CHANGE MANAGEMENT

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Preface

Change management is positioned as the integrative course in many academic programmes because it requires students to reflect on and synthesise the various perspectives on organisational functioning presented in all other functionalities, including financial services, operations management, marketing, organisational behaviour, and strategic management.

It is important to study change management even though aspects like the access to credit, technological advancements, shifting trends of demand, rising competitive challenges, shifting organisational boundaries, the development of new organisational forms, regulatory reforms, and globalisation create opportunities and risks that organisations must address in order to survive and thrive. All levels of management must be able to see the need for change. They must also be able to secure change via their actions.

Being 'incorrect' may be expensive. Therefore, it is essential that managers get it "right," yet getting it "right" is not simple. There is no universal "recipe" applicable to all organisations at all times. This book examines a wide variety of factors that will influence the effectiveness of change initiatives.

Change management will afford you the opportunity to reflect on what you have learned in other courses and through work experience, particularly in the following areas:
sense making: attempting to draw on different perspectives of organisational functioning # ways of knowing: examining different data sources and evaluating evidence
Moulding behaviours: evaluating strategies of shaping and coordinating behavior
 # Developing interventions: contemplating ways of 'doing' that intentionally disturb the status quo to bring the organisation to a more effective state.

It presents a scholarly overview of change management (the theory) and several thoughts on how theory might be utilised to enhance your change management practise.

It seeks to assist you:

Build overall analytical and diagnostics skills so that you are more successful at analysing what is happening on in companies; and # develop your leadership abilities.

Increase your knowledge of how people might promote or oppose change and expand your abilities to manage resources with in context of Change.

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CHAPTER-I
Organisational change: An Introduction

Introduction

Alteration is an unavoidable aspect of living things. It is the essence of any being or thing that contains life or whose very existence is validated by the presence of life. Even "time" would lose its significance if there were no movement in the world. Change does not have the same meaning for different people, locations, and circumstances since it may manifest itself in many different ways. The passage of time causes people to change, things to change, situations to change, and so do the conditions faced by businesses.

The globalisation of economies and the resulting competition, liberalisation, deregulation, privatisation, mergers and acquisitions, and the development of the internet and web-based technologies, have entirely changed the landscape in which organisations and businesses operated in the past. Quickness and easiness of access Alterations in organisational paradigms have been brought about all across the globe, and chief executive officers have been confronted with unprecedented transformation problems over the last decade. People are trying to

combat the effect of the above factors in the context of their place of work. The most critical work that must be done before management We are now dealing with the topic of change in a constantly changing environment while comprehending traditional, rigid, and stagnant thinking. Management strategies and operational protocols One of the most crucial and difficult responsibilities in a modern-day firm is to be the one to recognise the need for organisational change and steer the company through the process of transformation.

We are rapidly moving toward a future in which the geopolitical boundaries that have been the hallmarks of our history are disappearing. This rapid movement is catalysed by technological developments in distribution, information, and communication systems (Toffler, 1980). (Toffler, 1980).

In the 1980s, Toffler made several predictions that have come true. This is an era of immense change, emphasised by globalisation, technological breakthroughs, telecommuting, and e-commerce that are decreasing global boundaries and increasing the pace of change. Telecommuting and e-commerce are two examples of how globalisation is lowering worldwide borders.

As Burke and Trahant (2002) put it, "adding deregulation, political instability, emerging new economies in the Pacific Rim, and an exploding number of new scientific discoveries…you have a recipe not

only for market turbulence but also for... "disruptive phase shifts" in how business is conducted."

Understanding the complexities of change inside a firm is very necessary for managers in order for them to successfully navigate paradigm shifts. At the moment, the focus of change is on the organisation as a whole rather than on its constituent parts, such as individual departments or small workgroups. This represents a significant departure from the traditional way of thinking managers hold (Grenier, 1967), and it emphasises the connection between strategy and the management of change.

Over the years, there has been a growing and overpowering interest in understanding the development of organisations, precisely their adaptability, flexibility, and responsiveness to change, as well as the system-wide repercussions of an organisation's actions, whether they are planned or unplanned. Several factors: have fueled this interest

According to Mohrman and Mohrman (1993), the concept may be summed up as follows: "Organisational settings are becoming less benign, more sophisticated, more linked, and more dynamic."

Creating conditions that need change while simultaneously making it hard for organisations to adapt to those conditions by overloading the information-processing capabilities of the members of such organisations.

According to a recent study on change management, organisations are allegedly facing an increased need

for continuing change that is also becoming more rapid and dramatic (Miller and Morris, 1999; Fradett and Michaud, 1998). (Miller and Morris, 1999; Fradett and Michaud, 1998).

Christensen and Overdorf (2000), Miller and Morris (1999), Tushmanet al. (1997), and others have highlighted the importance of, and inherent challenges associated with, managing companies through changes in the external Environment. Globalisation, advancements in information technology and communication systems, shifting patterns in international relations, and advances in various industries, amongst other things, are significantly responsible for the changes that have taken place in the Environment in recent years. For businesses to thrive and continue existing in the future, they must become versatile, imaginative, and open to learning (Hargadon and Sutton,2000; Sapienza, 1995;senge, 1990). (Hargadon and sutton,2000; sapienza, 1995;senge, 1990).

The literature review reveals that organisation-wide changes, especially in the private sector, are aimed at making rapid economic value while attempting to create an organisation whose structure, processes, people, and culture are aligned with the organisation's current mission, Environment, and future goals. This was found to be the case in the majority of cases (beer and Nohria, 2000). (beer and Nohria, 2000).

On two different levels, the concept of intentional change has been examined (Burke and Trahant,2000;

Beckhard and Harris,1987; Bridges, 1995). (Burke and Trahant,2000; Beckhard and Harris,1987; Bridges,1995).

First is the transformation, which is a fundamental level that focuses on the big picture and includes purpose, strategy, culture, and leadership. Second is the transactional level, which covers the structure, system, management practices, motivation, job fit, and work unit atmosphere. And so on, which focuses on how things are done consistently) (Transitional level that covers structure, system, management practises, motivation, job fit, and work unit climate) And so forth, which concentrates on how things are carried out consistently).

The traditional management method is given a critical analysis by Martin Wood (1994), who writes: "Traditional organisational philosophy has developed through narrowly defined concepts, focussing on short-term efficiency ahead of holistic, long-term effectiveness."

This has resulted in the present organisational structures, within which day-to-day difficulties are handled, being taken for granted to such an extent that their legitimacy remains uncontested.

He said this kind of falsification often finds its vector in groups, organisations, communities, and civilisations since he believed that departures from the predetermined norms were inconceivable.

As a result, they disregard information that does not match and regularly engage in misinterpreting new

ideas to maintain the status quo of their preconceptions. These systems consequently function as "mind guards," maintaining a particular cognitive style to maintain a dominant perspective. This is done to preserve a dominant viewpoint (wood, 1994). (wood, 1994).

In order to get above such naïve thinking, one has to recognise that organisations are constantly shifting, framing and reframing themselves, and only existing in the collective minds of their members (wood, 1994). (wood, 1994).

Therefore, for the organisation to change successfully, it is necessary to shift the values, beliefs, and assumptions held by its members. Otherwise, the improved methods would continue to be unsuccessful, resulting in significant resistance to future change.

AN OVERVIEW OF CHANGE

There are two distinct types of change that an organisation may experience: ongoing and progressive change and discontinuous and dramatic change. However, even in the most dramatic or discontinuous change, the organisation will keep specific essential characteristics, even when these parts have become dysfunctional and obsolete. It will replace them with aspects that are relevant and meaningful. Technically and operationally focused changes were brought about as a consequence of examining management practices at the turn of the twentieth century. After this, a human relations strategy was used, in which a focus was placed on the social systems via human

resource development interventions such as incentive training programmes and supervisors training.

The techniques that were discussed before called for the gradual implementation of change.

During the 1970s, however, ideas about change emphasised the social requirements and technological efficiencies of a changing society. These theories dealt with both social demands and technical efficiencies. Because of this, two distinct methodologies exist organisational development (OD) and social-technical system theory (STS). Twist and Emery are the driving forces behind the STS method, which prioritises democratic procedures inside organisations and emphasises collaborative learning and cooperation via participatory action research.

In Europe, North America, and Australia, the OD and STS theories of transformation began to flourish. Meanwhile, Japan has been developing techniques for quality management like PQM and advocating for the inclusion of workers in decision-making while emphasising social considerations. Therefore, approaches to human relations/OD/STS and TQM implemented in various regions of the globe largely promoted incremental as opposed to transformational Alterations made during the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s. The primary goal of these reforms was to rid bureaucratic organisations of inefficiencies and dehumanisation, both of which contribute to poor job satisfaction and morale among workers.

Recent developments

However, from 1985 – 99 there has been an upsurge in international and global competition due to pressure from economic reforms. A large number of organisations found themselves out of alignment with their operations. Business environment. New technological developments and information technology revolution left the organisation gaping as their customers shifted their preferences to other types of products and services. Organisations soon realised that the approach of incremental change what often inappropriate for repositioning them strategically. Consequently, the mini organisation in the late 1980s and 1990s in the West and 1990s in South Asia started substituting transformation change for incremental change. Paradigm shift was observed in the functioning of a host of organisations.

It is being realised by managers of many organisations that their organisations ought To be flexible to move between incremental and transformational change to remain aligned with the Market conditions and intra-organisational conditions. As large organisations are slow to transform, many organisations have reached the mid-range change.

Forces of change

The power of change is causing organisations to buzz and shake. There are a variety of additional agents of change both within and outside of organisations that have an impact on those institutions. The following

diagrammatic representation of these transformative forces is provided below in figure 1.1:

Table 1.1: **Shift in Trends:**

From	To
Industrial era	information era
national economy	global economy
technology development	technology sophistication
stability and predictability	sudden changes
long term	short term
centralisation	decentralisation
hierarchies	networking
emphasis on continuity	emphasis on change

External forces affecting the organisation
Globalisation and government policies
There are many different ways in which globalisation may influence an economy. Because of globalisation and liberalisation, any organisation in any area can now produce, process, and sell its goods and services to other regions that have also liberalised their economies. The ramifications of globalisation on business include that a company that formerly had a monopoly in a given nation will now need to compete with other international and global enterprises in terms of the quality of their goods and services as well as their prices. Many films produced in India have trailed behind or suffered because their producers did not care to set aside sufficient funding for product developments.

The opening up of the economy has resulted in a flood of various items that may be found on the market at competitive rates. It would be suitable to use the example of the "Ambassador" automobile in this context since it virtually ever made any substantial modifications in its product design even though the market wanted a variety of cars equipped with a wide range of amenities. It was an opportunity seized by a number of auto manufacturing companies, and they responded by introducing a variety of practical and luxurious vehicles. It is not surprising that these companies started to cut into ambassador car's market share; as a result, this specific company experienced significant financial hardship. The agent of change has to be aware of advancements in the sector in which they operate and should ideally be proactive rather than reactive in their approach.

Political factors

Market rather than political boundaries have driven organisations in recent years. International politics affects trade and business; Countries receive the status of favoured nations, or sanctions are imposed on them. Economic factors have become their cementing force in a highly divided world Today. Some countries, which have been having strained Relations for years, have realised the value of Co – operational Co – existence and have united, like North and South Korea, East and West Germany, and 21 countries had recently(2003) Come together under a standard banner for WTO negotiations at Cancun. Countries in

the Asian region have come together to protect their business interests globally. The change agent ought to be sensitive and flexible to protect the interests of their country/organisations with the changing world politics. The managers operating at national, international and global levels need to know about products and services covered under the WTO.

Technological changes

Information and communication technology have enabled governments and organisations to function more closely together. The term "technology" may apply to more than only machines, tools, and other equipment. In addition, it focuses on using information and knowledge as inputs, which leads to the development of outputs in the end. Because the transformation process requires technology, selecting the most suitable technology is critical in gaining a competitive advantage in the new Environment. The proliferation of the internet and web-based technology has led to the formation of virtual corporations. The organisation is impacted at both the macro and the micro level by factors such as automation, mechanisation, and computer-based design and production systems. It should go without saying that different components of the organisation, including technology, must be coordinated.

Changing customer needs under preferences

With the availability of a range of items, there is a perceived shift in client preferences. This has led to higher competition and decreased product lifetime,

whether a product like a telephone handset or a significant product like a fridge, television or automobile. There is a need for higher personalisation, which influences the organisational manufacturing process.

Economic factors

Because of the growing competition and the decrease in profit margins, businesses are trying to reduce costs by maintaining a minimal workforce and contracting out some of their operations. In addition, outsourcing is now a business in and of itself, which has led to the development of Business Handle Organizations (BPOs) and Knowledge Processing Organizations (KPOs), which are essentially called centres that process business from all over the world.

The influence of all these factors may be seen on an organisation's structure and design, systems and process, task and technology, and most importantly, on the psychological contract (expectations from workers) of those working for the business. The personnel who are used to working for eight hours during the day will now be obliged to work throughout the night to meet the requirements of customers located in the Western Hemisphere and work according to the same time zone.

Employees who previously could handle their jobs while having little technology abilities must now grasp new technologies to be productive in their roles. An employee in the banking business who was previously responsible for processing around 300 checks per day

is now needed to process roughly 3000 cheques daily. This may be seen as an illustration of this phenomenon. Banking services such as phone banking, telebanking, weekend banking, banking open 24 hours a day, and banking open seven days a week have significantly altered the psychological contract that bank workers work under. The introduction of call centres as a predominant customer service mode has affected the telecom sector. These shifts are connected with social and economic ramifications on a broader scale.

Internal forces affecting the organisation

There are many different forces at work inside an organisation, and each of these forces has the potential to affect the organisation in a significant manner, so upsetting its balance. These factors bring about a condition of quasi-stationary equilibrium in the organisation and create a need for change inside the organisation itself. Some such significant driving forces:

System dynamics

Organisations are systems that are made up of a variety of subsystems. These subsystems are in continual communication with one another and, as a result, live in dynamic interrelationships. Some aspects, including technology, dominant groups, internal politics, and interpersonal interactions, may often impact the alignment and relationships, necessitating a change in associated areas.

Structure-focused change

The organisation's structure may have one or more of its fundamental components altered due to these modifications. For instance, downsizing and decentralisation of the organisation. Changes in organisational structure are made to lower costs while simultaneously raising productivity and efficiency.

Technological change

Technological change may be defined as any change that affects the actual process of changing input into output. Information processing systems, automation, and other similar instances are some examples. When such systems are used, it is often necessary to adjust the many subsystems that make up the organisation.

Inadequacy of administrative processes

Updating reality demands changing the present method, rules and regulations as well as modifying organisational aims and objectives. If the organisation ignores and neglects such adjustments, it Withers away over time.

Individual/ group expectations

For an organisation to successfully bring about change, continue existing, and expand, it must investigate its members' needs and expectations. This can be done by addressing members' ambitions, the need for achievement capabilities, frustrations and fears, and the intergroup process that occurs within an organisation.

Person-focused change

The modification is intended to improve employee performance and competency, as well as planning for the management of human resources. Human resource management must address issues such as redefining organisational strategy and goals; structural changes such as expansion, contraction, or resizing; technological inputs; employee training and development; recruitment and selection policies; new ventures; and profitability. In order to induce such change, human resource management needs to address these issues.

Resource constraints

An organisation's resources might include money, materials, technological advancements, equipment, people, and knowledge. Changes of this magnitude are brought about in the organisation due to the scarcity, inadequacy, non-availability, and depletion of these resources.

Profitability issues

Significant changes in the organisational structure are sometimes necessitated as a result of problems with profitability. These problems might include a reduction in revenue or market share, a drop in productivity, or participation in restructuring or reengineering.

Types of change_

Changes incremental and intrinsic to an organisation

An organisation must adapt its organisational structure to the Environment in which it operates and the strategy it employs. As a result, it may be subject

to its own limits and may choose to implement gradual changes inside itself. Even if very subtle, specific shifts constantly transpire so that the organisation always gives the impression of being stable even when this is not the case. From this vantage point, it is recognised that About this organisation's system and its subsystems, one may say that the organisation is in a state of flux. Continually going through a series of tiny transformations. Change is only noticeable upon closer inspection since the nature of the change process in this location is regarded as gradual. The stability is just on the surface and is only a transient incarnation of an organisation at this particular point in time. Miller (1982) distinguishes between gradual changes and those that are quantum. According to his theory, little modifications over time might lead to disharmonies, compromise the integrity of the internal structural arrangement, and, in the long run, be dangerous and expensive. According to him, a quantum change in structure can bring about harmony among structural elements like the span of control, technology, distribution of authority, differentiation, and integration; however, this can have financial implications because many elements in the organisation are changed at the same time. As a result, an organisation must consider the benefits and drawbacks of both incremental and quantum changes that are inherent to the organisation.

Change as extrinsic and revolutionary

The organisation is subject to a variety of different circumstances as a result of the external Environment. Revolutionary changes significantly affect many aspects of an organisation's structure and are brought about as a result of the quantum change (Miller,1932). From this angle, organisations are considered permanent structures, and any change is seen as inherently disruptive. To force a modification, reorganisation, or reconfiguration of an organisation is what it means to bring about change inside that organisation. It is considered that an organisation's destiny is based on the forces that it faces. If those forces are more significant than the organisation's tolerance threshold for change, the organisation will fail. However, some firms can keep their competitive advantage by relying on their inventiveness and being flexible in the tactics and directions they pursue.

Change as patterned and predictable vs change as complex and unpredictable

Some academics are under the impression that change follows a predictable pattern and is always accompanied by a transparent chain of causation. In this instance, a transition can occur from a quasi-equilibrium state to one of equilibrium. The physical sciences generally subscribe to this point of view about change. On the other hand, it is generally accepted that change has a dynamic and complicated character. It operates as a non-linear feedback system, and there is no discernible and predictable link

between the causes and effects of its actions (Harigopal,2001). Because it continuously changes as a consequence of interactions between a wide variety of elements, change, and the events of the future can thus neither be anticipated nor controlled with certainty. The social sciences have come to accept this perspective on the nature of change because they presume that social systems are already in a quasi-equilibrium state. Interventions may or may not facilitate its development, but they determine it (Stacy,1992).

Duality or bipolarity of change

The very character of change is ambivalent. It is both stable and unstable; it can be predicted and may not be predicted; it can be controlled and uncontrollable; it may be intrinsic or extrinsic to the organisation. It is continuous (usually slow and incremental). Stability and instability characterise it. It can be controlled and is uncontrollable. In other words, there is a possibility that change will be continuous but will also be punctuated by infrequent changes.

Additionally, there is a possibility of a period of stability (as many organisations in the public sector observed prior to globalisation). However, after that, there is a possibility that there will be instability and uncertainty. Change management, therefore, argues that we should focus on finding methods to productively reconcile these opposing viewpoints rather than selecting between the two extremes. Diverse capabilities and skill sets are required to

manage these changes because of the different nature of the changes themselves. Theorists such as Greiner, Newman, and Tushman, as well as Romanelli, have presented theories that have applied such a dual character of change in understanding organisational transformation.

The organisational transformation from the point of view of the life cycle theory of organisation developed by Greiner is the focus of this theory.

According to Greiner (1972), organisations develop through a progression of five different phases, each consisting of relatively quiet periods of constant development and culminating in a crisis that leads to an unstable condition. Amid the ongoing upheaval, which eventually reaches a point of crisis again. He refers to these comparatively quiet times of continuous development as evolutions, whereas the era of chaotic quick discontinuous change is referred to as revolutions by him. The concept of organisational transformation is best understood as a stage of development. Revolutionary uprisings occur at regular intervals. In a nutshell, Greiner's concept recognises a change in advancement toward Growing both in scale and complexity. There is a predictable pattern through successive phases of the organisational lifecycle, where organisational structure, processes, and leadership all follow that pattern.

According to research conducted by Tushman, Newman, and Romanelli (1986), organisations undergo two types of transformation. These are comparable to

the several kinds of transformations that Greiner covered. Tushman refers to the tiny incremental organisational changes as convergence, but the frame-breaking changes or upheaval are referred to as the discontinuous changes.

The alteration may be either continuous or discontinuous, and various academics have come up with different words to represent each kind. For instance, Goss, Pascale, and Athos (1993) use "reinvention" to characterise discontinuous change. This means that rather than modifying what already exists, they create something new that does not. They further differentiate strategic change into reactive (change made in direct response to external Environment; they refer to re-creation) and anticipatory (change made in direct response to internal Environment; they refer to reinvention). Nadler and Tushman (1990) describe discontinuous change as strategic change (change made in expectation of a future event as re-orientation).

According to the literature on change management, the change implementation process may be roughly broken down into two approaches: the participatory and the directive. According to the participatory school of change implementation, the members of an organisation should be active in planning and implementing change. They should be provided chances to do so. Not only can participation result in improved ideas, but it also lowers people's reluctance to other ways of doing things. When a directive school

of change is implemented, participation is not required since it often takes up much time. Instead, it operates on the assumption that the organisation will not be able to thrive in the dynamic and competitive market unless it undergoes downsizing and delayering.

It is essential to remember, however, that participation and compulsion are inherently associated with every change and that the most successful transitions often entail a balanced combination of the two. Therefore, every circumstance involving change will include all of these different shifts, including continuous, discontinuous, participatory, and directive shifts. Even if one may classify them to understand them better, any organisational change will bring about all of them, and they are essentially independent of one another.

Rising levels of worldwide rivalry and the lightning-fast pace of technological advancement have raised the bar for organisational performance and adoption expectations. The combined effects of deregulatory policies and globalisation are exerting a significant amount of force on businesses. The shifting of political allegiances and perspectives paves many new options. Several different organisational analysis and decision-making models have emerged as viable options in response to the new difficulties. The conventional emphasis on logical reasoning will not show the whole picture; the reality of the issue calls for various strategies to be applied to the many problems that need to be solved. In order to come closer to or get

hints toward solving the riddles, we need additional information about them. In the next part, we will talk about a few of the theoretical frameworks that try to explain organisational change using various taxonomies.

Change may occur on three levels: the micro level, which refers to the changes that individuals experience in their own lives; the organisational level, which refers to changes in any organisation that affect individuals' lives. And the macro level (changes that affect people and organisations universally)

CHAPTER-II
Theoretical Frameworks of Organizational Change

There are many different theories on organisational reform. Internally driven change is emphasised by specific theories (Van de Ven and Poole, 1988), whereas change driven from the outside is emphasised by other ideas (McKelvey,1982). Van de Ven and Poole (1995) conducted a comprehensive review of the relevant literature, intending to develop an integrated strategy for the theories on organisational change. This review identified 20 distinct development and change theories spread across 200,000 titles and 200 articles (cf.Burke,2002). They grouped the same into a total of four archetypal theories or fundamental schools of thought in order to better arrange the same. These include the evolutionary theory, the life-cycle theory, the teleological theory, and the dialectical theory.

Life cycle theory

According to this school of thought, an organisation goes through a single sequence of stages or phases, which is both conjunctive (meaning that the stages are

related in such a way that they derive from a standard underlying process) and cumulative (meaning that characteristics acquired in earlier stages are retained in the later stages). Theories founded on the life-cycle school of thinking begin with the fundamental premise that any organisation may be compared to a living organism. Whenever an organisation goes through a period of transition, it goes through distinct stages or phases in its structure and function. However, it always keeps its unique character intact throughout the process.

Greiner's (1972) Model of Organizational Development Follows the Life Cycle Theory by Postulating There are Five Stages in the Life Cycle of an Organization There are five phases in the lifetime of an organisation:

1. The creative process (it is the starting up phase)
2. Point of origin (the phase where more focus is required)
3. Assignment of Responsibility (the phase in which the organisation grow larger)
4. Arrangement in concert (this is the phase of differentiation of Functions, need for integration within the organisation)
5. Partnership(the phase Where the organisation becomes a whole unit by working together efficiently in collaboration) (the phase Where the organisation becomes a total entity by working together effectively in collaboration)

Adizes (1979) and Kimberly and Miles are two more theorists whose theories are founded on the life-cycle school of thinking (1980).

