



(Kurt Lewin’s Process of Organisational Change)

Unfreezing is the process by which people become aware of the need for change. If people are satisfied with current practices and procedures, they may have little or no interest in making employees understand the importance of a change and how their jobs will be affected by it. The employees who will be most affected by the change must be made aware of why it is needed, which in effect makes them dissatisfied enough with current operations to be motivated to change.

Changing itself is the movement from the old way of doing things to a desired new way. Change may entail installing new equipment, restructuring the organisation, implementing a new performance appraisal system- anything that alters existing relationships or activities.

Refreezing makes new behaviour relatively permanent and resistant to further change. Examples of refreezing techniques include repeating newly learned skills in a training session and role-playing to teach how the new skills can be used in a real-life wok situation. Refreezing is necessary because without it, the old ways of doing things might soon reassert themselves, while the new ways are forgotten. For example, many employees who attend special training sessions apply themselves diligently and resolve to change things in their organisation.

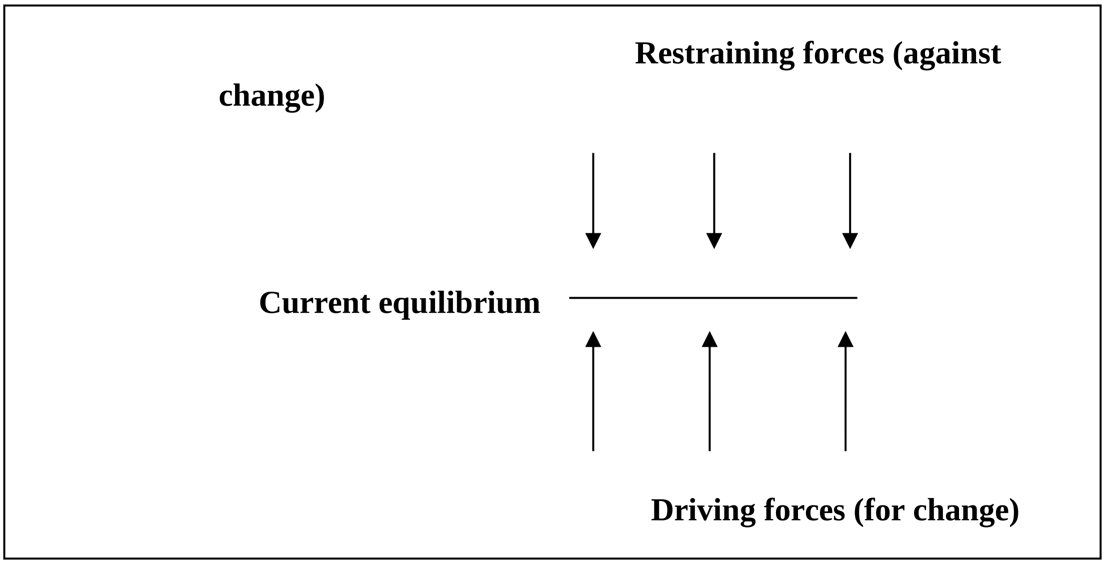
Force-field Analysis Model

Kurt Lewin developed a 'force field analysis' model (1951) which describes any current level of performance or being as *a state of equilibrium between the driving forces that encourage upward movement and the restraining forces that discourage it*. Essentially this means that a current equilibrium exists because the forces acting for change are balanced by the forces acting against change.

The driving forces are (usually) positive, reasonable, logical, conscious and economic.
The restraining forces are (usually) negative, emotional, illogical, unconscious and social/psychological.

Both sets of forces are very real and need to be taken into account when dealing with change, or managing change, or reacting to change.

Force-field Analysis



Increasing the driving forces is not enough for change, as the restraining forces remain in place, and as long as they remain in place it becomes harder to use the driving forces. An analogy is when you push against a spring; the more you push, the harder it becomes and as soon as you stop pushing the spring reverts to its previous position (after having sprung past that point). Therefore unless both the driving and restraining forces are balanced a kind of yo-yo effect results; a change and then a reversion back, and then a change, and then a reversion back, and then a change, et cetera, et cetera. It's important to note that the restraining forces may not be conscious – i.e. they should not be regarded as being deliberate attempts to subvert change (although they may be).

Lewin suggested that change would be easier and longer lasting if the forces against change were reduced, rather than the forces for change being increased.

Lewin suggested that modifying the forces which maintain the status quo may be easier than increasing the forces for change.

1.4 Management of Change

John P. Kotter's 'eight steps to successful change' model John Kotter's book, 'The Heart of Change' (2002), presents a model for understanding and managing change. Each stage acknowledges a key principle relating to people's response and approach to change, in which people see, feel and then change. The model is based on research which shows that there are eight critical steps an organisation or team needs to go through to ensure that change happens and sticks as follows:-

i. Establish a sense of urgency - make objectives real and relevant - help others see the need for change and the importance of acting immediately - identify crises, potential crises or major opportunities.

ii. Pull together the guiding team (a ‘powerful, guiding coalition’) - assemble a group with enough power and the right skills to lead the change effort - encourage the group to work together as a team.

iii. Create a vision - develop the vision with the team to help direct the change effort - develop strategies for achieving that vision.

iv. Communicate the vision - use every mechanism and involve as many people as possible to communicate the new vision and strategies for understanding and buy-in - communicate the essentials, simply, to appeal and respond to people’s needs - teach new behaviours by the example of the guiding team.

v. Empower others to act - remove obstacles/barriers to change - change systems or structures that seriously undermine the vision - encourage risk taking and non-traditional ideas, activities and actions - recognise and reward progress and achievements

vi. Plan and create short term wins - set aims that are easy to achieve for visible performance improvements - create those improvements in bite sized chunks - Finish current stages before starting new ones

vii. Don’t let up - Foster and encourage determination and persistence - consolidate improvements and produce still more change - use increased credibility to change systems, structures and policies that don't fit the vision - highlight achieved and future milestones.

viii. Make change stick (Institutionalise new approaches) - weave change into the culture - articulate the connections between the new behaviours and corporate success - develop the means to ensure leadership development and succession - reinforce the value of successful change via recruitment, promotion and new change leaders who can implement the vision

These steps are summarised in the diagram below:

Eight common reasons for failure of change management-

In contrast, Kotter also highlighted eight common reasons why change often fails:

- Allowing too much complexity
- Failing to build a substantial coalition
- Failing to understand the need for a clear vision
- Failure to clearly communicate that vision
- Permitting roadblocks against that vision
- Not planning for short term results and not realising them
- Declaring victory too soon
- Failure to anchor changes in corporate culture

References Kotter J,(1996), Leading Change, Boston: Harvard Business School Press Kotter J & Cohen D, (2002), The Heart Of Change, Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

1.5 Concept and definitions of OD

Why is change important to managers and organizations? Simply stated, organizations that do not bring about timely change in appropriate ways are unlikely to survive. One reason that the rate of change is accelerating is that knowledge and technology feed on them, constantly creating innovations at exponential rates. Few business leaders would have envisioned in the mid-1990s, the revolutionary impact the Internet and World Wide Web would have on business practices in the early 21st century.

"Organization development is an organization wide planned effort managed from the top to increase organization effectiveness and health through planned interventions in the organization's "processes," using behavioural science knowledge."

Richard Beckhard.

" OD is a response to change, a complex education strategy intended to change the beliefs, attitudes, values, and structure of organizations so that they can better adapt to new technologies, markets and challenges, and the dizzying rate of change itself."

Warren Bennis.

"OD is a systematic approach to organizational improvement, that applies behavioural science theory and research in order to increase individual and organizational well-being and effectiveness."

French and Bell.

"The aim of OD are (1) enhancing congruence between organizational structure, processes, strategy, people, and culture; (2) developing new and creative organizational solutions; and (3) developing the organization's self-renewing capacity."

Michael Beer.

"OD is a planned process of change in an organization's culture through the utilization of behavioural science technologies, research and theory."

Warner W. Burke.

From the above definitions following points emerge:

- OD is a field of applied behavioural science technologies.

- It is related to planned change.
- The study of OD is concerned with the total organizational systems and processes.
- OD is related to achieving congruence among organizational components like structure, culture and processes.
- OD is a long-term strategy intended to change beliefs, attitudes, values and organizational structures. It is carried out to achieve organizational effectiveness and meet the challenges of changed environmental factors.
- The study of OD is aimed at developing overall organization with particular reference to development of organizations renewing capacity.
- It involves initiating actions so that organization's are transformed into Learning Organisations.