Teleological theory

The fundamental premise of teleology is that an organisation serves a purpose and may adapt to its environment. The beliefs included in the teleological school of thought are deeply ingrained in this philosophical framework. As a result, organisational growth may be thought of as progressing toward a specific target or final state. Regarding the teleological theory, Van de Ven and Poole (1995) wrote, "Proponents of this theory view development as a Repetitive sequence of goal formulation, implementation, evaluation, and modification of goals based on what was learned or intended by the entity." This was said about how teleological theory views development.

According to one school of thought, changes in an organisation's goals and purposes are the driving force behind those changes. Furthermore, according to this school of thought, organisational change is a continuous and iterative process, and an organisation can never reach a state of permanent equilibrium or be static (Burke,2002).

The formulation of an organisation's mission statement, the compilation of a list of objectives, the formulation of a variety of tactics, and other similar endeavours are all examples of uses of teleological theory.

Dialectical theory

According to Van de Ven and Poole (1995), the fundamental premise behind this school of thought is that organisations exist in a pluralistic environment in which competing events, forces, or contradicting ideals contend with one another for dominance and control. The collision of two opposing ideas, followed by an attempt at some settlement, is the impetus for the organisational change that has taken place. Although it is generally anticipated that the resolution would lead to some creative synthesis of the two divergent perspectives, in practice, it may often take the form of hostile takeovers or acquisitions.

Evolutionary Theory

This school of thought is predicated on the fundamental assumptions that organisational change is a continuous and ever-evolving process and that it proceeds according to an ongoing cycle of variation, selection, and retention among organisations competing for resources in a given environment. This kind of transformation is analogous to the evolution of biological species, thus the concept's name. Competition for limited environmental resources among organisms (organisations) that occupy a population (a specific habitat) is what drives the evolutionary cycle, according to Van de Ven and Poole (1995). This competition is what causes the evolutionary cycle.

In more recent research, two more theoretical frameworks have been introduced, which may be used

as foundations for models explaining organisational transformation. The social cognition theory and the cultural theory are their respective names. According to the social cognition hypothesis, the members of an organisation could not all have the same level of understanding of the organisation's reality. It is gaining favour among academics because it helps them explain the change in unclear environments and rejects the idea that organisational reality can be reduced to a single perspective. The cultural theory emphasises the irrationality of organisations while also contributing to synthesising the assumptions underlying social cognition and analytic frameworks.

In a broader sense, one can discover that organisational transformation theories make assumptions, either explicitly or implicitly, about what an organisation is and how it relates to its surrounding environment. This connection between several organisational theories that have influenced change literature has been highlighted by Dooley(1997), Hage(1999), and Haveman(2000), respectively. An organisation may be understood in the following ways, as a branch(2002) has outlined:

- A 'living creature' that adapts or develops in response to change or uncertainty in its surroundings while simultaneously affecting that environment. Mechanistic organisational forms are helpful when stable and under specific circumstances; nevertheless, an organic

organisational structure is more suited when dealing with unstable and unpredictable markets.

- An entity that, in a Darwinian sense, must test its ability to adapt to its environment by competing with other organisations that have inferior structures and or/practices. Die in competition with limited resources, and both planned and unintentional variants are introduced in a cycle of variation, selection, and retention.
- A body of authority that both exerts and receives influence Given the circumstances (Powell and DiMaggio, 1991).
- Characterised by the flexibility with which it may adjust its information processing skills. Heuristics dominate organisational decision-making and, as a result, the approach to organisational transformation. This is because of constrained rationality.

Political: Those departments or professions that manage the company's most significant risk will emerge as the most powerful coalition and use their influence to ensure they continue to be in control. The resource dependence hypothesis is a similar but distinct concept.

Theories of change at the individual level

The way organisational change may be done frequently incorporates conceptions of change at the individual level. Bennis et al. (1985), In "The planning of change", Have Categorised change processes into

empirical – rational, instructional strategies, normative/Persuasive strategies, and power – coercive Strategies to bring about change in people. Meyer et al. (1990) presented the idea of mimetic techniques used to induce change by presenting examples, models, and instances of change. These methods were proposed by Meyer et al.

To mimic scientific theories, the dominant paradigms of management theories clung to reductionism, determinism, and equilibrium as the primary factors; they perceived organisations to be machined and advocated for autocratic management styles and total authority in the workplace. This was done in an attempt to mimic scientific theories.

In recent times, however, contemporary management practises having attempted to adopt an organic view emphasising organisation-environment interactions, teamwork, motivation, adaptability, change, and learning (Wheatley, 1992; Morgan). This shift in emphasis has been seen as an attempt to improve traditional management practices (1986).

The basis for essential attention towards a balance between the technical side and the human side of organisations was built by early works by authors such as Mayo (1993), McGregor (1960), Lettert (1961), and Trist (1981), amongst others. These authors all contributed to this body of work.

In later years, Robertson and Seneviratne (1995) studied shifts in both technological and physical environments. In terms of the several approaches that

might be used to effect organisational transformation. They came up with an organisational work environment to explain the notion of collapsing social elements and organisational arrangements into a single category. Other scholars, such as Beckhard and Harris (1987), have underlined the importance of a vision and plan as the driving force behind an intervention method.

Lewin's (1951) change process model has furnished other academics with the foundation for building subsequent models and theories of organisational transformation. Lewin also highlighted three different pathways that lead to the transformation of an organisation.

- o Make changes to the employees individually; this suggests making changes at the individual level.
- o Make necessary adjustments to a variety of organisational structures and processes
- o Make adjustments to the culture of the company, especially the interpersonal approach.

The most important part of the framework was to emphasise how change is centred on the individual level. This was done to acknowledge the significance of the individual within an organisation, the challenges that come with adjusting to new ways of doing things, and the qualities of good leadership that can impact the transformation process.

Beer and Nohria (2000) found that around seventy per cent of all change initiatives involving multiple failed. The reason for such failures is that managers often get

overwhelmed with various initiatives, lose concentration, and become buried in the pile of material that is accessible in print and online that is intended to "help" them carry on the transformation. This is the root cause of such failures. Even if every organisation's change attempt includes a different procedure, the researchers came up with two theories, which they called Theory E and Theory O, according to which the majority of corporate change can be classed and examined. The validity of the models based on both theories may be shown by the fact that both of these models of change meet the aims of management, either openly or implicitly.

Theory E examines organisational change from the perspective of how it will affect the organisation's economic worth in the future.

The included strategies adopt a combative stance against change by emphasising shareholder value and seeing this metric as the only acceptable indicator of a company's overall performance level. As a result, this transformation involves extensive use of economic incentives, carrying out severe layoffs, reducing workforce size, and reorganising operations (Beer and Nohria,2000). This approach is often adhered to by the businesses that are active in the US economy.

According to Theory O, an organisation's capacity is the primary determinant of change. Organisations that operate along these lines have a flexible attitude to change rather than concentrating primarily on the performance of their stock prices. In many cases, the

objective is to develop human capabilities as well as the culture of the company via individual and organisational learning. These include the process of altering, collecting feedback, reflecting, and making more adjustments. A strategy like this is used by corporate houses active in economies in Asia and Europe.

However, it is essential to keep in mind that only a few businesses adhere strictly to a single theory and that most of the time, their business actions are guided by a combination of the two ideas. Businesses that can successfully mix the hard and soft methods to change may expect significant payoffs in their profitability and productivity. These businesses have a good chance of obtaining a long-term edge over their competitors.

These may also help decrease the fear that has gripped society in response to the reorganisation of corporations (Beer and Nohria,2000).

It is possible to see change methods deriving from two distinct behavioural change models (Sapienza,1995). According to the first paradigm, behaviour may be seen as a consequence of attitude; if one changes one's attitude, a subsequent shift in behaviour will ensue (Lewin, 1958). According to the second model, behaviour is seen as a function of context, and shifts in context are thought to be the primary drivers of shifts in behaviour. This suggests that changing the context will lead to changes in conduct (Branch, 2002). Even though the literature on change is split on the question

of which comes first, more recent studies highlight the need for a more evenhanded approach. In the words of Branch, "...a strategy that combines mutually reinforcing interventions, customised to the unique conditions and history of the organisation is likely to be the most successful in achieving the desired change."

Other theories of organisational change in the change literature include life-cycle and growth stage theories (Adizes, 1999; Greiner,1967,1998) that emphasise on predictable life stages of an organisation that drive change and create change management demands; cultural change (Cameron and Quinn, 1999; Burke and Trahant, 200) that incorporates both learning theory and action research (Argyris and Schon, 1978; Argyris1993; Wheatley,1992); participation/engagement theory There have also been studies done on organisational change from the viewpoints of human resource management (Abrahamson, 2000), organisational communication (Morrison and Milliken,2000), cognition (Greve and Taylor, 2000), and from the standpoint of a critical understanding of "change" (Leana and Barry, 2000; Chia, 1999; Decock, 1998).

"The executives and companies that succeed in the 21st-century business environment will be visionary, culturally inclusive, environmentally sensitive, and attuned to balancing the need for ethics with profit," Burke and Trahant (2000, p.207) said, forwarding their ideas on the effect of cultural change on the overall

organisational change. Burke and Trahant (2000, p.207) said that "The executives and companies that succeed in the 21st-century business environment will be culturally inclusive, environmentally sensitive,

In their book "Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture" (published in 1999 on page 1), Cameron and Quinn also highlighted the significance of culture. They noted, "The failure rate of most planned organisational transformation endeavour is severe..."

... disregarding the organisation's culture was the most commonly stated reason for failure, according to a number of studies that reported on the topic. To put it another way, the inability to alter the company's culture was the fatal flaw in all other types of organisational improvements implemented.

In order to provide a rationale for successful organisational transformation, Argyris and Schon (1978) conducted research on organisational learning and theories of action. The authors of the book "organisational Learning: A Theory of Action Perspective" described the theories of action as follows: "All human beings – not only professional practitioners – need to become competent in taking action and simultaneously reflecting on their action to learn from it..... Every purposeful action had a cognitive foundation, reflecting certain rules, tactics, and ideas about the world that had claims to universal validity. As a direct result, we said that human learning does not have to be described in terms of.... However,

rather as the building, testing, and reorganising a certain form of knowledge……"

Suppose we follow this train of thinking to its logical conclusion. In that case, we can conclude that organisational learning is best characterised as the process of testing and reorganising organisational theories of action. It is necessary to investigate the influence that different models of action theories have on different types of learning capacities, both in the context of the person and the organisational setting.

"….the change model that is in good currency -and which was originally developed by Lewin – requires revision," Argyris (1993) said in "Knowledge for Action: A guide to overcoming Barriers to organisational change," furthering the concept of learning theory and action research in the context of organisational change. (p.244 – 247) It is possible to develop information that can be put into action to change organisational defence routines. It is possible to bring about the infrequent changes in such a manner that they will be preserved by using action techniques (such as advocacy, assessment, and attribution combined with or without examples and stimulation of research and testing).

In conclusion, it is possible to conclude that organisational transformation is an extensive and multifaceted topic of inquiry within the field of organisation theory. The literature on organisational change is filled with organisational change theories based on Lewin's framework of the change process.

However, the emergence of the organisational theory based on complexity theory has widened the scope of looking at organisational change. This is true, although the literature on organisational change is filled with organisational change theories based on Lewin's framework of the change process. It has allowed examination of the discontinuous, disruptive, and developing patterns of change in organisations, in addition to providing new means of evaluating and conceptualising organisational activities and perspectives on social and organisational processes. According to the complexity theory, nonlinearity is an important phenomenon that needs to be considered when researching change. This is because the underlying structures of social and natural systems recognise that all changes are disruptive and fluid in nature and continue to exist in a state of discontinuity and flux. According to this train of thought, it is "highly imperative to understand that organisational change cannot be implemented in a stepwise manner, as it is a continuous and vision-governed adaptation to external changes and emerging conditions." Following this train of thought, it is "highly imperative to understand that organisational change cannot be implemented in a stepwise manner" (Styhre, 2002).

When applied to organisational change, complexity theory highlights the fact that organisational change must keep in mind the fact that it must operate with a moving target whose durability is highly elusive. This is because organisational change must operate with a

moving target to succeed. The change process must thus be made up of a fluid and emerging succession of events, the components of which must come from various places. The most important thing to remember is that anything of high significance for an organisation's change activity at one point in time may be utterly irrelevant by the time the next moment rolls around.

According to Styhre (2002), "complexity theory suggests that changes are produced based on a multiplicity of interconnected causes and effects whose relationships are complicated to conceive of from within the analytical framework assuming linearity." Complexity theory suggests that changes are produced based on a multiplicity of interconnected causes and effects.

Because of this, when the concept of organisational change is explained using the framework of complexity theory, it acknowledges the existence of interruptions, breaks, and points of departure that disrupt the flow of energy and information and can either constitute, facilitate, or obstruct organisational change. It should come as no surprise that this theory does not adhere to the idea that change is a uni-dimensional process; instead, it posits that it takes place among disruptive transitory circumstances and interrelated activities.

It should be clear from what has been discussed so far that the body of research on organisational

transformation incorporates a variety of perspectives and ideas on change.

CHAPTER-III
Role of Change Agents and Leadership

Introduction

Agents of change A person is said to be a change agent if they play the role of a catalyst and take on the responsibility for change. Change may be brought about by managers, workers, employees who are not managers, or even by an outside consultant. The following describes the many sorts of roles that change agents perform.

Internal Consultant

An internal consultant is one of the crucial tasks a change agent must perform to fulfil their responsibilities effectively. A manager's ability to adapt well to changing circumstances is becoming an increasingly vital part of their job. Managers must be comprehensively aware of the environment in which their company operates and have a general sense of the possibilities and challenges that may arise. Therefore, in their role as internal consultants, they are responsible for monitoring and scanning the external sources of change. The change agent should take a critical look at the company's competitive

environment, paying particular attention to its market position, technology developments, and financial circumstances. After the internal consultant has determined the factors that will cause the change in performance, the next step is to instil a feeling of urgency within the business. Any mistake made at this point might result in the change process being unsuccessful.

Internal assistance to an external consultant

It has been seen very often that firms hire an external consultant as an expert with a reasonable amount of information about various comparative business situations and expertise in managing change in various organisations. If this is the case, the consultant must identify an internal resource person or persons (ISP) who can function as facilitators in the change implementation process. An outside consultant may learn skills necessary for implementing change via the IRP's training programme. Alternately, the members of the IRP might get training from well-respected professional organisations to learn the essential people skills necessary for coping with change.

It is up to management to determine whether the ISP will be an independent person or a group selected from various departments to establish a task force to serve as IRP, while at the same time choosing the IRP members based on their respective levels of expertise. It is to be kept in mind that the growth of the IRP as a team is of immense significance for it to be successful as a change agent; otherwise, the development of

negative synergy would be damaging to the organisational interest and might perhaps put the change process at risk.

Task force

The company's management establishes a task force or a group of individuals who share a commitment to the renewable programme to bring about a transition inside the enterprise. The experience, reputation, communication abilities, and connections within such a task force need to be robust for it to be effective. The size of the task force may alter depending on the size of the company, and it is also possible that it may grow as the change programme moves forward. The task force is responsible for conveying management's concerns on change and instilling a sense of urgency within the managerial ranks regarding the need for change. A spirit of teamwork is one of the most critical requirements for this task force to succeed.

The function of management in an organisation

Management inside the company should be considered one of the rules for a beginning change. Organisational management, which serves as the highest management level, may fulfil two distinct functions.

Evolving policy a legitimising change

This may be accomplished via the formulation of new policies or by the planning and recommendation of changes to existing plans. The top management must show their full support for any change in order for it to be successful. Not only is it crucial for management to

have confidence in the new policy, but it is also essential for them to provide support, publicly and behind the scenes, all the way through the change process. In its absence, the process slackens its pace or loses its efficiency, and as a direct result, the transformation does not take place in its genuine manifestation.

Changing the system from the inside out:

A challenging journey lies ahead for those who embark on the transformation process. There are periods of rapid expansion and then periods of rapid decline. People lose interest and excitement if the procedure takes a long time. As a result, top management needs to continue energising the workforce to revive and maintain their interest in the process. It may also include reopening the line of communication between the outside expert and the individuals who are resistant to change. Two aspects play an incredibly significant role in institutional shifts.

The fact that the attempts to adapt and adopt new ways have contributed to an increase in performance

That the initiative begun by the management team or continued by the management that came after it

It has been noted that when a change advocate steps down or quits, his replacement finds it challenging to withstand influences from numerous sides, and things revert to where they started. Therefore, the attempts to reform and revitalise something that began around a year ago are fruitless.

Skills Required For The Role Of A Change Agent

The breezes from change are sweeping companies worldwide, and nothing is more definite in these uncertain and painful times than the continual change occurring. The following set of abilities would be necessary for the change agents to maintain their viability as well as the viability of the organisations in the long run.

A sensor Regarding the nature of the commercial setting: a vertical-to-horizontal functional range and leadership at all levels

The Manager's Role as an Initiator

A more condensed view of the time frame horizon

Striking a healthy balance between work and personal life

Maximising the flow of information

A successful transition requires skill in the following areas: strategy creation, management of human resources, marketing and sales, and negotiation and conflict resolution.

The change agent has to follow the stages that would serve as building blocks for us, as indicated in Fig. 3.1, for effective management of change.

Role of HRD in managing change:

Human Resource Development (HRD) is undergoing a revolution in terms of accessibility, speed, and cost all over the world due to the development of the internet and web-based technologies. The trend these days is to get instruction over the internet. Online learning, often known as e-learning or web-based instructions,

is a kind of education delivered to students at a distance.

FREEZE CHANGE
Providing support to sustain in embedded change

IMPLEMENTING CHANGE

MANAGING TRANSITION
Incremental changes for improvement

COMMUNICATING EFFECTIVELY
Developing awareness/winning condidence

CHALLENGING THE STATUS QUO
Stirring the envirionment of psychological discomfort

DEVELOPING VISIONARY LEADERSHIP
Creating shared vision

PREDICTING AND MANAGING PESISTANCE
Mobilising commitment

DEVELOPING PROCESS OF CHANGE/CULTURE

FIG 3.1 Building Blocks of Managing Change

The web-based environment has altered the landscape of training in many different ways. HRD professionals

who use the web-based instructional methodology can now assume the new role of e-trainer and develop new competencies such as electronic system skills, technical competencies of research skills, and intellectual competencies of visioning skills while still maintaining the traditional training competencies. They need to overcome technical and human hurdles to be successful in the new environment so that workers may be taught change management skills. This is necessary so that employees can be given those skills. A trainee's function has also shifted to become that of a self-directed and autonomous learner, diminishing the importance of a trainer's position.

In addition to the changes brought about by technological advancements, the area of training has undergone a paradigm shift, moving from a 'pedagogical approach to an 'andragogical approach, with the result being that training is now more "learner-centred" than "instruction-centred." Another paradigm change that can be seen is the movement away from the 'objectivism' of passive learning and toward the constructivism of constructing one's meaning via experience. Additionally, knowledge has shifted from being "fixed" to be "flexible," which encourages the opportunity for change rather than being affected by the thinking of the information source.

The transition of an organisation into the digital world of work is anticipated to bring about a variety of changes in organisational structure, as shown by

future forecasts. For HRD professionals to be effective change agents, having the capacity to choose from and use a growing variety of learning technologies is becoming an essential digital skill. It is anticipated that the trainer will act as "the expert learner" to improve upon the skills already have to be successful in an electronic setting. Recent years have seen the emergence of a novel idea known as learning in real-time, which has the potential to be used to foster creative development and manage change in the workplace.

The Function of a Leader

A change agent must have a clear vision of where they want the organisation to go in the future and the ability to dream big. They need to inspire a shared vision, a clear picture of the future, to bring the people along with them as they go forward. Communicating on the same level as one's constituents and using the same language as one's constituents is necessary if one wants to gain the cooperation of others. They have to win people's confidence and convince them they have their best interests at heart to succeed. They need to encourage people to have optimistic expectations about the great possibilities that the future will bring. In order to bring individuals together, they need to develop a shared sense of purpose and communicate their excitement about the organisation's inspiring goal. They need to question the current quo, which is inefficient, and look for possibilities and alternatives that will allow them to

innovate, expand, and become better. Leaders are responsible for recognising and embracing novel concepts, procedures, products, services, and organisational structures. When we go down an unfamiliar route, we are constantly taking a risk. Therefore, the ability to take calculated risks and engage in experimenting are prerequisites for effective change leadership.

In addition to this, they need to build cooperation through encouraging the pursuit of joint objectives and cultivating trust among individuals. In order to bring about change, delegation and the distribution of authority will also be required. Last, they must acknowledge and value individuals' contributions and achievements while encouraging others to participate and rejoice in shared accomplishments.

Leadership Towards Alteration

Today's organisations must contend with intensifying competition inside their own countries and across international borders. As a result of globalisation, there is now an even greater need placed on organisations to overcome complacency, conservatism, and conceit in order to ensure their continued existence and development in the current environment. The most top management has come to grips with the reality that piecemeal improvements are not enough to halt the inclinations of complacency and conceit that afflict managerial behaviour in many organisations. This is a realisation that has been reached by most of the top management. On the other

hand, this has not occurred at the middle level of management, and we can tell because they focus more on the past than they do on the future. Deception is also shown by the fact that they are more loyal to the specific objectives of their department than they are to the objectives of the organisation as a whole. As a direct result, many senior and top management have already embraced or are adopting a revolutionary approach toward change.

On the one hand, possibilities have arisen due to shifting market needs and quick technology advancements. On the other hand, a fierce local and worldwide rivalry has shortened product life cycles and caused turbulence for specific enterprises. Change leaders respond positively and aggressively to challenging times by taking initiatives and adopting strategies such as business process reengineering, mergers and acquisitions, and quality initiatives. These strategies are designed to meet the requirements of the challenging times. Today, transformational leadership is all the rage, and top and senior managers are working hard to acquire the necessary abilities by participating in management development programmes organised nationally and worldwide.

LEVEL 5 LEADERSHIP: GOOD TO GREAT

According to Collins (2001), an alternative model of organisational change has been presented. This model is based on the research that Collins and his team conducted on the financial performance of 1435

companies that were included in the list of Fortune 500 companies between 1965 and 1995. Only those businesses that have maintained their success for at least 15 years were included on the list. Collins argues that the timeframe of 15 years was preserved because it was a long enough period for a company to rise to greatness and because it was chosen to recognise mediocrity. Only 11 of these companies could transition from being excellent businesses to genuinely exceptional ones. These were very demanding places of employment.

These businesses were directed by humble, competent, and quiet individuals. These guys had a tremendous resolve to make their firms thrive. Collins considers them level 5 leaders because they have personal humility and professional will. He discovered that every firm that went from excellent to great had Level 5 executives throughout the crucial transition time and that the path to greatness consists of six standard phases.

Prior to determining their vision and objectives, these leaders primarily emphasised selecting their team members. This demonstrates their emphasis on people based on their talents and abilities.

Confront the Gruesome Facts: These leaders did not try to avoid the crisis and instead confronted the truth head-on. They were also confident in the capacity of their organisation to rise to the occasion and overcome the obstacles.

The Hedgehog Concept: These businesses wanted nothing less than to be the finest in the world, and they did not settle for anything less. They were steadfast in their application of the core concepts and primary economic factors that contributed to their greatness, and they did it with great enthusiasm.

A Culture of Discipline: The most successful businesses not only employed disciplined workers but also fostered a culture that valued self-discipline in both thought and deed. The companies followed a consistent structure and provided their employees with flexibility and autonomy.

Technology Accelerators: These businesses employed technology to improve business outcomes rather than focusing on becoming the first to develop a particular technology. Despite this, they were the first to develop applications for some different technologies.

The Flywheel and the Doom Loop: The transformation of these companies from good to extraordinary occurred as a result of unrelenting labour and sustained efforts in one direction over an extended time, building momentum up until the point where the company reached the point of breakthrough and passed it. Transforming an organisation is neither a straightforward process nor an endeavour that occurs just once. This transformation is brought about through consistent efforts over time and momentum in a specific direction.

The research on 11 businesses that improved their standing from excellent to exceptional yielded the

findings summarised in the six criteria mentioned above.

Leadership that enables transformational change

James MacGregor Burns is credited with developing the idea of transformational leadership. Burns is also credited with advocating that leadership entails organisational change. A successful change in an organisation depends not only on the availability of resources, technology, systems, and practices but also, to a large extent, on changing the mindset of people and creating an appropriate organisational culture. This is because the availability of resources, technology, systems, and practices is not enough to bring about successful change. Because the human resource (managerial decision) determines optimal deployment of varied resources, a successful organisation is based on its choice of technology, systems, practices, people, and organisational culture. Therefore, it is the manager's onerous obligation to deliver effective transformational leadership to his contingent of technical management and non-technical workers to ensure that the organisation achieves its objectives and has a competitive advantage over its competitors.

Leadership that is both transformational and transactional

Studies (Bass, 1985, 1997) show that these two approaches are not mutually incompatible but distinct in their methodology and areas of concentration.

Vision, the ability to control one's imprint, idealised influence, and inspiring motivation are all necessary traits for transformational leaders. They can effectively drive change inside the organisation due to their ability to establish an emotional connection with followers. They can elicit the eager participation of followers who work toward realising the leader's goal (Antonakis & House, 2004; Avolio & Bass, 2000; 1997). The transactional leaders will establish goals, announce prizes based on projected achievement, and want to preserve the status quo (Bass, 1997). Every nation, on many different levels and in many different types of organisations, has put transformational leadership into practice (Sosik, Avolio & Jung, 2002, Avolio and Bass, 2000). The basis of transformative leadership is the bedrock upon which transformational leadership is built. Table 5.1 presents an analysis of the differences between transformational and transactional styles of leadership.

Transformational leaders must possess some fundamental abilities.

It is often believed that transformational leaders are equipped with the following talents and capabilities:

Table 3.1 Comparison of Transformational and Transactional Leadership	
1. Transformational Leadership	1. Transactional Leadership
2. Promotes change	2. Maintains stability
3. Shares vision, values,	3. Goes into a

and emotional bonding	contractual arrangement
4. Provides Intellectual stimulation	4. Provides guidance $ role clarification
5. Develops pride, gains trust and respect	5. Promises reward for performance
6. Provides personal attention	6. Interactions are primarily formal and officious

- The ability to the assessment of the current situation
- Ability to challenge the status quo
- Adaptability to the changing environment
- Ability to have a long-term vision
- Capability to articulate and practice a set of core values
- Risk-taking ability
- Communication skills
- Sensitivity and ability to arouse passion
- Understanding and practice of equity, power and freedom
- Building coalitions
- Flexibility and openness to experience
- Ability to make fast decisions
- Ability to modify systems
- Ability to align cultural systems

A successful change leader involves clarity of vision, understanding what is to be changed and the ability to accomplish change. The talents required by the change leader are as follows:

Clarity of Goals

Goal clarity suggests the strategic aim. A directed and acute intuitive reaction to the organisational situation leads the organisation to the ideal of sustainability. As a change agent, the responsibility of a leader is to be a part of the process through which the new order emerges. As a change leader, he defines objectives or boundaries, provides resources, identifies the change process owner and assists him, assures change alignment with the broader company plan, interacts with people, monitors the change process and takes corrective action.

Clarity regarding role

A change agent leader must identify a realistic and successful role in cultivating the future when everything seems to be a hurdle. It is to be understood by the leader that the leader himself cannot directly alter the path of change, but at times, it may be helpful to wait and observe to reflect on the change process mentally. Therefore, an estimate of time becomes a significant problem. It may be good to have a controlled activity to solidify inner sentiments.

Professionalism and understanding of the topic

The leader is essential to personal and professional ability. Thorough awareness of various aspects of change, the nature of change, and its influence on the parts of the organisation would simplify the implementation of change. Without a full grasp of the issue, he is likely to be misleading; additionally, he

would be in a better position to manage opposition if he knew the technical/ functional elements.

Creativity and innovativeness
To lead the transformation, the leader needs to help generate new ideas, models, and technologies that separate the business from the run-of-the-mill and help it stand out.

Collaborative and networking skills
Change involves efforts. Hence talent to interact with people and create relationships inside and beyond the business are crucial to expanding an organisation's reach, promoting its services and energising individuals.

Leading change: process
One of the most recognised instances of changing an organisation is that of Lee Iacocca, Chairman of Chrysler Corporation, who turned his firm from bankruptcy to profitability. Apart from 'trimming the fat' among the management personnel, he altered the company's cultural values from feeling losers to feeling winners. He utilised the internal communication system and ads to encourage these reforms.

A leader has to enable change that aids in increasing organisational performance. Nevertheless, the question confronting a leader is how to be successful in the face of discontent, discomfort, displacement and increasing stress among individuals. Distinct

organisations utilise various strategies. One of the well-known models of change is offered by Kurt Lewin. The paradigm suggests that change proceeds via three processes: unfreezing, moving to a new state, and refreezing.

Each stage is incredibly significant and needs the leader to take tangible measures. Unfreezing entails breaking away from how things have been done in the past. The movement to the next stage entails finding and attempting novel methods to accomplish or do new things. Refreezing entails maintaining and strengthening the new methods or new things to accomplish.

Kurt Lewin's second change model offers an intriguing framework for speeding the acceptance of the change process. His force-field model states that most of the circumstances occur in the form of dynamic equilibrium. He argues that the equilibrium would exist only when forces pushing change are counterbalanced by the forces limiting change. This also functions as a reality check

The management can take action in favour of change by modifying behaviours and giving chances for training. Alongside the duties of management, it is necessary to break down or remove obstacles that impede individuals from embracing change. The setting should be feasible and not include any punishment or negative feedback to the greatest extent. To effect change, managers may, at their discretion, make use of any of these two strategies. It

is necessary for change leaders (champions) to carry out the following steps.

Creating a relevant presence

It is not sufficient for management to generate a feeling of urgency; to gain a high degree of engagement from the workforce, they need to perceive the importance of the change. In other words, managers need to put themselves in the position of the workers in order to understand the implications of change from the workers' point of view.

In his efforts to bring about change at General Electric (GE), Jack Welch presented the workers with the viewpoint that employees needed to learn new skills, not for lifetime employment at GE but rather to acquire employable skills with which they could find a job as well as when the skills were not required at GE. Jack Welch's viewpoint was that employees needed to learn new skills, not for lifetime employment at GE but to acquire employable skills with which they could find a job and when the skills were not. In other words, he framed the idea of change as an investment by the workers in their future employability rather than just as a method of boosting GE's overall performance.

Asking proper questions

Inquiry, which entails asking pertinent and strategic questions, is the first step in any change process. People are also expected to be able to imagine what the future holds and recognise a variety of potential outcomes. One of the ways to take the initiative may

be to measure one's performance against the best practices already in place or to build up an internal benchmark to improve performance. When people become aware that some changes are unavoidable or that certain costs are a possibility, it increases the likelihood that they will commit themselves to the new reality.

Altering one's mental approach

The change of people may result in the transformation of organisations. Altering oneself is the first step in the process. The change master has to do an honest self-evaluation to determine whether he possesses the attributes of flexibility and understanding. It is vital because every action or word done by the person leading the change either encourages or undermines the efforts made to change. Having accomplished that, he is now responsible for cultivating an atmosphere amenable to bringing about change.

A premature declaration of triumph

Using Lewin's model as a reference, the actions described above will start the process and either defrost or agitate the stage that has been predetermined. Once that goal has been accomplished, the change procedures may be started. At this point, several possibilities are available; some concepts may be conceived to address the new issues; nevertheless, the executives need to be selective, bearing in mind the relative significance of each concept and the amount of time it will take to implement each concept. Because he is a manager who is driving change and

looks to be working in an emergency scenario with limited resources, he has to develop priorities that optimise the problem's significance and urgency.

People may lose patience since the change process might take years before delivering any meaningful return. Consequently, the leader has to make an effort to do things that yield results to avoid losing followers. This suggests that possibilities for early wins need to be sought while the change activities are being pursued in order to ensure success. People at all levels have a great deal of latent potential that must be brought out into the open and used. It has been noticed that the typical Japanese worker comes up with more than one hundred ideas in a single calendar year. In the instance of Toyota, eighty per cent of the suggestions made by employees have been put into action, and it has been determined that they are beneficial. However, to achieve early success, one does not necessarily need to devise solutions that can be completed quickly. It is essential to remember that achieving early successes is beneficial to maintaining energy and momentum throughout the transformation process.

Transforming herself into her primary rival.

Competing against one's achievements rather than only against others is the best way to build leadership. This mindset encourages growth through learning, experimentation, and development. If one does this, one may avoid the hubris of corporations, which can lead to complacency.

Building coalitions is an essential part of leading change.

The formation of coalitions may be of great assistance in effecting change. In the first place, they assist in developing a more comprehensive viewpoint and a broader basis of ideas. Second, the chance of support for the change will improve if many individuals are involved in the process.

Recognising that there are often contradictions associated with achievement

Executives are responsible for being aware that change is not a goal in itself and is a continual process, even though one may refreeze the behaviour associated with change. If forward progress is not maintained, there is a danger of reverting to the methods that have been used in the past. This presents a challenge that must be met. It is noteworthy that "in an atmosphere of continual change, few business beliefs stay effective for long after some time, even successful notions must be abandoned." (Noel Tichy, 1983).

Developing an organisation that is capable of learning

The idea of a learning organisation, first presented by Peter Senge (1990), is now widely recognised as necessary for acquiring new skills, achieving a productivity advantage, and gaining a competitive edge. Just like people, organisations need to learn how to overcome their learning difficulties and blind spots to succeed. Learning requires active participation in listening, questioning, reflecting, challenging,

experimental, and discontinuing. As the change process moves forward, taking the initiative to lead change becomes more of a mentality.

Developing an organisation into a learning organisation is a manager's essential function. In every organisation, there is some learning going on, whether it is deliberately or subconsciously pursued. Most businesses learn using a process known as single-loop learning, which entails detecting and correcting errors based on previous experience and regulations already in place. On the other hand, a learning organisation uses the double-loop learning method. This method involves not only the identification and correction of errors but also the modification of organisational goals, policies, and procedures to reduce the likelihood of similar errors occurring in the future.

The established assumptions and standards that are ineffectual are called into question by double loop learning, which also offers unusual answers to issues so that substantial progress may be made. Every organisation gains knowledge from its experiences, but only learning organisations consciously decide to improve to maintain their existence. The capacity for an organisation to adapt and change is developed via the process of learning. Learning organisations include companies such as Maruti and Tata Steel, Tata Motors, General Electric, and Wal-Mart. This is because these businesses have successfully adapted to the ever-changing business climate and continue to thrive in this new context.

How Can We Make WER Organisation a Learner That Never Stops?

The development of a plan is essential activity managers are obligated to carry out to transform an organisation into a learning organisation. The organisation has made its commitment to change, innovation, and ongoing improvement pronounced by the plan that has been presented. After that stage is completed, the following step that should be taken is to rethink the organisation's structure. This may entail lowering the number of levels in the organisation, integrating departments, and developing cross-functional teams by increasing interdependence across departments and blurring the lines between those divisions.

Altering the organisation's culture is the last step in the adoption process, but it should not be overlooked. This must be accomplished using a two-pronged approach, one that focuses on strategy and the other on behaviour. To achieve this, managerial support must be provided for taking risks, and failure must be tolerated when it does occur. In the workplace, not only should those willing to take risks to be rewarded, but transparency should also be actively promoted. There will be disputes and conflicts between different functional areas of the organisation during the learning period. When employees in an organisation are encouraged to be open and honest about disagreements and ambiguities, the organisation can

achieve greater intelligence than was previously possible when people worked alone.

Whether or not change is feasible and whether or not cultural traditions have a role in people's aversion to change often arises. Also, a point of contention is whether or not change champions in various cultures employ different types of initiatives. Beliefs, values, and the extent to which a culture can impact its surroundings may vary significantly from one culture to the next. A culture that is receptive to new ideas and where individuals have the sense that they can shape their surroundings will have a more positive and proactive attitude toward change. On the other hand, citizens of nations ruled by autocrats who believe their environment dominates them would react negatively to the prospect of change.

Variations in culture may also be noticed in nations primarily focused on long-term or short-term transformation. Countries such as Japan and India have a great deal of patience in waiting for beneficial results to arise from improved attempts. However, western nations, particularly the United States and Canada, are interested in more rapid outcomes from reform. Additionally, the power difference between parties might affect the implementation of change. In cultures with a large power gap, the implementation of policies will follow an authoritarian approach, while in cultures with a low power distance, democratic approaches will be adopted.

In high power distance cultures, change champions seek to collaborate directly with top management to get support for new actions. It is possible to conclude that the change advocates will modify organisational tactics to represent cultural values.

CHAPTER-IV
PROCESS-BASED CHANGE MODELS

The actual procedures or the "how" of the organisational change process are the primary points of emphasis in the process models. These models discuss the order of events that must occur to change an organisation and the interventions associated with this topic.

The change model developed by Lewin

This model is an early example of planned change, and it looks like this.

According to Lewin (1975), change is the driving force behind the alterations of the factors that maintain the consistent behaviour of a system.

The level of behaviour at any given instant in time is the resulting vector of two vectors, one of which is trying to maintain the status quo and the other seeking change.

The existing behaviour is maintained when these two forces balance equally, which Lewin refers to as the quasi-stationary equilibrium.

According to Lewin, change in a system can be induced in one of three ways: by either increasing the forces for change, decreasing the forces that are maintaining the current state, or applying a combination of both

strategies. Alternatively, change can be induced by applying a combination of all three strategies.

1) Individual level, structure and systems level, and organisational climate level are the three levels that are impacted by organisational change according to this paradigm. These levels are described in the following way:

2) On an individual level (changes that affect a person's mindset, beliefs, values, abilities, and conduct)

3) The level of the structure and the systems (change affecting incentive system, information systems etc.)

4) Organisational climate (change affecting leadership styles, interpersonal relationships, decision-making)

Lewin's model consists of three crucial processes to give a platform for change at all organisational levels. These steps are as follows:

Unfreezing

Doing this entails lessening the pressures that keep the organisation behaving as it does now. At the level of the person, this may be achieved by disproving the individual's behaviour at the moment. The person in this scenario may be provided with information that exposes an incongruity between the conduct being shown and the behaviour that members of the organisation want. To kick off the change process, it is possible to present new and more efficient designs at

the system level. Some examples of these designs are matrix management and others. At the level of the climate, various management practices may be understood and evaluated via the use of survey feedback techniques. The objective of unfreezing is to bring the workers' attention to the inconsistencies in their actions, the system, and the culture of the business, as well as to make them more sensitive to the fact that these things need to be altered.

Changing/Moving

This refers to the transition of behaviour to a new level, which causes people to adopt new behaviours, values, and attitudes as a direct consequence of the organisational structure and procedure changes.

The implemented adjustments must be interpreted as answers to the issues discovered during the unfreezing step.

This almost always results in changes being made to the organisation.

Restructuring, switching positions, and switching employment are all changes that may occur inside an organisation.

Refreezing

At this point in the process, the organisation has stabilised, reached a new state of equilibrium, and established a behaviour pattern it prefers. It is often achieved by the use of a variety of support mechanisms, all of which are geared at supporting the new organisational state. The new state is somewhat change-resistant to buy time until the next change

cycle is scheduled. Awards, recognition, prizes, and showing folks how they will profit from their actions are some methods that may be used to freeze behaviour in members of an organisation.

Planning Model

After being modified by Kolb and Frohman, the planning model was first suggested by Lippit et al. (1958), and it was subsequently developed by those two researchers (1970).

This concept has often been used in the process of bringing about change that was intentionally intended in companies.

The planning model suggests seven different processes for the process of transformation.

That is, there should be a free and open exchange of information between the organisation and the change agent, and this information must be of a kind that can be translated into action. Additionally, this information must be of a type that can be used to improve the situation.

A sequence of phases is taken into consideration in this model for the process of change that is planned.

The first stage is for the organisation and the change agents to discuss the need for change and the aspects of the business that demand it.

After that, they establish a mutual contract and expectations of one another.

The next step is to identify precise objectives for the future of the organisation's progress.

Identifying the natural and probable causes of resistance to change is worked out, and planning is done for particular improvement objectives since change cannot progress successfully without managing resistance.

The following stage is the implementation of the actions specified in the planning stage, followed by making decisions about the end of the system or the beginning of another.

A Schematic Representation of the Change Management Process Model

Galpin (1996) provided a change management process model that effectively puts change into action.

In his opinion, addressing both the strategic and the grassroots levels is necessary for an effective organisational transformation.

The term "strategic transformation" refers to the preliminary and preliminary endeavour that first involves CEOs, senior managers, a small cadre of employees, and often consultants who give an outside perspective of the organisation (Galpin,1996).

This kind of change is extensive and affects the company as a whole. It entails the pursuit of two principal goals: one that is technical or analytical or analytical (including the formulation of suggestions for a change), and another that is focused on the "soft side" (involving the creation of momentum for a change).

The endeavour that emphasises change implementation at the local level is called grassroots

change. This kind of change pushes transformation to the core of an organisation.

The primary objective here is to implement desired changes and maintain them.

In most cases, change does not come all at once but is preceded by significant steps along the route.

A change process is shown via its nine steps. These stages are for both developing and executing change.

The nine phases require management within an organisation to comprehend and implement the features of both strategic and grassroots changes. This is a prerequisite for moving on to the subsequent stages.

In the early phases, a higher emphasis must be placed on the strategic nature of the implemented changes.

During the beginning phases, top management identifies a need for change and creates a vision for the organisation's future. Meanwhile, a small group of individuals analyses the existing organisation, formulates proposals, and details these ideas for testing.

In subsequent phases, it will be necessary to use characteristics of grassroots change more widely.

During pilot testing and roll-out, more people are involved horizontally and vertically across the organisation. This is because middle managers and supervisors are required to continuously measure and reinforce the changes being tested and rolled out to ensure successful implementation.

Stage 1: Establishing the need for change

In this stage, the need for change must be identified and articulated to assist individuals in comprehending the rationale for the need for change. The rationale for change and the implications of maintaining the status quo are presented in this example. In order to highlight the reasons for change, it is helpful to gather the supporting data, advocate for change, and define the need for change.

Stage 2: Developing and disseminating a vision of the change

This stage is necessary to construct an accurate image of the organisation due to a successful transformation process. People at this stage need to have a crystal clear idea of where the organisation wants to go, and the vision needs to be expressed in a way that makes it possible for all members of the organisation to comprehend it, relate to it, and understand how they fit into the larger picture of achieving the vision. The goal, as a result, has to be realisable, and the scale of the change will determine the people participating in its development.

After the construction of the vision has been completed, there must be a cessation of operations or a change implemented across the whole business for management and workers to comprehend and embrace it.

Many approaches may be used, ranging from just making notifications to taking a participatory and individualistic stance.

The majority of the time, a "cascading" strategy, which combines the two different ways of thinking, is adopted.

Stage 3: Diagnosing/analysing the current situation

Analyses and diagnoses are performed on the organisation's existing procedures, and the results are compared to the changes that are wanted following the vision. This stage may be completed and is distinguished by the extensive applications of various diagnostic and analytical procedures. This can be done with the assistance of various methods and instruments (such as cost-benefit analyses and cycle time analyses). The study contributes to the formation of a complete picture of the processes and regions of the organisation that are now under scrutiny. It is helpful in three different ways:

i. It draws attention to procedures that can be made more efficient by simplifying, eliminating, consolidating, and automating operations (This often leads to the following two stages-generating ideas and making recommendations).

ii. The findings may be utilised to make a case for the need for change.

iii. When evaluating the effects of changes that will be made in the future, the information might serve as a baseline for the evaluation process.

At this point in the analysis phase, it is time to initiate the elements of grassroots changes in the processes by involving employees and seeking their assistance in data collection, participation in surveys, interviews,

focus group discussions, or meetings. Specifically, this is the time to involve employees.

Stage 4:Generating change process recommendations

At this point, suggestions are made to enhance, abolish, or combine existing processes to establish new ones. Comparisons of best practices and benchmarking are often sources for developing new ways of doing things. This opens the door to innovation. Employees should be active in the creative process by contributing to written surveys, interviews, or focus groups to contribute to the grassroots transformation process.

Stage 5: Detailing recommendations

At this point, specifics like expenses, the availability of hardware and software, and the prerequisites for training are considered. At this point, the merits of the ideas are reviewed in terms of how cost-efficient they are, how much time it will take to develop them, and how readily available the necessary technology is.

Stage 6: Pilot testing

Because improvements are being tested inside the organisation, modifications at the grassroots level become very necessary. Although pilot testing may not cover the whole process, it is often helpful in fine-tuning improvements before making changes that affect the entire business.

Stage 7: Preparing recommendations for roll-out

At this point, the input gathered in the prior stage is analysed to finalise the suggestions for roll-outs. This time frame offers another opportunity for the

company to work on developing a product that is "market ready."

Stage 8: Rolling out changes

At this point, a roll-out timetable has to be devised, as well as resources and equipment that need to be lined up; this will make it easier to provide training at a grassroots level, which is becoming more critical. The options here vary from a dispersed, multi-phased process that stretches over time to a "kick-off," which is defined by a short time frame as all relevant sections of the organisation go online at the same time, to a "kick-off" event (Galpin, 1996).

Stage 9: Measuring, reinforcing and refining changes

Consolidating the changes made at the grassroots level via assessment, reinforcement, and refining is the focus of this stage, which is necessary to attain the desired outcomes. Refinements are made based on the input that was gathered, and they are vital for boosting the efficacy of changes that have been implemented and obtaining the goals that were wanted.

Integrative Model of the Planned Changes

The integrated model was proposed by Bullock and Batten (1985) to describe both the temporal states and the change processes associated with planned change. The foundation of the integrative model for planned transformation is that organisations may exist in various states at various points in time. As a result, transitions from one state to another may be prearranged and carried out. This paradigm may be

broken down into four distinct stages, beginning with the discovery phase and ending with the integration phase.

Planning phase

In the planning phase, a diagnostic of the issue is performed. During this time, the organisation gathers essential information in order to analyse the functioning of the organisation. This analysis is dedicated to the growth of the organisation. In this process phase, the consultant and the members work together to establish objectives for change and build an action plan to bring about organisational change and improvement. The backing of critical decision-makers is required to ensure that no issues are encountered at a later stage due to the planned modifications. In addition, the significant decision-makers have a comprehensive understanding of the long-term plans.

The phase of action

The changes outlined in the planning phase are put into action during the action phase, and the procedures necessary for transition are also put into action. At this point, the attention is directed on moving the organisation from its present state to the state that will serve its goal. The initiative's efficacy depends on the change activities being monitored and assessed on a periodic basis to assess the progress being made and determine whether or not corrective actions need to be done to reach the outcomes sought.

The period of integration

Consolidating and integrating the change initiative into the organisation's operation is the goal of this phase, which follows the successful execution and stability of the change initiative in the previous phase. This is accomplished using many different reinforcements, such as consistent feedback, prizes, and incentives. Because the modification was successfully implemented across the organisation, the contract with the organisation's development specialist has been terminated. In addition to this, strategies are developed to guarantee that the new behaviour is maintained going forward.

Schein's Model of Change

Schein's (1987) extension of Lewin's fundamental change model to incorporate more contemporary ideas was a further development built upon Lewin's original work. The following is an explanation of the model:

Unfreezing

Unfreezing, in Schein's view, refers to the process of generating preparedness and desire for change. The state of unfreezing is comprised of three steps that produce change:

- ✓ **Disinformation**

    In a general sense, deformation happens when members of an organisation become aware of a need for change, which in turn encourages them to accept change.