1.5 OD Assumptions

Basic OD Assumptions that are based upon Reench and Bell in an Organisation.

The Organization development has a number of underlying assumptions which can be examined so as to determine how the OD programmes can be utilized to the fullest potential. These assumptions are based upon French and Bell.

1. Most individuals have drives towards personal growth and development. However, the work habits are a response to work environment rather than personality traits. Accordingly, efforts to change work habits should be directed towards changing how the person is treated rather than towards attempting to change the person.

2. Highest productivity can be achieved when the individual goals are integrated with organizational goals. Also with such integration, the quality of the product is highly improved.

3. Cooperation is more effective than competition. Conflict and competition tend to erode trust, prohibit collaboration and eventually limit the effectiveness of the organization. In healthy organizations, 'efforts are made at all levels to treat conflict as a problem subject to problem solving methods.

4. The suppression of feelings adversely affects problem solving, personal growth and satisfaction with one's work. 'Accordingly, free expression of feelings is an important ingredient for commitment to work.

5. The growth of individual members is facilitated by relationships, which are open supportive and trusting. Accordingly, the level of interpersonal trust, support and cooperation should be as high as possible.

6. The difference between commitment and agreement must be fully understood. Agreeing to do something is totally different from being committed to do something. sense of commitment makes it easy to accept change and the implementation of change for the purpose of organizational development is even easier when such a commitment is based upon participation in the process.

7. OD programmes, if they are to succeed, must be reinforced by the organization's total human resources system.

1.7 OD Interventions

Sensitivity Training

Sensitivity training is a method of laboratory training where an unstructured group of individuals exchange thoughts and feelings on a face-to-face basis. Sensitivity training helps give insight into how and why others feel the way they do on issues of mutual concern. Training in small groups in which people develop a sensitive awareness and understanding of themselves and of their relationships with others. Sensitivity training is based on research on human behavior that came out of efforts during World War II to ascertain whether or not an enemy's core beliefs and behavior could be modified by the application of certain psychological techniques. These techniques have been gradually perfected over the years by efforts of business and industry leaders to persuade people to buy products, including the radio and television industry to ascertain how an audience might be habituated to certain types of programming. Kurt Lewin is credited with being the 'father' of sensitivity training in the United States. Laboratory Training began in 1946 when Kurt Lewin and his staff at the Research Center for Group Dynamics at Massachusetts Institute of Technology were training community leaders. A workshop was developed for the leaders to learn about leadership and to discuss problems. At the end of each day, the researchers discussed privately what behaviors and group dynamics they had observed. The leaders asked permission to sit in on these feedback sessions. Reluctant at first, the researchers finally agreed. Thus the first T-group was formed in which people reacted to information about their own behavior.

Sensitivity could be enhanced by adopting the following view points:

- Everybody is entitled to their feelings, no matter how illogical they are;
- There is no such thing as 'blame'... Everybody involved is equally at fault;
- A person should not attack, but express their feelings about others' actions
- Leaving a problem unresolved will make it worse with time;
- Nobody is perfect which includes one self

Survey-Feedback

Survey feedback technology is probably the most powerful way that OD professionals involve very large numbers of people in diagnosing situations that need attention within the organization and to plan and implement improvements. The general method requires developing reliable, valid questionnaires, collecting data from all personnel, analyzing it for trends and feeding the results back to everyone for action planning. "Walk-the-talk" assessment: Most organizations have at least some leaders who "say one thing and do another." This intervention, which can be highly threatening, concentrates on measuring the extent to which the people within the organization are behaving with integrity.

Survey feedback is a major technique in the history and development of OD. It is a powerful intervention tool and it can reach large numbers of participants. There are five general steps included in a normal survey feedback. The first involves gathering members of the firm in order to plan the survey. This is when the objectives of the survey is determined. The second step involves administering the survey to all of the organization's members, rather than restricting it to managers and coordinators. Next step would be to analyze the data reported through the surveys. In the fourth step the data is fed back to the organization. Finally, the firms should hold meetings to discuss the feedback and try to determine what, if any, action is needed and how to implement it. OD practitioners could be more involved in some of these steps by training someone to go to the firms and help them interpret the feedback and devise intervention plans.