    Schein believed that the first step toward any learning or change is some form of discontent or

irritation brought on by facts that contradict our assumptions or wishes for the future. In the quasi-station equilibrium, disconfirmation acts as a fundamental driving factor, which is genuinely independent of the source of the disconfirmation. Senge (1990) supports Schein by arguing that a degree of disequilibrium based on facts that contradict one another is a prerequisite.

On the other hand, contradictory evidence can be overlooked, disregarded, or its validity questioned. The disconfirmation must provoke some level of survival fear in order for change to take place. The sense that one's needs, aspirations, or ideas will not be realised without the implementation of change is what is meant by the term "survival anxiety." These objectives and these standards should be attained. These objectives, principles, or requirements are ones that the person establishes for him or herself.

✓ The instillation of a guild or survival-related anxieties

Recognising and constructing a gap between the present unsatisfactory condition and the desired future state is necessary to induce guilt or worry. Accepting the disconfirmation as legitimate and meaningful is necessary for one to experience feelings of survival fear or guilt.

Most of the time, one is unable to do so as a consequence of the anxiety associated with

learning. Learning anxiety is an individual's feeling when they believe that if they allow themselves to enter the learning or change process, they are admitting to themselves and others that something is wrong or imperfect and that the individual will lose effectiveness, self-esteem, or even his identity. Schein defines learning anxiety as an individual's feeling when they believe that if they allow themselves to enter the learning or change process, they are admitting to themselves and others that something is wrong or imperfect. According to Schein, learning anxiety is the fundamental restraining force that can increase in direct proportion to the amount of disconfirmation, which leads to the maintenance of the equilibrium through the defensive avoidance of the disconfirming information. This can happen when a person is exposed to much conflicting information. The appropriate management of learning anxiety is thus required to bring about change since this process would result in the learner experiencing a feeling of psychological safety. This is why it is essential.

✓ The Establishment of Psychological Safety or the Overcoming of Anxiety Associated with Learning To do this, a setting must be created in which individuals feel secure enough to engage in activities such as disconfirmation and induction. Schein argues that there will not be any

disconfirming of the facts, that individuals will cling to their opinions, and that there will be no change if they do not feel psychologically secure and have survival fear.

According to him, "the key to successful change management is thus becoming the capacity to balance the level of danger caused by disconfirming evidence with enough psychological safety to enable the change target to absorb the information, experience the fear, and become motivated to change."

Cognitive restructuring / redefinition

A self-directed learner who is driven to acquire new knowledge through a process known as cognitive restructuring. This process involves changes to the learner's mental processes, emotions, values, and attitudes. The new knowledge may have several effects, including the following:

- o *Redefining the Meaning of Semantic*
  Words may have more than one meaning; thus, it is essential to study the lexicon and get familiar with terms whose connotations might shift depending on the context.

- o *Enrichment of intellectual horizons*
  A notion understood in a broader sense entails discovering that a concept may be construed in a much broader sense than one would first expect it to be possible to do so.

- o *New Guidelines for Judgment OR Criteria for Evaluation*

Different anchors of judgments and comparisons mean understanding that the anchors of judgements and comparisons are not absolute and that there are always other alternative anchors available at any particular moment in time.

Three effects are absorbed by one of these mechanisms: positive or defensive identification with a role model; scanning the environment using a trial-and-error approach; or scanning the environment using a role model. These impacts are triggered by the new information (Schein, 1968)

Imitation and positive or defensive identification with a role model

Cognitive re-definition occurs when the learner has been motivated to change, that transformation has been unfrozen, and the learner is receptive to the absorption of new knowledge. Informal processes are responsible for the acquisition of new knowledge. During these processes, one realises that an idea may be understood in ways other than one's own, and as a result, one can adopt new perspective(s) that promote transformation. The practice of brainwashing is a typical example.

Apprenticeships, mentorship, and the fulfilment of a variety of other formal, group-based indoctrination programmes are all examples of socialisation procedures that acknowledge comparable dynamics as the key to their success. In many cases, the mentor is a source of psychological stability and a role model to

allow cognitive reframing (Schein, 1968; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

Rarely does the learner go through the process of defensive identification, which occurs when the learner is held hostage in a hostile setting in which the most prominent role models are the hostile captors? While unfreezing gives the incentive to learn, it is impossible to regulate or foresee the direction in which learning will proceed. The type of the material, the prominence of the role models and their level of impact all play a part in determining the learning path. As a result, this model places significant importance on the many types of role models accessible to learners.

Scanning is an alternative method of learning that may be used when there are insufficient positive role models or when there is a desire to acquire knowledge in a more authentically creative manner.

❖ When scanning, do we get insights or learn via trial and error?

Learning during this stage, the learner seeks, or scans, for new knowledge that gives a solution to the issue. This may be done through reading, talking to others, hiring consultants, and other similar activities. In a scenario like this, the new knowledge may give the student the sensation of being psychologically protected, and the learner may unexpectedly have an insight into how to solve the problem. Change agents anticipate such experiences in the learners since the learner has self-invented these solutions,

making them the most trustworthy and stable for the learner. As a result, change agents look forward to such experiences.

After some reorganisation has occurred, the newly created mental categories are evaluated using the altered pattern of behaviour, ultimately resulting in a time of trial and error. This either results in the consolidation of the new categories or opens the door to a fresh round of disconfirmation and exploration of the topic at hand.

❖ Refreezing of both personal and interpersonal relationships

When refreezing, the most important thing to remember is that the new behaviour the learner is attempting to adopt must, at least to some extent, be consistent with the rest of their personality and behaviour patterns. Alternatively, it will result in fresh cycles of disconfirmation, which is the process of forgetting things that one has already learnt. The process of refreezing oneself personally entails incorporating one's newly adopted practices and behaviours into their overall sense of self-concept. To increase the likelihood of successful personal refreezing, it is best to discourage identifying and instead promote scanning. The best strategy for relational refreezing is to teach the whole group that upholds the norms that support the old

behaviour. This is because incorporating the new behaviour into contacts with significant people is essential to relational refreezing.

The Model of Action Research

Assuming that planned change is a circular process, this model suggests that organisations, in order to change, need to do research at the beginning so that they may have enough knowledge that can direct their future activity. This is necessary in order for organisations to change. After the action has been taken, the effects of the action are evaluated to offer knowledge that may direct additional action, and this cycle is repeated as a continuous process. Under this paradigm, Cummings and Huse (1989) developed a total of eight stages, which are as follows:

- ➢ Specifying the Nature of the Issue
- ➢ A critical executive has reached this point when they have become aware of an issue or problem that can be resolved with the assistance of an organisation development (O.D.) practitioner.
- ➢ Consultation with a Trained Professional
- ➢ When it is determined that there is a solution to the issue (or problems), which occurs after it has been felt that there is such a solution, one seeks the assistance of an O.D. specialist.
- ➢ The collection of data and the establishment of a preliminary diagnosis
- ➢ The O.D. consultant obtains data via the use of a variety of methods, including interviews,

questionnaires, and organisational-performance analysis. The consultant does their job in conjunction with the members of the organisation.

➤ Feedback

➤ The main client or group receives the obtained data to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the area being studied, and the consultant provides the client with all relevant and valuable data to the client.

➤ A Collaborative Analysis and Diagnosis of the Issue

➤ Following a discussion of the comments, the group focuses on any further pertinent research that could be necessary. After that, the findings of these further studies are condensed and presented to the group once again to have them verified to make additional diagnoses and determine the nature of the issue (s).

➤ Cooperative Efforts in Action Planning

➤ The consultant and the management team have come to a consensus on the approaches that will be taken to solve the issue. It is necessary to adopt specific courses of action in order to resolve the issue, and these actions vary according to the cultural, technical, and working Environment (s). At this point, the amount of time and money necessary to carry out the intervention is being considered.

➢ Action This is the stage where the actual change from its current condition to its desired state occurs. This stage may entail the installation of new techniques and processes, the reorganisation of structures and work designs, or the reinforcement of new behaviours.

➢ The Collection of Information Following an Event

➢ In order to establish the extent of the change that has taken place as a consequence of this action, new data has once again been acquired. This provides more evidence that the process is cyclical. We ask for further input, and then, based on it, we re-diagnose the problem and pursue a different course of action. This methodology enables the organisation to create generic knowledge that can be beneficial in various contexts and can be applied to those contexts in a manner that is independent of the change it brings about.

MODEL OF EVOLVING MANAGERIAL INTERPRETATIONS OF CHANGE

This paradigm, introduced by Isabella (1990), emphasises the cognitive aspect of organisational activity and includes interpretation processes connected to occurrences. This paradigm departs from previous models, which take the perspective that change is an organisational and administrative response to circumstances or occurrences (van de Ven,

1980). It is built on a communal interpretational portrayal of significant events while at the same time understanding that enacted realities encompass diverse and different realities. Enacted realities include (Smirich & Stubbart, 1985). Isabella gathered data for her analysis from forty managers by conducting interviews with them about significant previous events and how their perspectives, in turn, influenced the transformation process. The model may be thought of as a progression that consists of four separate phases: anticipation, confirmation, climax, and aftermath. These stages are the order in which interpretations evolve.

At each level, there is a primary point of reference, some interpretive work to be done, and built reality. It is fascinating to take notice that the process of transition begins with the occurrence of a trigger event and that the individualisation of the trigger has no effect on the progression of any stage. The person is attempting to analyse what the incident meant to him in terms of his career and in general. The model goes through several phases, each of which attempts to capture the collective creation of events by managers and emphasises identifying and describing the frames of reference that these individuals share throughout specific transitions. On the other hand, this approach does not focus on the specific actions made as a consequence of interpretations, nor does it focus on the direct impact those interpretations have on the interpretations of others. In addition, it does

not go into length on the description of the interactional processes that people go through to come to share meaning. In her research on the examination of data, Isabella (1990) concluded that "the process of management interpretation consists of rhythmic alterations in a conceived reality as an event progresses" (p. 31). This discovery was consistent with findings from earlier studies (Weick and Daft, 1983), which emphasised the continual changes in the construed reality as a consequence of new facts coming to light and new questions being posed. This conclusion was in keeping with those findings. The study work conducted using this model provided an overview of the specific cognitive processes that followed the transformation process. The model suggested that the fundamental stages of change outlined by Lewin (1947) — unfreezing, moving, and refreezing — are accompanied by the interpretive tasks of assembly, standardisation, reconstruction, and evaluation. This conclusion was reached after the model suggested that these tasks accompany these stages. It was also emphasised that frames of reference are the predominant sense-making devices for organisations during the change process. This is because frames of reference act as the logic behind cognition, and it was emphasised that activation of these frames of reference organise the comprehension of event-based situations.

When a shift occurs, a conventional frame of reference takes the place of an in-frame of reference. This

results in modified views that operate as an evaluative frame of reference. "In the beginning, when individuals anticipate an event, they put together fragments of knowledge into a framework still in development. In regular vantage positions that make it possible for them to know what will change and how it will change, they observe the event from the perspective of the change itself, which helps reduce uncertainty. As soon as the event has occurred, the main thrust of cognition begins the process of making meaning of the new circumstances, which is always done to the previous ones and takes the shape of an altered or rebuilt frame of reference. Last but not least, refreezing seems connected to widening one's viewpoint and general learning about what the experience meant, the culmination of which is an evaluative frame of reference (Isabella, 1990, p.33).

As a result, unformed and uncertain opinions become viewpoints that are well-constructed and well-processed for the communal interpretations of important events. As people work through the several interpretative phases to amass the most comprehensive knowledge possible of an event, they simultaneously develop a comprehensive meaning for the event that incorporates the various stages' contributions. The question "what does an event mean?" contributes to the complexity of the research. However, it also leads to the determination of a process involving a series of interpretive stages. This is since the most substantial conventional viewpoints

result from an earlier interpretive cycle that attempted to make sense of a situation through all four stages. The study that led to the development of this model showed, among other things, that collectively perceived realities involve cognition and emotion, with the personalisation of trigger events adding an emotional component to the mix.

Both the model and the research that goes along with it provide a fresh viewpoint on the phenomenon of resistance to change, along with ramifications for leaders' actions during events. It argues that, rather than considering resistance to change as hurdles to be overcome, it may be more beneficial to regard it as a fundamental part of the cognitive transformation that occurs throughout the change.

CONTENT-BASED MODELS

Content-based models concentrate on the substances of changes in the organisation. A few models in this category. Hunt's (1972) model for understanding and analysing change attempts to identify system and effectiveness variables in the organisation that affect its state of equilibrium; Burke and Litwin's (1992) content model of organisational performance attempts to predict individual and organisational performance and deals with organisational conditions and resultant effects; and Burke and Trahant's (2000) discussion on discontinuous change and change capable of organisation.

The Dissipative Equilibrium Model of the Organisation
Hunt (1972) is the one who came up with the idea for this model. He believed that an organisation should be considered a sound action system and that system and effectiveness variables should describe it. Therefore, per this model, each organisational system is built to accomplish a set of goals, evaluated based on how effectively it performs in terms of metrics. In addition, the organisation is always working toward equilibrium, and these variables—the system variables and the effectiveness variables—are two sets of parameters involved in determining whether or not the organisation has achieved equilibrium.

System Variables
The organisation's official and informal structures are included in this category. In addition to the person variable, the technological systems and external factors operating in the organisation are considered.

❖ Formal Structure
It refers to the organisation of resources in such a manner that there is coordination between the actions of the members of the organisation (which are split and specialised) and their interpersonal connections to achieve the organisation's goals. The constructive may further be defined in terms of the following characteristics:
1) The breakdown of organisational goals into individual objectives

2) Conditions of the members' split activities that have been planned and are under control

3) Classification of individual possessions according to these categories

It is possible to say, in a nutshell, that an organisation's formal structure is designed to limit and guide the organisation's behaviour.

❖ Informal Structure

The organisation's members' values, beliefs, and collective goals are often instilled via the formal structure. In addition to such collective cognition, other values, beliefs, attitudes, and limitations contribute to the formation of an organisation's informal structure. This structure is very lax and unstructured and determines the interactions between the organisation's members. Members strive to compensate for the limits imposed by the formal organisation by interacting with one another, making their own choices, forming groups and cliques, and so on.

Because the formal structure only engages a small portion of the individuals' performance possibilities as an internalised value system, it can be said that the emergence and existence of the informal structure in an organisation is a result of the formal structure's narrowness. To put it another way, we can say that the informal structure results from the narrowness of the formal structure.

❖ Technical system

In every organisation, there is a connection between the work that the members of the organisation do and the objectives that the organisation aims to achieve. A connection of this kind is made possible by combining an action system and a technical system that is a component of the action system. This pertains to resource acquisition, disposal, and modification, the tool and machine system, and the physical work limits. There is a possibility that the members' attitudes and behaviours will be enabled, disabled, or constrained as a result of the technological systems.

❖ External Pressures

Because the organisation is comprised of open systems, it is often vulnerable to the forces that are generated from the outside. These pressures manifest in communications between members and non-members of the organisation. Complaints and attempts at providing satisfactory service to customers are two examples. Each organisation must modify its border following the external forces it is subjected to, and these pressures might vary widely depending on the kind of organisation. In most cases, the complexity of the formal structure will equip an organisation with the tools necessary to deal with its environment's complexity.

❖ Individual Variables

The organisation may essentially be seen as a collective of the role performances of its members. It considers the traditional values, the technical or physical effects, the requirements imposed from the outside, and the requirements of the individual members. The individual variable is defined by the fact that a person joins an organisation to fulfil particular wants, and the strength of the variable is shown to exist in the individual's motivation to meet his requirements.

Effectiveness Variables

Achieved goals, constructive disputes, constructive collaboration, and the fulfilment or dissatisfaction of needs are some of these factors.

▪ Achievement

Achievement may be comprehended on two levels: the personal level and the organisational level; nevertheless, these two levels are not mutually exclusive from one another. Achievement may be defined on an organisational level in terms of its links with technological systems and collaboration. The technological system's designers intend to facilitate a rise in both the individual members' level of productivity and their capacity to contribute to accomplishing the organisation's objectives. Cooperation among the organisation's members is necessary to accomplish the organisation's goals. At the level of the individual, needs being met are

the primary driver of a person's level of motivation, which in turn feeds more effective performance, resulting in a better probability of the organisation's goals being achieved.

▪ **Cooperation**

The realisation of objectives frequently prompts members of an organisation to become aware of the work being put in, which is a consequence of members of the organisation holding common values and belief systems. These kinds of shared systems prepared the groundwork for collaboration among the participants. Put another way, the interdependencies between perceived objectives lead to cooperation.

▪ **Destructive Conflict**

The organisation's members may think they are working toward competing aims, which may lead to conflict. In addition, organisations are often organised into departments. Although each department may have its own set of objectives, overall, the organisation's goals are advanced by the combined efforts of all departments.

Therefore, it is always possible that various departments within an organisation may suffer conflict between their distinct aims, and the segmentation of goals offers a focus for forming conflict.

▪ **The fulfilment of a requirement**

Working for a company allows a person to fulfil various requirements or demands. The greater the intensity of his requirements, the higher the level of motivation he brings to his job performance. Because of this, the effort that a person puts out to improve his role performance leads to better fulfilment of the needs that led him to become a member of the organisation. The needs that led him to become a member of the organisation are as follows: Dissatisfaction

The existence of a formal structural hierarchy inside an organisation brings to the attention of its members the differences within the organisation concerning the structure of their salaries, their position, and other factors of this kind.

Hunt conducted empirical research to validate and demonstrate his model's usefulness, further elucidating how the various variables interact with one another and determining the degree to which these interactions occur. These kinds of efforts help select the intervention that the agent of change will select in such a manner that it will be the intervention that is most nearly suited and will precipitate the desired result in the organisation. The results of an independent study based on actual data support Hunt's approach (Quinn, 1978; Kasperson, 1985). In light of this, Hunt's model offers an intuitive and intellectual framework for analysing change. It applies to research that may study the broad and diverse

change process across organisations and the more confined contingency models.

Burke-Litwin Model of Organisational Performance and Change

The Burke-Litwin (1992) model takes an open system approach to the organisation they are studying. In this paradigm, organisational performance serves as the output dimension, while the external environment acts as the input dimension. The key throughput dimensions are referred to by the other components still present in the model. The input is connected to the output by a feedback loop, and the arrows may point in either way (organisational outputs-products and services affect the external environment and that forces in the external environment affect performance directly). Changes in the government's policies or the market's circumstances, for instance, will affect the results for the organisation and vice versa.

The model consists of 12 critical components for organisational comprehension and analysis. It is possible to see the dimensions as belonging to several levels: the significant system level (which includes factors such as mission, strategy, leadership, and culture); the group/local work unit level (which includes variables such as climate); and the personal level (variables such as individual needs and values, task requirements and individual skills, and motivation). The arrows in opposite directions represent the open system concept of multiple impact, which states that a change in one variable will affect the other variables.

They believe that transformational factors, which include mission, strategy, leadership, and culture, play a more critical role when large-scale organisational change is to be brought about. When explaining further, Burke and Litwin state, "... Organisational change, especially an overhaul of the business strategy, stems more from environmental impact than from any other factor." A simple proclamation of the leader's strategy is not enough to bring about meaningful organisational transformation; instead, it must be accompanied by a shift in the organisation's culture, as well as an alignment of that culture with the leader's behaviour, purpose, and strategy. Alterations to an organisation's goal will affect the whole system, but alterations to its structure could or might not have such an effect. It is dependent on the specific location within the organisation where a structural change is implemented.

The 'Drivers' of Organisation Transformation

The fundamental assumption underpinning this model is that a business organisation is an organic organism composed of many distinct components, all of which have the capacity to play a part in change initiatives. The life of an organisation may be shaped and driven in broad, "big picture" ways by various factors, including leadership, organisational purpose, strategy, and culture. These factors thus play a transformative role in an organisation's life. At the same time, factors influence how work is done on an everyday basis, such as employee motivation, needs, job fit, and work unit

climate. Variables such as a company's structure, management practices, and systems (technology) that help people conduct their jobs are examples of these. Systems (technology) also assist people in performing their jobs. At a "transactional" level, the performance of both the organisation and the person is impacted by several elements. Successful change needs the consideration of both transformational and transactional factors and the use of either one (or a mix) of both types of variables to mould and maintain change.

The many parts of the model have been broken down into the following categories:

External Environment

These refer to forces or variables outside the organisation that affect its performance. Some examples of these include political and economic conditions, regulations imposed by the government, market conditions, customer behaviour and satisfaction, and evolving technological capabilities.

The objective and the plan

The organisation's mission might be seen as its overarching purpose or principal objectives. To put it simply, it is the guiding principle of the organisation. The word "strategy" comes from the Greek word "strategos," which means "how" or "process." It describes the method by which the objective is going to be achieved. Vision and mission statements are joint in organisational lingo. Mission pertains to the here and now and is tied to the fundamental capabilities of

the organisation. At the same time, vision concerns the future and refers to a desire or ambition.

Persuasion, influence, the service of followers, and acting as a role model are all obligations that come with leadership positions. Although providing guidance is a leader's primary duty, other duties include: Although there is much overlap between leadership and management methods, there are also some critical distinctions between the two. Leadership involves having a vision, putting one's influence to use, having the ability to communicate in a way that persuades others, recognising the contributions of others via praise, and creating environments in which individuals may acquire new abilities. Management is concerned with establishing goals, achieving those goals via completing tasks, making efficient and effective use of the organisation's resources, and rewarding individuals through extrinsic variables such as monetary incentives and elevation in status.

Culture

The way things are done in an organisation and how these standards and values are conveyed and obeyed, either directly or implicitly, are examples of what are referred to as organisational culture. When we talk about culture, we are talking about the norms people follow, whether they follow them overtly or not. When someone refers to their culture, they are referring to the rules they follow, consciously or subconsciously, to affirm their norms and beliefs.

The transactional factors are referred to by components 5-11 and A. These factors are concerned with the organisation's day-to-day activities and, concerning change, deal with continuous improvement. They are evolutionary and selective in character.

Systems

Systems are concerned with rules and procedures that are meant to help and assist individuals of an organisation with the duties of their jobs and roles.

According to Burke (2002), "climate" refers to the collective views of those who are a part of the same work unit.

The necessary skills and capabilities of each worker

This term refers to the degree to which an individual's knowledge, skills, and talents match up with the needs of their work, position, and duties, as well as the requirements of the job they now hold.

Individual requirements and priorities

This is concerned with the degree to which one's needs are addressed on the work and the degree to which what the individual member of the organisation considers to be valued is congruent with what the organisation stands for. Two aspects significantly affect motivation: the requirements of the work and the individual's wants and values.

Motivation

People are born with an innate capacity for motivation. Motivation is the outcome when specific wants are brought to the forefront, and those needs are allowed to remain in the forefront until they are satisfied to

some degree. Because of this, it is essential to keep in mind that the objectives that are significant for the organisation also match the requirements of the person.

performance on both an individual and organisational level

It refers to the consequences and results of all actions that react to the external environment. More specifically, it is the output of such activities (input).

In the change model proposed by Burke and Litwin, the planned change process moves from the top (the external environment) to the bottom (performance). The arrows that point in a downward direction are given less serious consideration. As a result, the external environment has the most significant influence on the transformation that an organisation undergoes. The transformative variables have the most significant effect on the organisation from the inside out. The paradigm proposes that the influence of the external environment on leadership occurs in reverse order. These are the top executives and key decision-makers who establish the organisation's purpose and strategy, who are responsible for bringing about change in any of these areas, and who help to form, at least in part, the organisation's culture.

The Burke-Litwin model is implemented via a diagnostic questionnaire consisting of one hundred fifty questions. This allows for a chance to differentiate between the transformational and transactional aspects that need long-term and short-

term attention. This model has the potential to be considered a diagnostic content model of organisational performance and change. The word "content" refers to the organisation's long-term connection to its environment, which determines its overall purpose, character, and direction (Armenakis and Bedeian, 1999).

According to Burke and Trahant (2000), the change process is no longer linear or progressive; instead, it is fast, discontinuous, and exponential in its nature and effect. As Burke and Trahant (2000) put it, "witnessing the multiplier effects and quantum leaps in how business is conducted, as technology reduces international capital transfers to computer keystrokes, as it connects markets (both mature and emerging) in instantaneous, never-before-imagined ways." In other words, we are currently "witnessing the multiplier effects and quantum leaps in how business is conducted, as technology reduces international capital transfers to computer keystrokes."

In addition to the rapid development of new technologies, other factors have led to a radical redrawing of how business is conducted. These factors include turbulence in emerging economies, business consolidation in many industries, political instability in many countries, and scientific discoveries such as nanotechnologies and cloning. These factors have paved the way for the generation of unexpected business opportunities as well as unprecedented business volatility. Since chaos and convergence have

become the norm in our lives in recent years, businesses frequently seek out partnerships or restructure themselves in order to address factors such as shifting capital flows, changing customer demands, and the need to find new markets for their products. It is also possible to notice the phenomena of convergence, which refers to the blurring of borders between different industries that were previously considered to exist separately.

Burke and Trahant came up with the idea of "Business Climate Modeling" as a reaction to such circumstances. The purpose of this concept is to analyse the significant factors present in the contemporary hyper-dynamic business environment. According to the findings of these studies (Burke and Trahant), the fundamental ideas underpinning the practice of business climate modelling include the following:

1. In the current climate for conducting business, a corporation has to be ready to embrace chaos, or at the very least, "bounded instability," in its industry, the global economy, and its marketplace as an inevitable aspect of doing business.

2. The world's current economy is in a state of flux, defined by a continual state of development and expansion, characterised by both gradual change and long-term systematic transformation.

3. The present is interrelated and interconnected; examples include nations, markets, money, businesses, and consumers. Therefore, to grasp the dynamics at work in today's economic climate,

     one needs to adopt a meteorological perspective on the situation.

4. In the long term, a person will perish if they think linearly.

5. There is no value in establishing hierarchies. Creating an organisation built for speed and for consumers should be the primary emphasis of the work being done.

6. Organisations need to cultivate what is known as "organisational intelligence" on the dynamic and ever-changing nature of the business settings in which they operate.

7. There is a movement occurring in the corporate world away from a focus on "transactions" and toward an emphasis on "value-added" relationships with clients.

8. In the current climate, most goods and services are transformed into commodities. Customer service emerges as the sole genuine and enduring differentiation (Burke and Trahant). Companies that conform to the business model outlined above are what Burke and Trahant refer to as being 'change competent.'

These individuals are competent in business and have the organisational resources necessary to continually adjust themselves in response to changing situations in the business world and the market arena. According to Burke and Trahant (2000), change-capable organisations also do the following:

o Use market volatility conditions to develop best practices, promote organisational learning, and harness knowledge of consumers and rivals.

o Permit "service to consumers" to Serve as the Primary Driver of Their Organisational Structure

o In order to effectively drive change efforts, we will need to use the attributes of both charismatic and instrumental leadership.

o Make it a priority to foster a culture where collaboration among coworkers is highly valued.

o When monitoring and evaluating the change's effectiveness, use various measures.

o Demonstrate an ability to effectively manage both the quantitative (metrics and objectives) and qualitative (people and performance) parts of change programmes.

o Make sure there is a cohesive relationship between the people, the systems, and the technology.

o Ensure that staff are aware of the change's impact on them.

o Formulate employment contracts with workers that are clear and transparent on both sides in order to guarantee that we have the motivated staff necessary for success. Burke and Trahant (2000).

INTEGRATION OF CHANGE MODELS

It is impossible to gain a comprehensive or integrated understanding of the organisational change process

from either of these perspectives taken individually or together. Such an understanding would be helpful for managers who find themselves in the position of either planning or implementing change.

Because effective consulting for organisational change must place equal emphasis on process and content, the organisational frameworks presented in the following pages contribute to a more applied manner of integrating the content (that is, what should be changed) aspects of organisational change. These models have their origins in theory and research as well as in the practices of change consulting. The following is a list of some of the integrated change models:

Leavitt's Organisational Systems Model

Harold Leavitt (1965) presented his diamond-shaped model of organisational systems with the assumption that organisations are interconnected multivariate systems. This model was based on the idea that organisations are hierarchical. In his opinion, the best way to analyse change is to focus intently on the four primary aspects comprising it: the job, the people, the technology, and the structure. Leavitt meant to imply that the organisation's objective, such as delivering a service or creating a product, was referred to as the "job." People included all the persons responsible for carrying out the work. Within an organisation, the terms "workflow," "decision-making authority," "communications," and so on are examples of some of the subcomponents that are implied by the terms

"workflow" and "structure." Technology refers to a wide variety of tools, machines, information technology and computers, among other things.

On the other hand, Leavitt's (1965) model did not fully accept the open-system perspective of the organisation; it just portrayed the transformation process and did not take into account or explain the input and output that occur in organisational systems.

The following models take the organisation as an open system and reflect an integration of both the content and the process of organisational transformation.

Model of Congruence Developed by Nadler and Tushman

This model was presented by Nadler and Tushman (1977) and was based on the following assumptions:

- ➢ The reality of organisations functioning as open systems
- ➢ Due to the nature of open systems, organisations are susceptible to the external environment and impact it via the products they produce.

As a result, it is possible to comprehend the model as consisting of three components: the inputs, the throughput or the transformational process, and the outputs.

Inputs Nadler and Tushman (1977) defined four inputs to the organisation, assuming that the inputs to an organisational system are mainly stable. These four inputs are as follows:

- ❖ The Environment

- ❖ The organisation's available resources
- ❖ The organisation's past (history)
- ❖ The strategies that were first devised and have been modified through time

These inputs into the organisation not only operate as limitations and chances for action but also as an explanation for the behaviour of individuals who are members of the organisation. The components of the input have been broken down into the following categories:

1. The Nadler-Tushman model divides the environment into two categories: the major parent systems and the rest of the outer world. These include laws imposed by the government, competition from other businesses, and the market in general.

2. The term "Resources" refers to cash, raw materials, people, technology, and other aspects such as a business name, logo, and brand, all of which have the potential to have a premium value in the market.

3. The history of the organisation is a significant variable to consider when attempting to gain an understanding of an organisation because it has a direct impact on the types of employees the company employs as well as the recruitment practices used to fill open positions, as well as the policies and decision-making approaches used.

4. The term "Strategy" refers to selecting how the organisation's resources are to be employed most effectively within the framework of the organisation to ensure that it functions efficiently. Both aspects of the strategy are finding possibilities in one's surroundings and evaluating one's organisation's resources to determine how best to take advantage of those opportunities. According to Nadler and Tushman (1977), every organisation employs different tactics. Nevertheless, it makes a difference whether things were done on purpose and are formal or if they were done unintentionally and are informal.

Outputs

Outputs have been divided up by Nadler and Tushman (1977) into four categories: system functioning, group behaviour, inter-group interactions, and individual behaviour and impacts. The success of an organisation in achieving its intended objectives, making effective use of its resources, and successfully adapting over time to changing environmental conditions are three ways in which its system's functionality may be evaluated. The other outputs are behavioural and are connected to the following: • the performance of groups and units within the organisation • the extent of communication, differences, conflict resolution, and cooperation within these units

• The actions of the person about turnover, absenteeism, and excellent performance.

Throughputs

People, tasks and occupations, management structures, and all the interrelationships between individuals, groups, and subsystems are the four critical components that make up the throughput or transformation process. This is the process through which inputs are transformed into outputs.

The idea of being consistent or similar.

In their model presentation, Nadler and Tushman (1977) went beyond just describing the components and interactions of the model to include the idea of "fit." "fit" is defined as "the measure of the congruence between pairs of inputs and particularly between the components of the transformation process," according to Burke (2002). (p.186). In addition, Nadler and Tushman argued that inconsistent fits between any pair would lead to less than ideal performance regarding both the organisation and the person. They said this would be the case even if the organisation and individual matched perfectly. They hypothesised that the more appropriate the fit, the higher the organisation's efficiency would be. They proceeded with the following three diagnostic steps:

1) Identification of the System: The next step is to determine if the organisation in question is independent, a subsidiary, a division, or a component of another, more comprehensive structure. In addition, it entails considering the system's borders, memberships, duties, and interaction with the other units of the system.

2) Explaining the nature of the essential factors includes information regarding the size of the inputs and components and the kind of intended outputs.

3) Evaluation of the level of physical fitness: The most critical stage consists of identifying fits between components and the relationships between the fits and the organisation's outputs. These are two activities that are tied to one another. A substantial amount of data collection and analysis is required to identify how components should be fitted together. Change agents need to focus on the result of the diagnosis of the fits between various components and the behavioural ramifications of those fits on the set of behaviours associated with outputs to diagnose the latter. This assists in identifying specific significant organisational issues, and resolving these problems causes changes in the system. Following these changes, the system is monitored and assessed using the feedback loop.

The model has been criticised based on the following grounds, even though it is both comprehensive and complex:

✓ No measures have been proposed for assessing the congruence, the level of congruence, or the degree of desirability.

✓ The organisational aspects have not been weighted based on their importance.

✓ The congruence has not been determined.

Weisbord's Six Box Model

Marvin Weisbord (1976) presented the six-box model, which emphasises the organisation as a whole. He also supports evaluating an organisation from official and informal points of view. The external world is shown in Fig. 3.12 by the circle that surrounds the boxes and contains them all. He advised against focusing an excessive amount of attention on any one specific box. The input and output representations are shown by the arrows that point in both directions. According to Weisbord (1976), it is critical to have an understanding of both the organisation's formal system (the structure) and its informal system (the culture). As a result, each of the six boxes has both an informal and an official side to it. For instance, the structure may be represented officially using an organisational chart of power and responsibility, while the network might serve as the structure's informal component.

Similarly, the authority may take the shape of formal structures, such as the organisation chart, or it may be in the form of unwritten norms. Weisbord emphasised the importance of the gap between the formal and the informal. He advocated for action to close the gap (the action itself represented the process side) so that the organisation might work more efficiently. Each of these boxes in the model aims to provide questions that will help identify the problem. The boxes have outlined the aims, structures, incentives, helping processes, and linkages.

When it comes to the organisation's mission, how well do the members understand what the organisation is trying to accomplish? How strongly do they believe in the organisation's ability to accomplish its goals?

Relationships

Weisbord spoke about connections in three different contexts: between people, those within and among departments, divisions, and groups, and those between a person and his or her work. He placed a strong emphasis on the quality of these connections, which are necessary before the models can be used to manage and resolve conflict.

Structure

This aspect examines how well the organisation's internal structure fulfils its objective and whether or not it is adequate for the purpose.

Facilitating apparatuses

This is to determine which of the organisation's processes and procedures assist the organisation's members in carrying out their job and which hinder the members' ability to carry out their work.

Rewards

Is there a disconnect between the organisation's official rewards and punishments, on the one hand, and what the members of the organisation genuinely feel they are being awarded or punished for, on the other?

Leadership

The leader's primary duty is to keep an eye on and monitor how well all of the boxes are operating while

also ensuring a healthy level of equilibrium between them. The model has two strengths: first, it gives leadership, which represents the coordinating function, the importance it deserves, and second, it is helpful for organisations that are less sophisticated in terms of their systemic thinking and the more considerable complexities of organisational dynamics. Both of these strengths contribute to the model's overall effectiveness.

On the other hand, the model developed by Weisbord has been criticised concerning the following points:

- ⁜ The model oversimplifies things; in reality, organisations are far more complicated than can be captured by only six different categories, and the model reflects this simplification.
- ⁜ Insufficiency: A more complex model is required to represent deeper and more nuanced diagnoses adequately.
- ⁜ The explanations of the links between "purposes" and other boxes, including exceptions to the relationships and structure, are insufficient.

Tichy's TPC (Technical, Political, Cultural) Framework

The paradigm developed by Tichy (1983) places a strong emphasis on organisational reform. Tichy's model is distinguished from other models by the 'TPC' framework, which comprises the technical, political, and cultural aspects he has included in the model. The three fundamental systems that contain and cut across the nine levers explored later are known as the technical, political, and cultural systems.

According to Tichy, these three fundamental systems are the dominating systems necessary for grasping organisations in general and organisational transformation in particular. The cultural system offers shared values and standards, often known as "cognitive schemes," while the political system symbolises power dynamics. The technical system, founded on scientific evidence, has a highly logical viewpoint (Tichy). According to him, change management is widespread across the framework, and attempting to deal with just one or two of these systems simultaneously would harm the organisation's performance and effectiveness.

Within the confines of this structure, he has proposed nine different change levers, including the external environment of the organisation (which serves as an input), the organisation's mission and strategy (which serve as a single entity within this model), the involvement of relevant interest groups, The task (new tasks as a consequence of change), the prescribed networks (that is, the organisation's formal structure), the organisational processes (communication, problem-solving, and decision making), the people, and the emergent networks (that is, the organisation's informal structure) (cf.Burke, 2002). Therefore, according to this model, the efficiency of an organisation is dependent not only on the features of these levers but also on their interrelationships and the degree to which these components are aligned with the organisation's operating system.

The 6 x 3 TPC matrix provides a complete paradigm for diagnosing organisational change. This matrix focuses on juxtaposing the change levers with the organisational systems. For diagnostics, data are gathered for each cell that makes up the matrix (Fig. 3.13). The information gleaned from the data obtained for each cell needs to illuminate the degree of shift essential for correct alignment. The alignment occurs inside a system as one travels across the matrix but across systems as one travels down the matrix. According to Tichy (1983), for effective change, these systems and levers need to be aligned with one another and with one another with each other.

During the organisational study, it was discovered that Tichy's model ignores the people dimension and the related challenges, even though it provides crucial components for conceptualising and executing change throughout the organisation. On the other hand, Tichy has admitted to glossing over the psychological components of transformation.

The Model for Handling Change Management

An integrated viewpoint is provided by the Managing Change Model (Burke, 1988; Burke and Spencer, 1990; Burke et al., 1991, 1993), which Burke developed. This framework integrates the beneficial aspects of many different theoretical viewpoints. It takes into account the significant factors that are a part of determining how successful the change process as a whole is. The following characteristics make up the model's dimensions:

❖ The individual's reaction to change, namely the nature, prevalence, and value of change-resistance.

❖ The overarching nature of change, specifically whether successful large-scale system change is more revolutionary or evolutionary, and the typical patterns characterise attempts to affect change inside organisations.

❖ Planning change includes discussing the factors that lead to changes in organisational culture, formulating a clear vision for the organisation's future, determining how to go from the present to the future, and identifying impediments to making smooth transitions.

❖ Managing the people aspects of change, including how, when, and to what extent members of the organisation should communicate with the change, as well as the psychological challenges associated with the shift.

❖ Managing the organisational aspects of change, including concerns about the design and structural aspects of initiatives to effect systemic and long-term change

❖ Analyzing the change effort, paying particular attention to indications of the success of the change attempt

A Model for the Dynamic Processes Involved in the Intentional Alteration of an Organisation

This model was first conceived of by Porras (1987), and it was then refined further by Porras and Silvers (1991),

as well as Porras and Robertson (1992). They presented a model on planned change after doing a literature assessment on organisational growth and change. The model provided a method of organisation-wide transformation. Their model starts with organisational interventions, which are what affect specific variables. These, in turn, have an effect on individual behaviour, which, in turn, improves the organisation's performance and promotes the person's development. This model was re-cast in terms of change processes; however, it was based on an older model developed by Porras.

The organisational context may be broken down into four vital interconnected subsystems, and they are as follows:

- o Organising Arrangements are the formal components of the organisation that offer the essential coordination and control for the organisation's activities. They are also referred to as "the organising arrangements."
- o Social Factors: These include the qualities of the organisation's members, the patterns and procedures by which they interact with one another, and the organisation's culture.
- o Technology: This category includes elements directly connected to the process through which an organisation's inputs are converted into outputs.

- o The physical setting is the qualities of the actual environment in which organisational action takes place. This is referred to as the "setting."

Porras and Robertson (1992) did more research on this model and expanded it by describing the process as happening in three stages:

i. Because the organisation provides the context or work setting within which individuals behave, appropriate changes in this context will lead individuals to change their behaviour;

ii. These individual behavioural changes impact organisation performance, individual development, and the key outcomes of the organisation;

iii. Because the organisation provides the context or work setting within which individuals behave, appropriate changes in this context will lead individuals to change their behaviour.

In the updated model, they asserted that for organisational change to take place, members of the organisation must adjust their behaviour while they are on the job in appropriate ways. This was done based on the belief that behaviour is significantly influenced by the characteristics of the environments in which it takes place (Porras & Robertson, 1992, p.724). The process of organisational transformation was shown in the current model in a clear and linear way. The first step in the process is an intervention intended to affect an organisation's vision, purpose,

and mission or an intervention directed at modifying elements of the work environment. These interventions affect the members' cognitive processes and mental sets, which may be at single or numerous levels, referred to as alpha, beta, or gamma. This ultimately results in changes in behaviour, which in turn leads to increased performance as well as enhanced individual development. The term "alpha change" refers to an observable and quantifiable shift in an existing state; "beta change" refers to an altered perspective on this change; and "gamma change" refers to a quantum shift in the way a particular occurrence is conceptualised (Van Tonder, 2004).

In their meta-analytic study, Robertson and Seneviratne (1995) evaluated the impact of planned change interventions on seven categories of organisational variables and compared the outcomes of planned organisational change in the public and private sectors. They did this by using the initial model developed by Porras.

Their results imply that organisational change interventions in the public and private sectors are similar. That performance in organisations might be enhanced by implementing planned organisational change. However, it was more challenging to execute change in organisations that were part of the public sector.

The Punctuated Equilibrium Model is being discussed here.

At the close of the last century, the punctuated equilibrium model of organisational change emerged as a primary theoretical framework for characterising and researching organisational change in its most fundamental meaning. This model was developed to investigate how organisations evolve through time. According to the Blackwell Encyclopedic Dictionary of Organisational Behaviour (1995), the study of biological evolution is where the concept of "punctuated equilibrium" may be found. Natural historians Niles Eldredge and Stephen Gould (1972) established and posited the notion of punctuated equilibrium as an alternative to the prevalent Darwinian gradualist theory of evolution. They did so to demonstrate that evolution does not occur linearly.

In her article, Gersick (1991) compared models from six different domains, including adult (Levinson, 1978, 1986), group (Gersick, 1988, 1989), organisational development (Tushman and Romanelli, 1985), history of science (Kuhn, 1970), biological evolution (Gould, 1980, 1989), and physical science (Prigogine and Stengers, 1984). The purpose of this comparison was to explain the punctuated equilibrium paradigm and show its broad applicability. She presented the following similarities that may be seen across these six different hypotheses, which together make up an overarching model of punctuated equilibrium.

✓ According to Gersick's theory, the evolution of systems occurs in bursts, followed by periods of equilibrium since the underlying structures only

enable gradual change. Again, it is followed by revolutionary times that usher in a significant change to the underlying systems. The model predicts that there would be times of equilibrium interspersed with periods of revolution. This pattern is referred to as "punctuated equilibrium."

✓ In order to differentiate punctuated equilibrium models from traditional systems, Gersick summed up the similarities once more by emphasising the fact that systems have a unique history, which does not subscribe to evolution through a gradual blending from one state to the next. This highlighted that traditional systems are not punctuated equilibrium models. Additionally, it is not always the case that they progress from lower to higher states/stages or arrive at definitive conclusions.

✓ Gersick concluded that a shared fundamental structure underpins human systems after finding commonalities between the six hypotheses. A network of basic "choices" that are interrelated forms the basis for the deep structure of an organisation and the departments that make up that organisation. Therefore, in addition to preserving the configuration (structure) of the organisation, the deep structure also negotiates resource exchanges with the surrounding environment.

✓ Gersick highlights the phenomenon of equilibrium or inertia maintained by deep structures to preserve themselves against internal and external disturbances and to exercise their choice later to move along a chosen path incrementally to adjust to the environment. • While explaining further commonalities among the six theories, Gersick discusses the phenomenon of equilibrium or inertia maintained by deep structures. The six ideas mentioned above have also accounted for revolutions that lasted for very short amounts of time. Different terms, such as transition periods, radical reorientations, and bifurcation, have been used to refer to these occurrences. During these phases, the system's underlying structure will collapse, and a new underlying structure will be developed. The phase will conclude with the group reaching a consensus on some definite objective that will serve as the foundation for going ahead. The amplitude of revolutions varies, and it is impossible to forecast their results since they are determined by the interplay of the historical resources of the systems with the current events, which may or may not be relevant. Revolutions may also have unintended consequences.

While discussing the punctuated equilibrium model of organisational transformation, Romanelli and Tushman (1994) highlighted that organisations transition via relatively lengthy periods of stability

(equilibrium periods), interspersed with very brief times of discontinuous change (revolutionary periods). The latter significantly shakes up previously established operating patterns and provides the groundwork for new times of balance.

Theorists who propound the theory of "punctuated equilibrium" assume that the normal state of activity in an organisation is to maintain equilibrium to fulfil the primary purpose of their research, which is to predict the patterns of fundamental organisational transformation. An initial pattern of activity is established for organisations based on the prevalent environmental conditions at the time of their founding and the initial managerial decisions made at that time. In due time, inertial forces started to set in within the organisation, along with the forces of institutionalisation. This caused the organisation to develop coherent systems of shared understandings that support the continuation of the established state that was already there. However, it is a well-known fact that organisations exist in a dynamic environment, and the history of the majority of organisations has recorded occasional punctuations caused by dramatic exogenous shocks. This is something that has been documented throughout their existence. These include profound advancements in technological know-how, turbulence in the social and political landscape, significant alterations in the regulatory framework of governments, and market and financial collapses. These environmental punctuations aid in lowering the

demands of organisational inertia, and they also affect the dispositions of organisations to change and continue to exist after the change.

This phenomenon is explained by the punctuated equilibrium model of organisational transformation, which emphasizes a radical and discontinuous change in most or all of the organisation's activities. This change aims to break the strong inertia that has gripped the organisation. In their research, Romanelli and Tushman (1994) postulated the following, which provides us with a short description of the model. Their attempt was to experimentally verify the organisational transition as a punctuated equilibrium, which they had previously proposed.

According to them, most organisational changes are brief and discontinuous, including all critical aspects of an organisation's work. Nevertheless, a fundamental shift in an organisation cannot be brought about by a collection of little adjustments throughout its many departments and functions. The likelihood of a revolutionary shift rises if there is a significant drop in performance over a short time or where there has been a continuous drop in performance over the years. It is believed that the same thing would happen when significant shifts in the external environment exist. Revolutionary change has also been associated with selecting a new chief executive officer (CEO). Nevertheless, suppose a new order does not take charge relatively quickly. In that case, the entrenched interests currently prevalent in the organisation will

obstruct the transition process, and the organisation will revert to its previous form.

They studied the activities of 25 companies that manufactured minicomputers and had their beginnings in the United States between 1967 and 1969. Their research was based on public documents and the life histories of the companies. According to the findings of the investigation carried out by the researchers, organisational change most usually takes place following the patterns that the punctuated equilibrium model outlines. From their point of view, the likelihood of a revolutionary transformation occurring within an organisation is significantly increased when both the environmental conditions and the organisation's CEO have been recently changed. They concluded that revolutionary transformation is the mode of fundamental change used most frequently.