Limitations

There are limitations to survey feedback that OD practitioners should be aware of. These include:

1. Ambiguity of purpose - there can be disagreement over how the data should be analyzed and returned.
2. Distrust - OD practitioners need to ensure participants that their contributions are confidential.
3. Unacceptable topics - some firms have topics they do not want to explore, which constricts the scope of the survey.
4. Organizational disturbance - this process may disturb the employees, and possibly the whole firm

Process Consultation

The concept of process consultation as a mode of inquiry grew out of insight that to be helpful one had to learn enough about the system to understand where it needed help and that this required a period of very low key inquiry oriented diagnostic interventions designed to have a minimal impact on the processes being inquired about (Schein, 1988). Process consultation as a philosophy acknowledges that the consultant is not an expert on anything but how to be helpful and starts with total ignorance of what is actually going on in the client system. One of the skills, then, of process consulting is to "access one's ignorance," to let go of the expert or doctor role and get attuned to the client system as much as possible. Only when one has genuinely understood the problem and what kind of help is needed, can one begin to recommend and prescribe. Even then it is likely that they will not fit the client system's culture and will therefore, not be refrozen even if initially adopted. Instead, a better model of help is to start out with the intention of creating in insider/outsider team that is responsible for diagnostic interventions and all subsequent interventions.

Team Building

Richard Beckhard, one of the founders of the discipline referred to as organization development gave a systematic framework for the most effective interventions to achieve positive organization change. Beckhard's team development model serves as a guide for executives and project managers. There are a variety of situations where new teams are formed. The project-based, cross-functional work team has become the basis of industry in the 1990's. Virtual team organization is rapidly becoming the model for flexibility and agility in organizing quickly and effectively to get jobs done. New teams usually have a clear task focus in the early going and there is usually a clear understanding of the short term goals. The new team members are also generally technically competent and there usually is a challenge in the project that will draw on their technical capabilities. While the early activities of a team are clearly focused on task and work issues, relationship problems tend do develop as they do in any human system. By the time these interpersonal issues surface the team may be well along in its activities. The issues may become very difficult and very costly to work out later in the game. There is a significant benefit if a new team takes a short time at the beginning of its life to examine collaboratively how it is going to work together. Beckhard provides a tool to set the stage for most effective team-work and high performance. Team Building as an OD intervention can take many forms. The most common pattern is
beginning with interviews and other preliminary work, followed by a one-to three-day session. During the meeting the group diagnoses its function as a unit and plans improvements in its operating procedures.

1.8 Let's Sum-up

Change refers to any alteration which occurs in over all work environment of an organization. It may relate to change in technology, organizational structure, working processes, work environment, organizational policy and even the roles people play. Organizations that do not bring about timely change in appropriate ways are unlikely to survive. One reason that the rate of change is accelerating is that knowledge and technology feed on them, constantly creating innovations at exponential rates. The uncertainty about future trends in the economy is a major cause of change. The change process as such includes unfreezing, change, and refreezing.

Organization development offers a prescription for improving the performance between the individuals and the organization, between the organization and the environment, and among the organizational components such as strategy, structure and process. The prescription is implemented through inventions and activities that address specific problematic conditions. Organizational development is a continuous process.

1.9 Key Terms

- Change model
- Unfreezing
- Changing
- Refreezing
- OD assumptions
- OD interventions
- Sensitivity training
- Survey feedback
- Process consultation
- Team building

1.5 Self-Assessment questions

1. Define change. Discuss the impact of change from external environment on organization.

2. Explain the change process as propounded by Kurt Lewin

3. Discuss the various OD assumptions.

1.11 Further Readings

1. SS Khanka . Organization Behavior, S. Chand and Co. Ltd, New Delhi.

2. Uma Sekaran, Organization Behaviours, The Mc Graw –Hill Company, New Delhi.

3. Keith Davis, Human Behaviour at Work - M.cGraw Hill Book Co., New Delhi.

4. LM Prasad, Organization Behaviour, S. Chand and Co. Ltd, New Delhi.

1.12 Model Questions

1. Explain the force-field diagram model of change by Kurt Lewin.
2. Define OD. Discuss Team Building as an intervention of organizational transformation.