CHAPTER-V
IMPLEMENTING ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

INTRODUCTION

A change project is not considered successful until it has been adequately implemented, and the process of putting change into action is a problem in and of itself that accompanies any change endeavour. When it comes to successfully implementing management ideas and practices like strategic planning, change management, business process re-engineering, total quality management, and architecture development, all geared toward improving the organisation's performance, there is much room for improvement. Given that around one-half to two-thirds of all organisational change projects fail (Maurer, 1996), one of the most critical issues we need to ask ourselves is whether or not we can implement significant organisational change. When doing an in-depth literature study of organisational change, it is common to conclude that there is a gap between the strategic aim (that is, the management parts of the change process) and the actual execution of the change.

The topics that are discussed throughout the strategic writings include "understanding what the antecedents of the change are, to ensure the right equilibrium between the organisation's strategies, structure and processes in the environment in which they operate at a specific period" (Miles and Snow, 1984), "understanding the transformation processes, leadership issues, and the action perspective of change" (Kanter et al., 1992; Wilson 1992), and "the ways an organisation may have" (Kanter (Egan, 1995).

Literature published in the 1990s about change management focused on programmes such as total quality management (TQM) and business process re-engineering (BPR), which generated an immense study. On the other hand, they were criticised for their selective and "programmed" handling of "how" change takes place or should take place. These are deficient in their approach to dealing with the processes and results side of change, which has been proven to be a problem. Recent studies have criticised several programmes, including Total Quality Management (TQM) and Business Process Reengineering (BPR), because they lack, among other things, originality, tangibility, strategic approaches, and learning.

The body of research on the organisational change also includes works on how to deal with change and the kind of individual proficiency that is required to deal with change in various roles of leading, managing, or participating in the change process as it occurs in the dynamic cultural, behavioural, or environmental

contexts. In addition, the body of research on the organisational change also includes works on adapting to change. These works deal with change (Buchanan and Boddy, 1992; Quinn et al., 1990). Buchanan and Huczynski (1997) recognised the existence of three distinct approaches to managing the implementation phase of the change process. These approaches include change implementation as a project, the participative approach to implementing change, and the contingency approach. This discovery was made while the authors reviewed organisational change and development fields.

The traditional approaches of change management based on life cycles have been included in the change's project design. The participatory management approach comprises progressive modes and consultative strategies in change implementation (Cicmil, 1999). When addressing change implementation, the contingency method is a radical strategy that considers factors such as the degree of change and the change leadership style (Dunphy and Stace, as cited in Buchanan and Huczynski, 1997). However, it is essential to be aware that in order to execute the planned change initiatives successfully, the organisation must have a comprehensive grasp of the "what's," "whys," and "hows" of change. This understanding must be a component of the implementation strategy. The 'why' refers to the knowledge that management and members of the organisation have regarding the ultimate goal for

which the process of change has been initiated, the reasons behind the need for change, and the benefits of change for the department and the organisation, as well as the performance and morale of the people in general. The 'what' of change refers to aspects such as the aims of the change process and the tangible and intangible effects that are to be anticipated as a consequence of the change efforts. More specifically, it is to know how much of what is being changed and when it will be changed. The 'how' refers to the capacity of the change agent to create the sequence of the change initiatives, actions, and processes, as well as the ability to use the organisational members' expertise to go from the present state to the one that is wanted. The change process is often impeded by the existence of gaps between the "what" and the "how," which define the scope of the change. In addition, variables like resistance to change, sluggish learning, and quick forgetting must be taken into account and addressed head-on to guarantee a successful implementation of the change.

Cicmil (1999: 128) describes this as the primary concern of an organisation facing business challenges. He states that this is "…… the ability of leaders and managers to define and communicate the tangible and measurable deliverable/objectives of a change project from the start….. the WHAT aspect of the initiative the HOW aspect- participation for the accomplishment of those objectives, and the WHY aspect of the change project."

A study was conducted by Arthur D. Little (ADL) Inc. to determine the most common drivers of change, essential implementation variables, and obstacles to transformation. According to the research findings, two essential variables that actively impact the implementation of organisational transformation are having a clear vision and the active engagement of senior management (cf. Stout 1994). They also discovered that the most significant obstacle to the effective implementation of change was the members of the organisation's lack of commitment to the process. Another obstacle discovered in the process of implementing change was the lack of advocates from high management. It was determined that the most significant aspect of practical change efforts was the existence of a clear vision or aim that conveys what the organisation is attempting to do. This highlights the need for people of the organisation to understand why the proposed change is necessary and how the management plans to execute the change efforts. They also discovered that having a quantifiable aim, a manageable programme, and a critical result were all elements that contributed to the effective implementation of a change. Howes and Quinn (1978) have summarised the literature on organisational change, focusing on the features and characteristics associated with implementing change programmes effectively. They have also outlined twelve strategic management change levers.

Many theorists have put forth models, frameworks, and approaches describing how an organisation should implement change. From among all of them, the following ones have been selected for further explanation:

The Delta Technique

The delta approach was developed by Armstrong (1982) and is based on Lewin's concept of the change process with its three stages. The method emphasises the unfreezing stage, during which it is critical to devote significant time and effort to assist the person in unfreezing themselves. The person is prompted to review his or her present beliefs during the unfreezing phase of the change process. This is done because change efforts may result in conflicts between the individual's current behaviour patterns and the change initiatives themselves. The person needs to cultivate some level of scepticism about the efficacy of his or her current mode of operation and actively look for data that contradicts this belief for the unfreezing process to be effective. However, individuals do not seek negative feedback; instead, they look for data that supports the opinions they already hold. They behave irrationally when they see that disconfirming data is being forced or shoved onto them. As a result, the change attempts backfire, ultimately reinforcing their existing views.

The goal of the delta approach is to combat this behaviour by motivating and pushing the person to deliberately seek out negative feedback and data that

contradicts their beliefs. The person is also urged to recommend alternatives to the methods in which he or she now does business and specify the necessary information to adopt the alternative way of doing business. The person receives assistance from the agent of change in gathering such information. In the phase that is analogous to the changing phase of Lewin's change model, the delta technique suggests that the change agent assists the individual in developing a low-risk approach to change in such a way that the individual feels that he or she is in control of the change process. This is done to give the individual the impression that he or she controls the change process. The primary responsibility of a change agent is to provide emotional and intellectual support to individuals to facilitate their transition to new behaviours.

Once the change has been implemented successfully, and the refreezing phase of the process has begun, the change agent is responsible for ensuring that the person provides frequent feedback on the change. The transformation may also be supported by a certain level of feedback and incentive, and the process may also include a certain degree of organisational reorganisation.

In a nutshell, the following actions are included as part of the efforts made by the agent of change to bring about the desired changes in the behaviour of individuals:

1. identify the issue (s)

The person receives assistance from the change agent in the areas of issue perception as well as problem definitions in such a manner that the problem(s) are presented in various ways. The change agent may inquire with the client about the definitions, which will, in turn, assist the customer in gaining a better understanding of their position. While the problem is being defined, the change agents may also provide their thoughts and perspectives on the issues at hand (s). The word "client" may refer to any persons and organisations impacted by implementing change efforts.

2. Identifying more potential solutions to the issue at hand (s)

The change agent works with the customers to brainstorm potential solutions to the identified issue (s). It is essential to have a solid understanding that the customer is the primary source of the solutions, and the change agent must assist. There are scenarios where the customers believe that their current pattern of behaviour is the most effective course of action. In the circumstances like these, the agent of change has to persuade the customer to try out one or more different approaches to the problem. Because the change agent is a member of the management team in the majority of situations, the management team's role shifts from being the defender of the existing solution to being the "generator of future solutions" as a result of the change agent's

contribution to the generation of alternatives (Armstrong, 1982), the circumstance might be seen as confirming alternate options as well, rather than only disconfirming the one that's being used (s).

Armstrong (1982) suggested a three-step process: experimentation, involvement, and feedback. This is because for change to be effective, people who will be impacted by it need to feel like they are in charge.

3. Experimenting with different levels of engagement

The attempt to make a change should not be pushed on others; instead, it should be described as an experimental endeavour. Experimenting also helps reduce risk as it minimises the scope of change and introduces a deadline or time limit in bringing about change. This puts the expertise of the change agent to the test, as the experiment needs to be designed so that it makes sense to the participants and provides the opportunity to assess the possible solution(s) rationally. Experimenting also puts the expertise of the change agent to the test, as it puts the expertise of the change agent to the test.

Participation gives people a sense that they are in charge of their environment, making decision-making and implementing change simpler, more efficient, and more likely to be successful. Participation in the process of using the delta approach entails not only the client's identifying the evidence that they believe adequate to adapt to an alternate solution, but it also requires active listening.

4. Feedback

The client can monitor the amount of work being put into the experiment, and they are given a feeling of control over when the experiment will end, thanks to feedback. The feedback should include a summary of the successes and failures experienced by each alternative solution during the series of trials conducted using the delta approach. The modification process may often be refrozen with the assistance of positive feedback (Armstrong, 1982).

The delta approach helps determine possible areas for change and put some beneficial adjustments into effect. It is suitable for the circumstance in which management recognises a problem but in which the intended adjustments directly oppose the prevailing ideas (Armstrong, 1982). The method, however, is of little benefit in situations involving newly hired workers, jobs that only last a short time, or settings in which group norms have not been formed. Additionally, to use the delta methodology, there must first be consensus on the problem's formulation, and this method does not include brainstorming or brainstorming sessions.

Circumstances in which a shift in direction is compatible with how an organisation views its goals and objectives (Armstrong and Johnson, 1982)

The following is a concise description of a selection of the models that various theorists and academics have presented as potential paths for change agents to pursue while carrying out change.
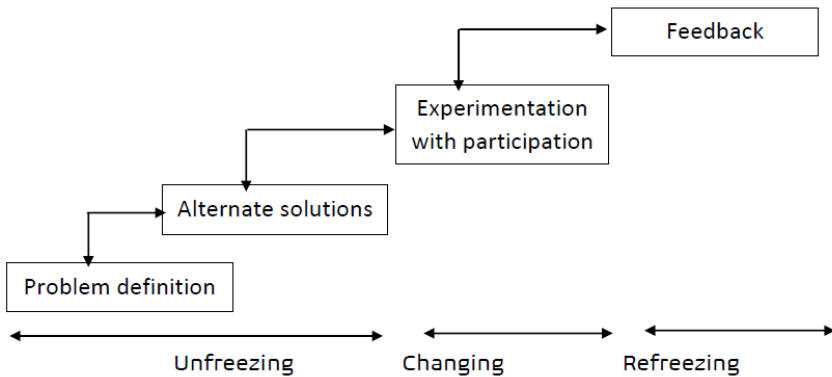
Fig 5.1 The Delta Technique

In the model that Judson (1991) proposed, implementing change is broken into five stages. These include the analysis and planning of the change, the communication of the change, the acquisition of acceptability of new behaviours, the transition from the status quo to the desired state, and the consolidation and institutionalisation of the new state. Judson (1991), while discussing the predictable reactions to change and the change agents' efforts to minimise and overcome resistance to change, asserted that the use of alternative media, reward programmes, bargaining, and persuasion as potential methods to tackle unwanted reactions. Judson (1991) also discussed the predictable reactions to change and the change agents' efforts to minimise and overcome resistance to change.

In his article titled "Leading change: why transformation efforts fail," Kotter (1995) asserted

that the fundamental goal behind processes such as TQM, BPR, right-sizing, restructuring, cultural change, and turnaround is to "make fundamental changes in how business is conducted in order to cope with a new, more challenging market environment" (p. 59). According to him, the procedure for effecting change involves going through several stages, each of which takes a tremendous amount of time (Kotter, 1995). In order to achieve fundamental changes and transform organisations, he outlined eight stages that change agents might use to accomplish these goals. He warned that missing any of the procedures would lead to issues and that making significant errors in any of the phases may lead to catastrophic effects, reducing momentum and undoing hard-won gains. These stages are as follows:

Creating a Sense of Urgency Establishing a Powerful Guiding Coalition Creating a Vision Communicating the Vision Empowering Others to Act on the Vision Planning for and Creating Short-Term Wins Consolidating Improvements and Producing Still More Change Institutionalising New Approaches Establishing a Sense of Urgency Establishing a Sense of Ur (Kotter, 1995)

In Galpin's (1996) attempt to sketch out effective change implementation in an organisation, he offered a nine-step model to emphasise the relevance of an organisation's culture. This was done as part of his effort to draw out successful change implementation. One way to think of Galpin's approach is as a wheel,

with each of the nine stages functioning as one of the nine wedges on the wheel. Establishing the need for change, developing and disseminating a vision of a planned change, diagnosing and analysing the current situations, generating recommendations, detailing the recommendations, pilot testing the recommendations, preparing the recommendations for rollout, rolling out the recommendations, and measuring, reinforcing, and refining the change are the components that make up the change management process.

Armenakis et al. (1999) combined the work of Lewin (1947) and Bandura's (1986) social learning theory in their research, which resulted in the development of two different models. The first model considered the preparedness for change (which needed to be produced to minimise opposition). In contrast, the second model emphasised the facilitation of adopting and institutionalising the change that was wanted (s). Both of these models strongly emphasised the need to effectively communicate the need for change to those who stand to be directly impacted by it in the hopes that these individuals would become change agents. The models emphasised that for a message to be compelling, it should incorporate the following components: discrepancy (that is, the need to change), self-efficacy (that is, the credibility to ensure successful change), personal valence (that is, changing is in the best interest of the individual), principal support (that is, support from those who are affected

by the change), and appropriateness (that is, the change is suitable for the organisation).

In addition, the researchers provided several beneficial tactics as suggestions for conveying the change signals. These include persuasive communication (such as speeches given by change agents and articles published in employee newsletters), active participation by the population that is being affected (such as vicarious learning, participative decision making, and enactive mastery), human resource management practices (such as selection, performance appraisal, compensation, and training and development programmes), symbolic activities (such as rites and ceremonies), and diffusion practices (such as best practice programmes and transition teams) (such as new organisational structures and revised job descriptions).

In 2004, Acey provided the following vital takeaways that should be kept in mind when discussing the effective implementation of change. These include a clear understanding of goals and objectives (which includes stating the obvious and asking apparent questions); identifying the resource, time, and quality triangle (which means that for a project to be completed to an agreed level of quality, either or both the number of resources and the duration of the project can be varied); handling supplier issues (while deciding on new systems and technology, the product's reliability and utility must be deeply considered and investigated to determine whether or

not it will meet the needs of the organisation); and ensuring.

SKILLS FOR MANAGING CHANGE

One of the most effective strategies to thrive in a globally competitive and ever-shifting environment across all industries is to discover, nurture, and use the adaptability-related abilities of the individuals working inside an organisation to maximise its chances of success. Therefore, competencies are the foundations of competitiveness, and businesses today are engaged in a race to create the competencies that will decide who will dominate in their respective markets. Therefore, an organisation must communicate its vision, elaborate on its purpose, and implement a strategic architecture to realise its goals. The new situation calls for managers to place a greater emphasis on the deliverables of their job in terms of the value they generate to satisfy the higher expectations that their organisations have placed on them.

Their efficiency has a direct bearing on the company's competitiveness; hence, there is a higher need than there has ever been before for intellectual capital and organisational skill on the part of the management personnel. When it comes to the human capabilities of an organisation, managers in general and HR professionals in particular, should play a significant role. Capability-led growth and transformation do not

come through geographical expansion but rather from developing less obvious talents and soft skills.

Therefore, the Human Resources department has four primary responsibilities: to act as a partner in the execution of the strategy; to act as an expert in the organisation and execution of duties; to assume the position of employee advocate, and to act as a dynamic change agent. The most effective ways to bring about change are via the processes of training and development.

Scanning the environment, diagnosing organisational capability, and adopting strategies leveraging structure, systems, and people have become required competencies for managers in the turbulent business environment of the present and the unexpected and unknown future. This is because the business environment is expected to be unpredictable.

Examining the Ambient Conditions

Change management has become an essential component of a manager's responsibilities. Managers must be comprehensively aware of the environment in which their company operates and maintain a continual vigilance toward the external forces that cause change. The following are examples of potential external drivers of change: the market and consumers, shareholders; technology; the economy; and social trends.

Managers must recognise the signs of change if they do not want to end up like frogs in a pot of boiling water. It is also helpful in determining whether or not

the company is heading toward expansion. In addition, the manager is responsible for analysing the "stakeholders" in the company, the nature of change, and how it will affect the company. This can also be expressed as monitoring trends and identifying problems that can leave an organisation exposed to risk. To thrive in a changing environment, we must first comprehend it, figure out how to adapt and learn how to influence it.

The company Hewlett-Packard (HP) is an excellent illustration of how to adjust to new circumstances. Before 1987–1992, HP sold around 12 "state of the art" measurement equipment each month to specialised and sophisticated clients. However, by 1997, the company had begun manufacturing 1.25 million laser jet printers each week, distributed worldwide in response to mail orders. In contrast, with its enormous success and market domination in mainframe computers, IBM got complacent and could not see the writing on the wall in the 1990s that consumer tastes were shifting toward personal computers. This led to IBM missing out on a significant opportunity. It has not been possible for it to reclaim its previous position as the leader in the market. Shell, Microsoft, Infosys, Wipro, and NIIT are businesses that have shown initiative because they have analysed their surroundings and implemented relevant strategies to remain competitive.

It is ideal for enabling each level of management to scanning the environment and function as a source of

'buy-in' change, which will assist an organisation prepare for the change before it overtakes. This is something that can be learned from the experiences of many different firms. As a result, there are potentially three categories of managers: those who drive innovation and change, those who respond to change, and those who question whether or not change has taken place.

Diagnosing the Organisation's Capability

After determining the factors causing a change in the external environment, the following stage is to evaluate an organisation's capacity to respond to and fulfil the requirements of the market and the surrounding environment. It is essential that the organisation's role as the medium through which performance can be delivered be acknowledged. Most of the organisation's leaders know what should be done, yet, they discover that a great deal of inertia plagues the organisation. They have to fight to get it to move quickly enough. Some managers try to force change by making simple adjustments, but this approach does not provide long-term outcomes. Others fall back on straightforward, one-dimensional solutions such as restructuring as their primary line of action. However, it is necessary to acknowledge that the organisation requires significant transformation, which should penetrate all areas, including the structure, processes or system, people, and culture. Any modification made to one of the components of the organisation would have repercussions for the
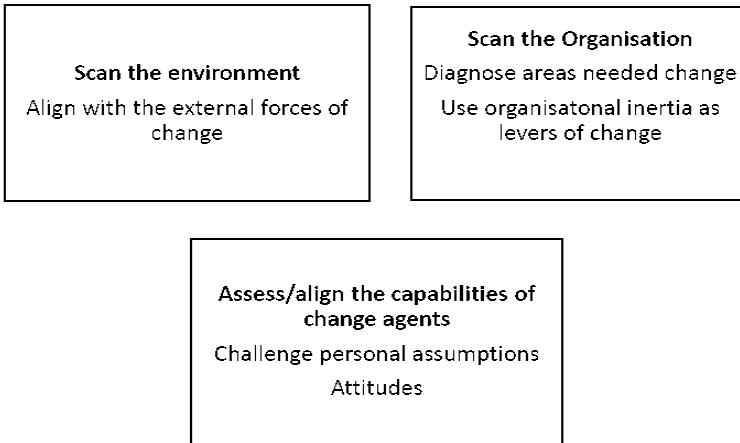
other components as well. For instance, changes in technological capability impact not just tasks but also structures, styles, and individuals. Changes in structure have a similar effect on processes, styles, and the individuals involved. However, many organisations resort to some changes like restructuring without first conducting adequate due diligence. As a result, they end up with skill loss, employee issues, and IR problems.

ORGANISING FOR CHANGE: STRATEGY

Having identified the levers of organisational change, assessment of organisational capability is the next logical step. Without the capabilities of an organisation, there cannot be any sustainable strategy. Literature on organisational change indicates that continuous and discontinuous change forms part of an organisation's life. Change is continuous, incremental and slow in the initial stages of an organisation's life. However, there are short periods of rapid and transformational change, which can be explained with the help of the punctuated equilibrium model explained.

According to the concept, an organisation passes through two stages: the first is a stage characterised by a period of inertia during which there is either no progress or very sluggish development, and the second stage involves a predefined path of action. A fresh understanding that questions the inertia

patterns emerges at almost the midway point, and a moment of change follows.

Scan the environment Align with the external forces of change	**Scan the Organisation** Diagnose areas needed change Use organisatonal inertia as levers of change

Assess/align the capabilities of change agents
Challenge personal assumptions
Attitudes

Fig 5.2 Process involved in Managing Organisational Change
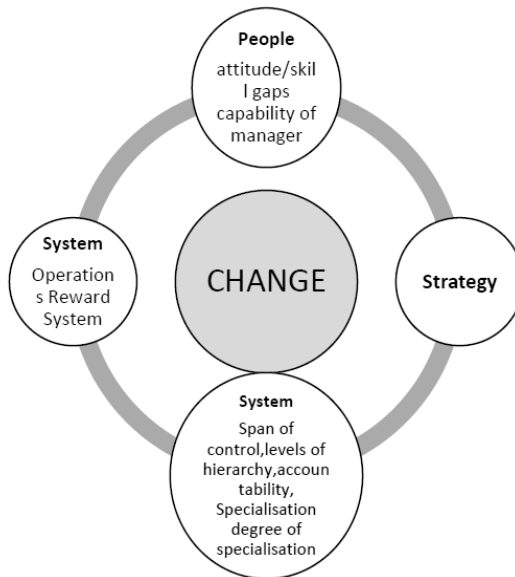
Fig. 5.3 Business Strategy and Environment Fit

Fig. 5.4 Organising change

According to the concept, an organisation passes through two stages: the first is a stage characterised by a period of inertia during which there is either no progress or very sluggish development, and the second stage involves a predefined path of action. A fresh understanding that questions the inertia patterns emerges at almost the midway point, and a
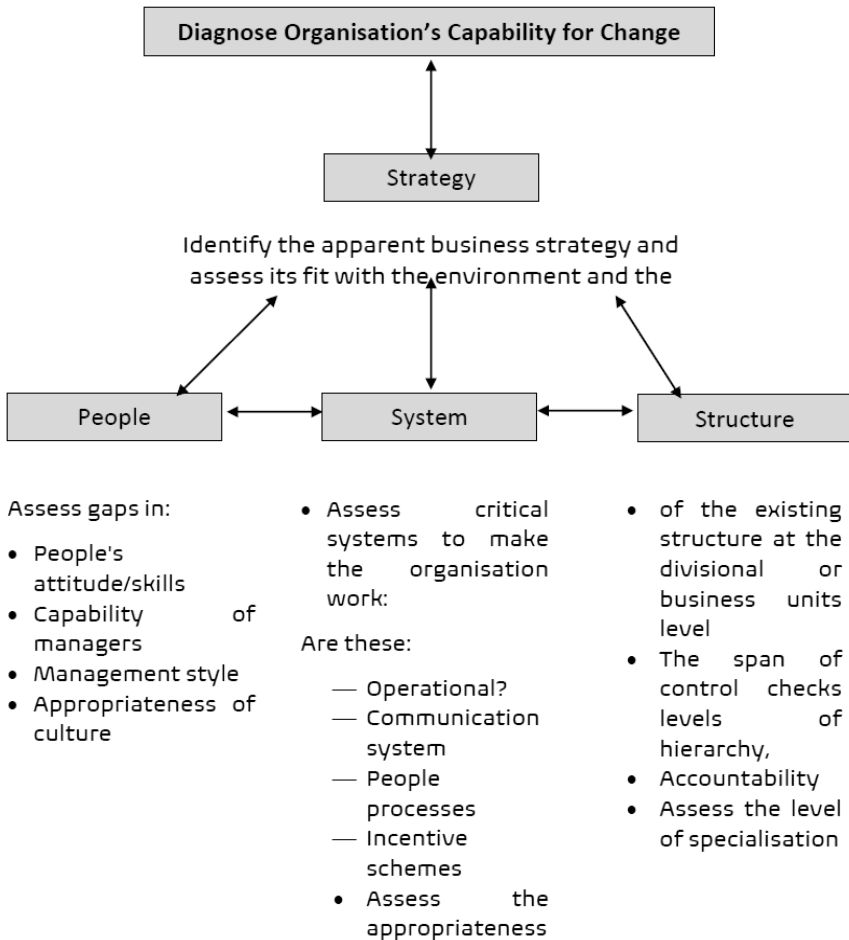
moment of change follows. This time is characterised by a concentrated wave of change, during which people abandoned their previous practices and adopted new points of view. After one phase of transition, another phase of inertia will take place. This phase is distinguished by a new equilibrium or a phase of inertia, which occurs when those responsible for implementing the change come together and step up their efforts to complete the tasks that were started during the transition period. The punctuated-equilibrium model is the name given to this particular pattern. The change process may be substantially accelerated if managers engaged in its implementation can maintain their level of energy and excitement during the initial period of transition.

The Process of Strategy Development

The vision for the organisation will serve as the basis for the strategy. However, the company plan has to be connected with the changes that are taking place in the market, and it also needs to be realistic. The vision should remain reasonably stable. Although it is the CEO's role to determine the direction of the company's strategy, the CEO cannot bring about transformation on his own.

At each level, there is a division of labour regarding the organisation and the responsibility for bringing about change. People in an organisation tend to turn to those in higher positions for strategic direction; however, once they get there, they find themselves in a position of uncertainty. However, it is desired that every

manager be encouraged to be a leader in his or her own right, as well as to be encouraged to manage a portion of the local research and make inputs to strategic thinking. This would accomplish the goals outlined in the previous sentence.

Utilising the Structure as a Lever

A widespread misconception is that structure is just a graphical representation of an organisational chart. On the other hand, the structure comprises how individuals interact with one another, the methods in which events take place, who holds vital positions, how politics may be utilised to bring about change, and how momentum for change can be produced. Participation from the organisation's official and informal structures is necessary for any change to be effective.

In order to bring about change, the structure may be used as a lever to bring about reorganisation inside the organisation. When something is reorganised or restructured, it often entails moving resources to other locations. The reorganisation of businesses aims to cut down on cycle time and service time and make them more responsive to customers' requirements. Since the 1990s, there has been a definite tendency for companies to minimise the number of levels of management in their organisation to enhance efficiency, cut costs, and improve information flow. New types of structures include the following:

Flat structure

Flat structures, as opposed to the vertical, hierarchical ones that have been used before and performed well in relatively stable environments that are not appropriate for environments that are undergoing dynamic change, are being used. Now the client is at the top of the pyramid, with top management (Fig. 6.5) at the structure's base, giving the appearance of an inverted pyramid.

The organisation of networks

Horizontal processes in an organisation have become more critical due to the recent emphasis placed on complete quality and responsiveness to customers' demands. These processes ultimately benefit the customer by connecting different customer/supplier chain components. Everyone is a client of someone else within the context of this arrangement. Through telecommuting and other methods, information technology has enabled the creation of network organisations, in which individuals from all over the world work together to form teams. However, some firms establish informal systems for networking as a method of motivating individuals to exchange ideas. These systems include "coffee rooms" and "smoking rooms, " which allow for developing new information circuits that foster creative thinking.

British Airways has created a physical environment at its corporate headquarters in the United Kingdom that encourages networking. Like most computer-savvy companies in India and the west, Sun Microsystems

has a corporate intranet that links all of its workers to one another over the internet.

Cellular organisation

Developing "cells" inside the organisation is another method for capitalising on the structure's advantages. A cellular organisation may be considered a collection of smaller teams with a high degree of independence from one another. When there are around fifty persons involved in a research project, the group creates its own "cell," which is responsible for all parts of the organisation except payroll. This configuration does not need central staff departments since everything is handled by the 'cell.' A Dutch company named BSO, a software house comprising 2000 individuals who operate in a cellular set-up, is an example of this organisation. BSO is located in the Netherlands.
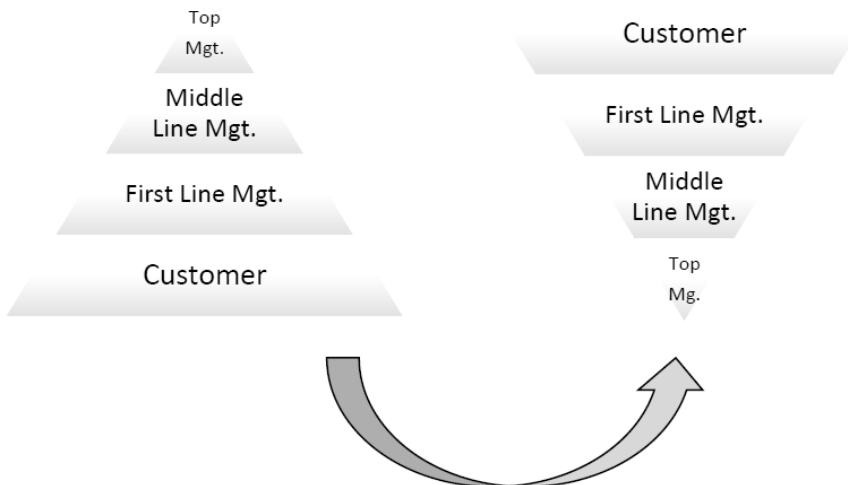
Fig. 5.5 Paradigm shift in focus

Leveraging Systems

It is common practice to remark that the organisational structures and business procedures that were adequate when adopted in the past become outmoded and incorrect when applied to the current setting. This has been seen especially in the latter half of the 1990s. Outdated systems hinder an organisation's capacity to adapt to changing circumstances. These systems could be related to HR, organisational communications, or even operational parts of the company. Change is possible in systems, but it is a slow and gradual process, and it is often noted that systems develop over a while. Change is possible, but it is a long and gradual process. The following is a list of the organisational systems that have experienced recent changes or require future changes:

Appraisal systems

Appraisal systems in the form of an annual confidential report (ACR) have been introduced in approximately 30 per cent of organisations in India to control the behaviour of an employee, using it as a means of giving him rewards, threats, or punishment, to make decisions regarding salary increases and so on. This was done in order to control the behaviour of an employee. The environment in which the assessment systems had been created at the time was related to the assumptions used in their development. The environment has changed, and now businesses are required to regard their workers as human resources,

each of whom has the potential to bring about a contribution and a competitive advantage via the abilities they possess. Since this is the case, the evaluation command and control technique must be replaced with feedback, counselling and mentoring. Some companies have transitioned from the traditional yearly confidential review and instead used performance evaluation, performance management, and 360-degree feedback systems. Since performance reviews are related to career choices and raise, they must be appropriately updated, keeping in mind the vision and objective of an organisation.

Changes in evaluation procedures should take into account certain strategic factors.

Altering how evaluations are done must be approached with careful thinking. Transitioning from a system in which yearly secret reports are generated to an honest assessment system requires considerable preparation. Several of the desired strategies have been outlined below for our perusal.

1. A method based on sequential action Change

This tactic calls for making modifications in a measured manner throughout some time and continuing in stages. Trait-based assessments may give way to ones that combine performance and personality traits as the primary focus. An evaluation based on past performance could consider certain Key Performance Areas (KPAs). After a certain amount of time has passed, a self-evaluation might be added to it. The evaluation and feedback method they use may

easily be adapted to serve as a performance management system.

2. A Change Strategy That Works Level by Level

As part of this approach, a new assessment system will be implemented at a certain level in the beginning phases. Then it will be extended to other levels vertically upwards and below. It will be easier to start it at higher levels since the number of officers participating will be relatively less. A comprehensive knowledge may be built by extensively incorporating them. This method would function more effectively in organisations transitioning to an entirely new system from the one they were using. Take, for instance, the progression from the behavioural dimension to the performance dimension, followed by the move to the self-assessment and performance management system.

3. Implementation of a change strategy on a department-by-department basis

To implement this approach, the organisation is segmented according to its geographical distribution, departments, or functions, depending on which is chosen. Under this strategy, the system of change evaluation might be rolled out over the whole geographical area, region, or department for a year or two. The knowledge and experience obtained via the gradual implementation of specific changes may be used when expanding the use of the new evaluation system to additional areas and departments. The individuals who are participating in the

implementation of this strategy in one area have the potential to serve as a resource for other regions or departments that want to adopt this strategy in the future. This is one of the advantages of this method. Due to the limited territory under their authority, effective surveillance can be achieved.

4. An integrated strategy

It is possible to try any of these three strategies, or even a mixture of two or all three of them, depending on the organisation's structure, and the circumstances currently present inside it. The organisation may operate at a leisurely pace in the beginning since they would want to see the outcomes first. However, after gaining experience, companies may elect to implement the strategy globally, regionally, or unit-wise throughout the organisation. This may be done horizontally as well as vertically.

Planning that is thorough and organised is necessary if an organisation successfully implements a new assessment system following the strategy that the organisation decided upon for dealing with the effect and pressures brought on by the changes described above.

Reward systems

The concept of reward may be considered a type of positive performance reinforcement. Whatever is praised or rewarded is more likely to be done again. However, performance evaluation has a significant amount of weight when choosing the reward. The basic idea behind Skinner's operant conditioning is

that individuals should be allowed to exert their agency on their surroundings to earn positive reinforcement. However, it remains to be seen how the incentive system might be used to bring about change. When deciding on this matter, the following factors for the prize may be taken into consideration:

- Whether to reward individual performance or group performance;
- whether to reward "soft" or "hard" skills;
- whether only performance is to be rewarded or risk-taking, cost, profits, sales, innovation, and effort;
- whether rewards recognise one's contribution in cross-functional teams;

Methodologies for the advancement of careers

People used to join an organisation with the expectation that they would be a part of it for the rest of their lives and that the organisation would provide a roadmap for their professional development and advancement. Given the shifting nature of the situation, neither the employers nor the workers are eager to commit such a substantial amount of time. Concurrently, the difficulties that the 1990s presented necessitated a high level of motivation, morale, and dedication on the part of workers. In order to successfully navigate the shifting environment, we will need to overcome the following challenges:

How can one ensure their new employees live up to their expectations?

How can one cultivate prospects for horizontal advancement in their career?

How do we maintain high motivation levels in an environment with limited prospects for professional growth and a flat organisational structure?

How can an employer make the individual employee responsible for their professional development?

Systematised methods of communication

As a result of the development of a wide array of technologies, businesses have undergone and are still undergoing revolutionary communication processes. These procedures might range from sending emails to participating in video conferences. The influence that technology has had on the communication systems of organisations has been widely acknowledged; nonetheless, the issue that an organisation must overcome is educating its employees on how to make effective use of advanced communication systems. Another ability that will need to be mastered by the change agent is this one.

The Role of Cultural Adaptation as a Driver

A company's culture may be thought of as its genetic code. Both formal and informal expressions of a company's culture may be noticed in its many organisational settings. Traditional culture includes an organisation's vision, purpose, goals, and objectives. Informal culture includes an organisation's attitude, behavioural patterns, and customs. Any effort the organisation makes to bring about change cannot be successful unless they first comprehend and then

harness the energy of the people and teams involved. Alterations in cultural norms have the potential to be productive agents of change. As a result of liberalisation, command and control and hierarchy have been reduced, and the ever-shifting nature of the business environment necessitates adopting a fresh set of attitudes and behaviours in the form of a genetic code that will direct individuals as they navigate uncharted waters.

Organisations with robust cultures can effectively express and passionately convey the cultural values, particularly when acclimating new employees and providing them with an introduction to the organisation. British Airways, ONGC, WIPRO, and some other organisations are examples of those who have embraced cultural transformation. To effectively harness culture for change, senior management must first demonstrate their commitment to the change and then demonstrate that they are living up to the ideals they proclaim.

CHAPTER-VI
Organization Culture and Change

INTRODUCTION: CULTURE

Culture is a highly potent influence in the workplace, and it is something that is actively and carefully nurtured and then passed on to new workers. It reflects the organisation's genuine essence, personality, or genetic makeup. Culture may be defined as the explicit and implicit patterns of behaviour learned via symbols and passed down from generation to generation. These patterns constitute the unique achievements of human societies, including their materialisation in objects. Traditional concepts (ideas that have been historically generated and chosen) and notably the values associated with such ideas form the primary centre of culture. On the one hand, culture systems may be viewed as the products of activity, while, on the other, they can be considered the conditioning factors of future action (Kroeber and Kluckhohn, 1952).

"A culture consists of the whole of assumptions, beliefs, values, social structures and institutions, physical artefacts, and the behaviour of people, expressing their desire to retain continuity and adapt to external pressures," says the Indian viewpoint on

culture. (Sinha, 2000) He has referred to the culture of the workplace as the whole of the numerous levels of interaction between the variables of organisation and organism. Revolving on issues about the job. The organisational set of factors (boundaries, goals, objectives, technology, managerial practises, material, human resources, and constraints) and the organismic set of factors (skills, knowledge, needs, and expectations) interact among themselves at various levels and, throughout a period, develop roles, norms, and values focusing work. This phenomenon is referred to as work culture.

Assumptions and beliefs may present themselves in various ways, including creating material artefacts, establishing social institutions and social networks, and the behaviour of individual community members. It is difficult to change a culture's components without setting off a cascade of other changes because of the linkages among the numerous aspects that make up a culture. These linkages serve to tie a culture together.

Dominant Culture and Sub-cultures

Large organisations tend to have a dominant culture and a variety of subcultures, even though organisational culture has some characteristics in common with other cultures. The dominant culture comprises the fundamental beliefs that most of the organisation's members share. Therefore, anytime one discusses an organisation's culture, they are discussing the culture that predominates in that organisation. Within an organisation, different groups,

departments, or geographic activities may develop distinct subcultures characterised by widely held beliefs and values.
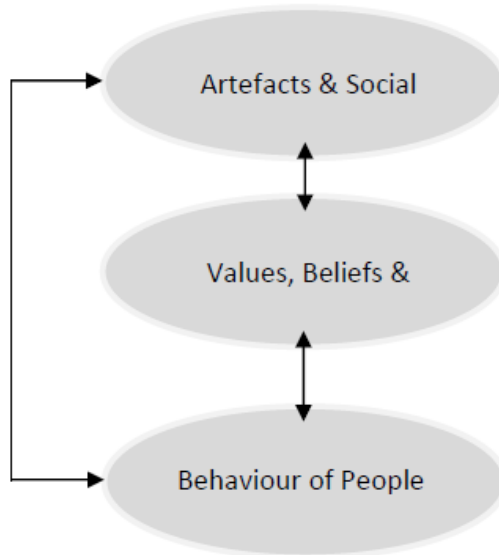
Fig. 6.1 Relational among the Components of Culture

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distinct subcultures characterised by widely held beliefs and values.

The formation of the subculture may take place either horizontally or vertically. For instance, the finance department of an organisation could have a subculture distinct from the cultures prevalent in the other departments of the organisation. This indicates that in addition to upholding the fundamental principles central to the organisation's dominant culture, this division will also uphold specific extra values. In another example, the efficiency of an organisation would be impossible to evaluate, and there would be no behavioural uniformity across the different departments if it did not have a dominating culture and consisted only of a variety of subcultures. Therefore, "common or shared knowledge" is an essential component of the idea of culture. Some organisations may have unique subcultures, and this fact may be stated.

NATURE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

An organisation's culture may manifest itself in a variety of ways, including the following forms and conventions that it has adopted:

- The underlying material infrastructure
- Customary ways of behaving, languages, and observances
- Pay parity and a level playing field for both genders

- Values that predominate, such as quality and productivity

A philosophy that directs the policies of an organisation toward its workers and customers, such as "the customer comes first" and "the customer is king," as well as the method in which employees interact with a client; for example, "customer first."

When taken alone, none of these aspects connotes the organisation's culture; nevertheless, when taken collectively, they represent the organisation's culture. There are several tiers within the culture of the organisation.

Levels of Organisational Culture

One comes across some elements in the organisation which depict its culture. Organisational culture can be viewed at three levels based on manifestations of the culture in tangible and intangible forms:
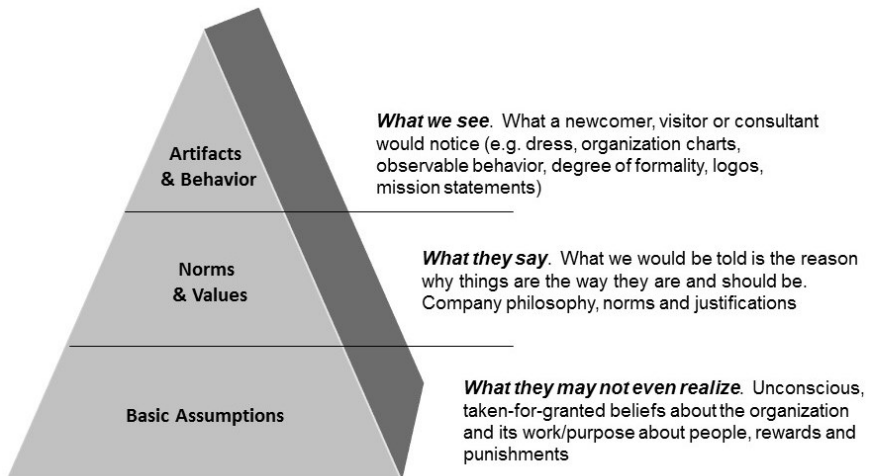
Fig. 6.2 Levels of Organisational Culture

Level I

Physical artefacts, technological advancements, and other readily observable forms of behaviour, such as ceremonies and rituals, may all be indicators of an organisation's culture. Even if the culture would be apparent in various forms, the only level it would be present at is the surface level. For instance, individuals may engage with one another; nevertheless, additional investigation is required to determine the underlying sentiments or whether there is an understanding among them.

Level II

At this stage, there is a deeper understanding of cultural norms and an increased capacity to internalise them. People working for the organisation investigate potential answers to an issue conventionally. It was the approach used throughout the preliminary tests. If the endeavour is fruitful, there will be a consensus on the group's level of success. A cognitive shift occurs due to a change in perception, and this shift ultimately results in the formation of values and beliefs. This will continue to be the case if that solution is effective.

Level III

It will be taken as the "preferred solution" when the group repeatedly observes that the method that was tried once works most of the time. This will convert the values into underlying assumptions or dominant value orientation. When the group repeatedly observes that the method that was tried once works most of the time. There are positives and negatives associated

with this circumstance. The fact that these assumptions direct behaviour and turn out to be a helpful tool is a benefit; on the other hand, the fact that they might distort objective and reasonable thinking is a disadvantage.
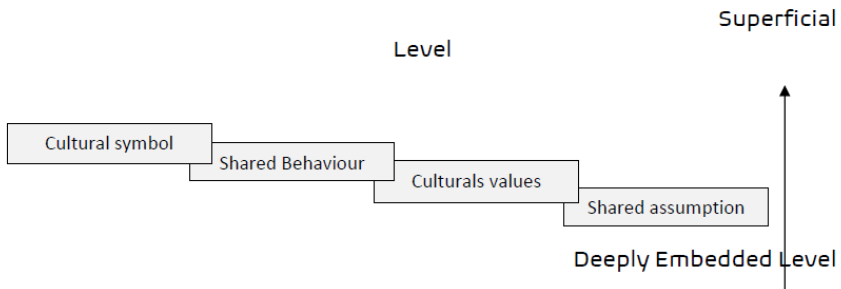
Fig. 6.3 Organisational Culture at Various Levels

The existing traditions, conventions, and methods of doing things inside an organisation are essentially the result of the organisation's previous achievements in certain areas of endeavour. Examples of this may be seen in the cultures of WIPRO and NIIT, which place a significant focus on leadership, competition, customer happiness, and quality.

Patterns of Work Culture

A strong and weak culture

The degree to which members of an organisation are committed to the organisation's fundamental values and the degree to which they share the organisation's core values may be used to categorise the organisation's culture as either robust or fragile. The level of consistency in behaviour is increased when there is a robust culture.

Soft culture

A culture of lax work standards may develop when the organisation pursues many objectives that directly oppose one another. When an organisation has a soft culture, the personnel decide to pursue a few goals that suit personal or sectional interests rather than concentrating on the organisation's interests as a whole. Some public sector organisations in India serve as a prime illustration of the soft culture seen throughout the world today. In these organisations, the management often feels compelled to take disciplinary action against workers to keep production levels high. People are held responsible for their errors but are not rewarded for outstanding performance. The culture prioritises the well-being of its members.

As a consequence of this, the workers place a lower priority on their jobs in comparison to their personal and societal responsibilities. A case study of a public sector fertiliser company that was formed in an industrially backward rural region to boost job creation and industrial activity has been reported by Sinha (1990). The company in question was the Fertilizer Company. The corporation caved into the pressure from the local community and the government. As a result, they overstaffed their operations, converted their formerly mechanised activities into manual operations, paid their employees for overtime, and had terrible discipline. This brought a significant financial loss for the corporation, equaling sixty per cent of its whole capital.

FORMAL AND INFORMAL COMPONENTS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Even though this idea is not usually brought up when discussing organisational culture, the formal components of organisational culture play a significant role in shaping the work culture of an organisation. To a large extent, the work culture of an organisation is influenced by the organisational culture.

Informal Components

These components include manifestations of shared values, beliefs, and assumptions that may be physical and intangible, as well as particular and nonspecific. Nearly every definition of organisational culture emphasises this aspect of the culture, which includes artefacts, symbols, rituals, rites, and tales. This portion of the culture of an organisation includes all of these things.

Harrison (1972) and Handy (1974) presented a total of four different classifications of organisational cultures (1991).

Table 6.1 Formal Components of Organisational Culture

Component	Description	Effect on Organisational culture
1. Mission/Vision 2. Policies	1. The milestones to be reached 2. Statements designed to be guided to behavioural	1. Could be unrealistic 2. Policies, if not drafted properly, can provide leeway

	decision	
3. Procedures	3. Methods providing specific guidelines	3. Can facilitate or create obstacles in smooth functioning
4. Rules	4. Specific instructions for performing a task	4. Rules could be a means or an end in themselves
5. State of Organisational Development	5. The organisation is at a young, growing, maturing and mature stage of development	5. The state of organisational development has a direct impact on work culture

Power culture

A power culture may be found in giant corporations and smaller organisations, particularly those in which authority is centralised. In this society, a person's performance is judged only based on their outcomes, which must sometimes meet the approval of the most senior authority figure. It has been noticed that the aims may sometimes be made to justify the methods in this society. This culture has both good and bad characteristics in equal measure. On the bright side, the culture may assist an organisation in becoming powerful, dynamic, and quick to adapt to the demands placed on it from the outside.

On the other hand, it often results in unhappiness among the workforce, dependency on the capabilities and decision-making of a centralised authority figure, dysfunctional conflict, and power lobbying. The only successful members are those with a political slant to their thinking, an inclination toward power, a

manipulative nature, and a low desire for security. People gain power and influence when they have a personal relationship with those in authority and when they control the resources available to them.

Role culture

This culture, characterised by its adherence to reason and logic, is often called bureaucracy. The capability of the individuals to carry out the responsibilities in a satisfactory manner is taken into consideration throughout the appointment process. Employees' jobs are safe, and they can anticipate where their careers will go; yet, coordination is handled by those at the very top of the organisation. The authority structure and the processes control the work each department is responsible for, and each department has been allocated a specific functional responsibility. When making decisions and settling disagreements, the departments operate according to predetermined protocols and guidelines.

This culture has several positive aspects, but it also has some negative aspects. When it comes to role culture, consistency, predictability, and stability are given a high level of value; as a result, such a culture helps establish stable surroundings. However, one of the disadvantages of this culture is that it makes it hard to adjust to new circumstances. Additionally, innovations, fresh approaches to problem-solving, product innovations, and process innovations are discouraged. A culture like this is hesitant to react to the competitive demands. However, in response to the

challenges brought on by globalisation, specific private sector organisations such as IBM and TISCO, as well as public sector enterprises and banks, have resorted to voluntary retirement schemes, decentralisation and disinvestment, and downsizing.

Task (Project team) culture

A network or project-oriented matrix organisation are two examples of organisational structures that might house a task culture. Task culture is small team culture. In this culture, power and authority are delegated to the proper individuals at the appropriate level, and the primary emphasis is on the expected performance and the outcomes to be produced. There is latitude for decision-making about the work, which results in empowerment. The capabilities of the individuals are prioritised above their seniority or standing in the organisation while putting together the team.

Work in such a culture is characterised by uncertainty and high levels of risk; organisational control is achieved by allocating resources, creating project budgets, establishing goals, and monitoring those goals. In an organisation with such a culture, most of the staff members are of the expert or technical kind. The group strives for synergy and draws on its individual members' specialised knowledge and abilities to maximise the use of available resources while maintaining a high level of creativity and productivity. There is congruence between one's objectives and those of the organisation. This culture is more open to new ideas and ways of doing things.

Person culture

As the name suggests, individualism is a subculture that emphasises the individual. An example of this culture can be seen in voluntary groups such as workers' cooperatives and resident associations, in which several people decide to form a group to pursue their own interests collectively. The concerned individuals are the only ones allowed to participate in the culture, and the group does not have any subordinate groups. There is a possibility that a secretary is working as an office back-up. This culture is probably the only organisation that many volunteer groups consider acceptable. Consent is the essence of power, and consent is created via skill and the personal influence of others. Other businesses that fit the bill of "person culture organisations" are legal firms, consulting firms, and real estate agencies.

FUNCTIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND CHANGE

Because culture is the genetic code of an organisation, it is significant in various contexts. Indian organisations have developed by becoming more culturally integrated. Some organisations were established by individuals such as Tata and Godrej, who have developed and maintained a typical form of culture over many decades. Many other organisations have developed from being culturally ingrained to market-driven after going through this process. Organisations such as Wipro, Ranbaxy, Sundaram

Fasteners, and NIIT fall under this category since they have used organisational culture to achieve company expansion, increased market capitalisation, and leadership positions in their respective markets.

It has been noted that smaller organisations are better able to modify and adapt themselves to the shifting demands of the market, which allows these organisations to capitalise on organisational culture and obtain a competitive edge in a specialised market. Southwest Airlines in the United States is an excellent example of this; for many years, it offered low-cost air travel to customers. (citation needed) However, large companies such as IBM and Sony have successfully broken into the global market by using various business strategies and cultivating a culture of efficient management practices. Therefore, the following are some of the potential contributions that organisational culture might make:

Culture Supplements Management That Is Based On Logic

Developing a suitable work culture takes a significant amount of time. As a result, the behaviour of individuals in an organisation cannot be abruptly altered by the organisation's culture; instead, various management tools are used to direct the behaviour of individuals in the organisation in the desired direction. Without the participation of people, it is impossible to bring about any meaningful change. People can connect via symbols, values, physical settings, and language. As a result, culture is complementary to

rational management tools such as technology and structure.

Induction and socialisation are both made easier by culture.

Induction is a procedure used to socialise and educate new members of an organisation on the organisation's expectations, as well as its cultural norms and ethical behaviour. A change in the newcomer's attitudes and beliefs may be necessary in order to accomplish the goal of developing an internalised commitment to the organisation. This change occurs when the newcomer absorbs the organisation's culture.

When it comes to the induction process, several organisations use various procedures. Gillette India provides a method of online induction that allows an IT-savvy newbie to pick and select the areas in which they want additional in-depth training. However, bureaucratic organisations devote a significant amount of time to the induction process to the process of presenting rules and procedures. This is because conformity to rules is one of the essential needs of bureaucratic organisations. In India, organisations under the purview of the Central Government have a one-year probationary period during which they undergo cultural training. On the other side, younger and more entrepreneurial organisations have an induction procedure that is less time-consuming and less formal. In this part of the meeting, the more experienced senior members share with the newer members tales of heroes, founders, and dynamic team

leaders, as well as their vision. When a person has been working for an organisation for a more extended time, they have had more time to get immersed in the culture on a more profound level, which may be a barrier to the organisation's ability to adapt to change.

The culture encourages adherence to a code of conduct and a focus on the customer

An organisation's healthy culture will openly express good behaviour patterns to its members, making them aware that some behaviours are anticipated while others will never be seen. If members of an organisation share a standard set of ideas, values, and assumptions—all of which have the potential to subtly but significantly affect their behaviour—it is clear that the organisation has a robust culture. People who have completely internalised a culture will consistently and unintentionally engage in behaviours characteristic of that culture. Although, on the one hand, the promotion of a culture of quality, customer focus, and responsiveness can help achieve good business results as well as customer satisfaction and retention, on the other hand, an inappropriate culture can be detrimental to the interests of the organisation and act as an obstacle in the process of transforming the culture of the organisation.

In the current state of the corporate world, emphasising one's customers is not a question of choice but rather a need. Some businesses are embracing customer-focused culture as a differentiator in order to gain a competitive advantage,

and they are doing so by implementing ways to improve such cultures. This raises the bar for the level of performance that is required from staff, which raises customer expectations. It should also be highlighted that change happens consistently in an organisation. The cause might be a change in technology, legislation, or industry restrictions, or it could be due to a change in government policies, rules, or regulations. If the company is customer-centric, it will swiftly adapt to these changes to fulfil the consumers' requirements. It will either foresee the changes or serve as a catalyst in implementing them according to the industry standards if it is responsive to the market and really focused on the needs of the client. Understanding the needs and expectations of customers is one example of a customer-focused culture. Another example is meeting or exceeding customers' expectations, introducing value-creating processes and adopting a business philosophy of delivering ever-increasing value to customers, and finally, having an attitude of winning while putting the customer first.

In order to shift their culture to one that is more customer-centric, businesses that do not currently prioritise their client's needs may need to use one or more of the following strategies:

Institutionalising customer focus by including customer focus in vision and mission System for handling customer complaints A set up for customer satisfaction surveys Customer focus to be one of the

Key Result Areas (KRA) of employees Reward system for customer focus Introducing value models (Hoisington and Naumann, 2003) product quality, service quality, relationship, delivery, price, and image Creating organisational mechanisms around customer focus Institutionalising customer focus by including customer focus in vision and

Diversity within an organisation may be attributed to its many subcultures.

Within a larger organisation, subcultures, subsystems of values and assumptions, which may be based on departmentation, activity centre, or geographical location, lend meaning to the interests of localised specialised groups of individuals.

The organisation may be impacted in any one of the following ways due to the presence of subcultures:

[1] they may help to sustain and develop the existing culture;

[2] advocate something utterly different from the present; and

[3] promote wholly opposing subcultures (beliefs and values) or counter cultures when confronted with a challenging scenario.

When propagating a counterculture, care has to be taken to avoid doing anything that may be adverse to the greater organisational interest.

CHAPTER-VII
Research on Cultural Differences in Organisations

Whether or not individuals organise themselves and their work differently from one culture to the next is raised very often and which, as a result of the shortening of distances around the globe, has taken on a greater level of importance. An analysis of previous studies is offered below to address these and other inquiries about how other nations' cultures vary.

Behaviour at Work in Different Cultures

Studies conducted in various nations have shown that individuals' beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours may vary greatly depending on the culture in which they were raised. Douglas McGregor (1960) provides an illustration of this in his "Theory X" and "Theory Y," both of which are predicated on the manager's assumptions about the behaviour of the workers. Theory X bosses do not trust their subordinates, which leads to the implementation of stringent control systems, which in turn leads to irresponsible behaviour on the part of the workers. On the other hand, managers who adhere to Theory Y and have faith

in their workforce are more likely to delegate greater authority to their subordinates to achieve overall objectives and carry out tasks. This occurs in the absence of intensive supervision or stringent control. When workers are in this circumstance, they realise that management trusts them, which motivates them to produce their best performance. When managers witness the improvements in their workers' performance, they tend to create a more positive attitude toward those individuals. Comparable results have been seen in Canada and India (Adler, 1986).

In his work on Theory Z, Ouchi drew attention to the cultural distinctions between Japanese and American societies. The organisational culture of American companies is characterised by specialised career pathways, rapid development, individualised decision making, individualised responsibility, explicit control, and concern for the quality of their relationships with their people in the workplace. On the other hand, Japanese organisational culture is characterised by slow promotions, generalised career paths and job rotation across areas, group decision making, a high degree of trust, collective responsibility and concern for work as well as social aspects of employees, and concern for work as well as social aspects of the company. Therefore, the culture of the society affects the culture of the organisation.

Alterations in Culture: Studies of Differences Between Cultures

Hall (1976) has pointed out the distinctions between cultures with vital context and civilisations with low context. High-context cultures teach their members to place a significant amount of importance on the circumstances and conditions of their surroundings and to rely mainly on non-verbal cues when exchanging and understanding messages. In this context, he listed Arabic, Japanese, and Chinese as examples of languages that place a premium on an indirect mode of communication. However, in cultures with a low emphasis on context, the external world is given little consideration, clear, direct, and forthright communication is prized, and non-verbal cues are disregarded.

In his research of culture in forty nations, which Hofstede (1980) subsequently expanded to sixty countries, he discovered that there are considerable cultural disparities in people's views about employment. A sample of one hundred sixty thousand workers from an American multinational firm was taken. According to the research findings, there are substantial cultural disparities in the attitudes and behaviours of workers and management staff from other nations. These differences have lasted for some time. It is tough to alter the culture of individuals who work for an organisation because those people carry with them the culture of the society to which they belong, which is a reflection of the fact that an

organisation is a subsystem of society. He found that workers and supervisors were different along the following four key dimensions:

Individualism/collectivism

People tend to concentrate on themselves and, to a lesser degree, on their families, which is one of the defining characteristics of individualism. The concept of in-group, which might include kin, caste, and organisation, is distinguished from other groups by collectivism. Certain countries, like the United States, have an individualistic culture. In contrast, others, like Japan, have a culture in which the will of the collective decides how individuals should believe and behave. Individuals who belong to these cultures bring their values and beliefs into the organisation, which are difficult to alter.

Orientation toward power distance

The hierarchy of this dimension refers to the connection between superiors and subordinates. The superior will likely widen the power gap between himself and his subordinates. In contrast, the subordinates will try to close the power gap between themselves and their superiors. His research has shown that nations with a high power distance include the Philippines, Venezuela, and India. As anticipated, top staff members keep their distance from their subordinates. People from cultures that place a substantial value on individual authority and autonomy struggle when their employment requires them to collaborate successfully with others.

Uncertainty avoidance

Hofstede demonstrates that various cultures have varying degrees of tolerance to uncertainty and diverse ways in which they respond to uncertainty. According to his research findings, he has divided nations into two categories: those with high uncertainty avoidance, such as Japan and Greece, and those with low uncertainty avoidance, such as the United States, Canada, and New Zealand. Compared to those in the high uncertainty avoidance group, it is evident that those in the low uncertainty avoidance group will be more willing to take chances.

Masculinity/femininity

The degree to which the overall values in a culture focus on connections among individuals, care for the wellbeing of others, and quality of life, in general, is what is meant by the term "masculinity." It was discovered that Japan and Australia have very male cultures, Scandinavian nations have the most feminine cultures, and the United States has a somewhat masculine culture.

In conclusion, Hofstede has compared the concept of culture to a "collective programming" of the brains of members of one group, which differentiates that group from other groups.

Validation of Hofstede's work

Sondergaard (1994) comprehensively analysed 61 studies that replicated Hofstede's methodology and found that the four aspects above have been "mostly verified." According to Trompenaar (1996), based on

his study on 8841 informants from commercial organisations in 43 different countries, Hofstede's identification of two dimensions—individualism vs collectivism and power distance—has been validated.

ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE, LEADERSHIP AND FIRM SIZE

According to Schein (1987), based on his work, the following statement is a hypothesis: "Leaders create organisational cultures, and one of the most decisive functions of leadership may well be the creation, the management, and—if and when that becomes necessary—the destruction of the culture." Several studies have been conducted to investigate the connection between the size of an organisation and its level of organisational effectiveness and culture. Large companies encourage inactivity and complacency (Hannand and Freeman, 1984), resistance to adaptation (Aldrich and Auster, 1986), and an aversion to risk. (Citation needed) (Hitt et al., 1990).

Connell (2001) conducted research in six different workplaces in Australia to investigate how the organisation's size influenced various characteristics. He discovered that company size affected organisational culture and employee morale. It was discovered that small businesses had a more positive culture, strong employee morale, a consultative management style, and high levels of organisational performance.

Studies Conducted in India

In 1995, the Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR) contributed financial support to a research titled "Work Culture in Medium Size Organisations." The research that Sinha and his colleagues worked on evaluated 28 medium-sized organisations in one state in India. These organisations were drawn from both the public and private sectors. The culture of organisations with their headquarters in that state has been categorised as either a soft culture, a technocratic culture, or a work-centric nurturance culture. Table 7.1 contains a summary of the results that were discovered.

Table 7.1 Main Features of Organisational Culture			
Components	Soft culture Nurturant Culture	Work-centric Culture	Technocratic
Values	Needs, interests and relationships	Work_oriented relationships	Quality, costs and customer satisfaction
Behaviour	Inefficient and indifferent to work	Productive, paternalistic and participative	Efficient, demanding & competitive
Relationships	Need-based and socially determined	Socio-technically determined	Technologically determined
Technology	Neglected	State-of-the-art and suited to employees	State-of-the-art and R&D-driven

Structure	Heavy & usually bureaucratic	Socio-technically integrated	Lean, flexible and team-based
Procedure	Non-work-oriented	Work & people-oriented	Outcome-oriented&dynamic
Goals and objectives	Welfare and profit (if possible)	Interests of all stakeholders	Market leadership, expansion and profit

According to the findings of the research, a "soft work culture" results in non-work values taking precedence over job-related ones, which leads to an inefficient organisation. On the other hand, in private organisations, work continues to be the primary interest of everyone involved. However, the primacy of labour in private organisations is built on entrenched interests that lack ethics and care for others. This makes the job unethical and uncaring. Table 7.2 categorises the various owners', managers', supervisors', and employees' assumptions, beliefs, and values.

According to the findings of this study, businesses should prioritise the development of their human capital in the same way they prioritise the achievement of technical excellence or production levels. Additionally, they should have a long-term vision rather than a short-term myopic perspective. For organisations to achieve their goals of acquiring a competitive advantage, it has been advised that they

implement a strategy that consists of three components: the nurturing of people, the importance of task orientation, and technical excellence and innovation in management practises (Sinha, 1990). It is feasible to make this happen by instituting changes in the work culture, including both the hard and soft cultures of the organisations.

Table 7.2 Assumptions. Beliefs and Values of Various Stakeholders in MediumSize Organisations in the study sample		
Owners	Managers & Supervisors	Workers
Enterprises are supposed to maximise profits	Managers and supervisors hold nearly identical views to those of the owner	The company has to generate profits
Any means that can enhance profits is justifiable	Their position in the hierarchy affects their perceptions of the company	Their benefits depend on the company's performance
Workers should work to their maximum potential to maximise profits. For this, they must be closely supervised, subjected to strict work discipline and punished for slackness or laziness.	The junior managers and supervisors are less positively inclined towards the organisation	They need to work hard and be loyal to the enterprise

The lower the wages and allowances that an entrepreneur may legally give to his workers, the lower the production cost.	Many of them feet positively about the workers, rating them as honest	Housing, medical and conveyance facilities are their most important requirements
Suppose machines are taken good care of. Even the less skilled workers can be more productive.		The owner is their main bap (parent) who is expected to show them paternalistic affection
All the workers need to know is how to run the machines. The less skilled they are, the easier it is to replace them.		A trade union is of little use because it invariably creates problems for the workers by antagonising the owner
The physical conditions of work inside the plant are no worse than the poor conditions in which people in the surrounding countryside live.		
Workers should be grateful that they have jobs with regular incomes.		

It is pragmatic to let supervisors and managers handle any problems that arise on the shop floor and to let them deal with workers' frustrations and grievances.		

Strategies for Culture Change

Altering a culture may be done in two ways: from the top down or the bottom up. The strategy that works from the top down is called "Programmatic Change," It is introduced and driven by senior managers or those in higher-up positions (Beer et al., 1990). In most cases, they concentrate on artefacts as well as the behaviour of employees, and they typically cover the whole organisation. Changes in organisational structure, the reallocation of physical space, training and development, empowerment, quality efforts, and other types of alterations are standard components of this strategy. This method is inconsistent since, on the one hand, it promotes individual agency and empowerment, but, on the other hand, it takes a directed approach that includes things like team briefing. In a similar vein, a leader is expected to be the one to change an organisation's culture.

Table 7.3 Perception of Work Culture by ONGC Executives	
Dominant technocratic culture	*Soft subculture*
High technical know-how	Emphasis on adherence to procedures rather than achievements, Paucity of the latest technology
Strong infrastructure	Many hierarchical levels. Lack of cost consciousness. Lack of accountability
Availability of seismic & geological database Communication network	The gap in plan and implementation Undesirable union/pressure group activities
Monopolistic presence	Lack of work ethics
Potential for diversification	Promotion of seniority rather than performance
Potential for onshore and offshore consultancy	Lack of job enrichment
Highly skilled and trained workforce Loyal workforce	Ageing workforce
Long and rich experience in oil exploration	Lack of empowerment Lengthy process, long lead time for material procurement equal workload
Research & Development facilities	Lack of coordination

Changes made from the bottom up require making little adjustments over time and are connected to an organisation's "critical path" (Beer et al., 1990). A

manager in one department of the organisation is the one who first proposed the modification in this scenario. The primary emphasis is on finding a solution to a specific issue encountered in the business world. Bottom-up' task alignment' is a strategy that may require some overlapping processes at a location or a business unit. The bottom-up 'task alignment' approach focuses on growing people's competencies, improving and mobilising commitment, and having a shared vision. After the vision has been outlined, the staff members may work on improving their abilities to fit the new culture. Expanding it to other sections of the organisation via training and development is possible.

Culture of the Organization and Culture of the Country

Researchers and managers alike focus a significant amount of attention on the concept of organisational culture because they see it as a socialising impact that also contributes to the creation of organisational climate. They operate on the presumption that organisational culture may trump national culture and that employees who come from various countries but work for the same multinational company would have more in common. The findings of Hofstede (1980) in a single multinational organisation that operated in 10 countries prove that the national culture of the employees can explain only fifty percent of the difference in employees' attitudes and behaviour; however, its contribution to explaining their behaviour

is much more than their organisational role, race, gender, or age.

Laurent (1983) studied the organisational culture of a single multinational company with subsidiaries in ten different countries. He conducted the research once again to see whether or not individuals working for a single international firm would share more characteristics than their peers working in domestic positions (nationally). He concluded that workers who belonged to a culture not only preserved but also strengthened the cultural disparities between them. It was found in this study that there were significant differences between managers from ten different countries who worked for the same multinational corporation and that these differences were more significant than the differences that were found between managers from ten different countries who worked in their native countries. In order to demonstrate the reliability of his findings, Laurent conducted a twin study in two more multinational firms with operations in the same nine western European nations as well as the United States. The findings from this research were consistent with those found in the previous one. It is possible to draw the following conclusion from his research: organisational culture does not lessen the influence of national culture; instead, it highlights the differences in national culture when people of different nationalities work in the same organisation. This occurs when there is a mix of nationalities.

Hofstede (1990) discovered that an organisation's culture might explain a significant amount of the variation in the values that workers of various organisations hold. His research was conducted in 20 different organisations in Denmark and the Netherlands. According to Mead (1998), "inside an organisation, the culture reflected not only the nationality, demography, industry, and market aspects of workers and management staff, but also the structure and control system."

Managing Diversity Across Multiple Cultures

Given the current state of the corporate world, it is impossible to disregard the fact that cultural diversity is an inherent component of the functioning of organisations. The question that naturally follows is, "how to control it?" Problems arise whenever management chooses to concentrate on cultural distinctions rather than evaluations of culture since the two concepts are often confused with one another. Disrespectful, inappropriate, ethnocentric, sexist, or racist attitude and behaviour can come from judging organisation members, customers, and others based on the differences in their cultural backgrounds. However, if the cultural differences are acknowledged with the intention of finding solutions to manage them, this would reduce the number of difficulties while simultaneously increasing the benefits of cultural diversity.

It is possible to successfully manage cultural variety by cultivating synergy among individuals in order for

them to operate as teams. This may be accomplished by organising groups with people from various rural backgrounds and then providing those people with a structured learning experience as we

EMERGING TRENDS IN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

The Reengineering of Business Procedures and the Importance of Organizational Culture

During the 1990s, a number of businesses used a technique known as "business process reengineering" (BPR) to significantly enhance their efficiency and performance levels and the degree to which they satisfy their consumers. Hammer and Champy (1993) are credited with making this idea more well known. "Reengineering" may be defined as "the fundamental rethinking and drastic restructuring of business process" to achieve "dramatic gains in important, modern metrics of performance such as cost, quality, service, and speed." BPR necessitates the modification of policies, control mechanisms and technology, corporate practices, and the creative destruction of outmoded ways of thinking and carrying out tasks.

Many companies employ the organisational model developed by McKinsey, which states that BPR affects six out of seven aspects of organisational transformation, as the following chart explains.
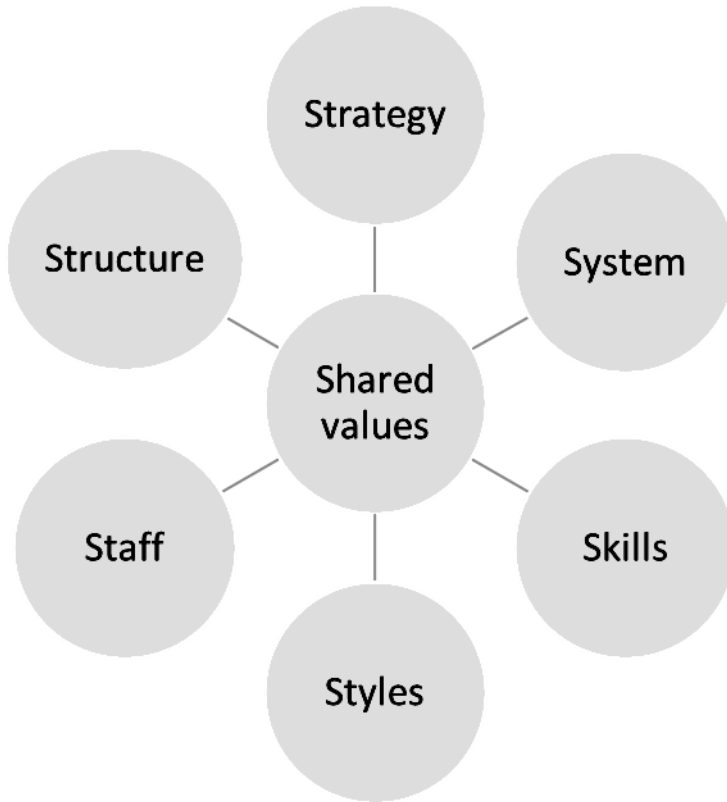
FIG 7.1 McKinsey's Seven S diagram

In an organisation, implementing BPR would entail changing things such as the system, the structure, the quality and quantity of staff, the competencies required by the organisation in the changed scenario, the values and beliefs that are commonly held within the organisation, as well as the attitudes and behaviours of people at all levels of the organisation, from managerial to worker. The last ten years have seen a transformation in how organisations operate, and there is a good chance that this pattern will carry over into the next ten years. If the change is to be maintained over time, organisational culture will

continue to serve as the cornerstone upon which BPR-enabled organisational transformation is built.

ISO 9000 and Organisational Culture

ISO 9000 is a model for quality assurance that includes a set of documented standards to Document procedures for undertaking a task that affects product or service quality. Perform the work according to laid down procedures. Maintain a record of activities as evidence for compliance. Compare the performance or achievement with the plan or target to see deficiency and shortfall, if any.
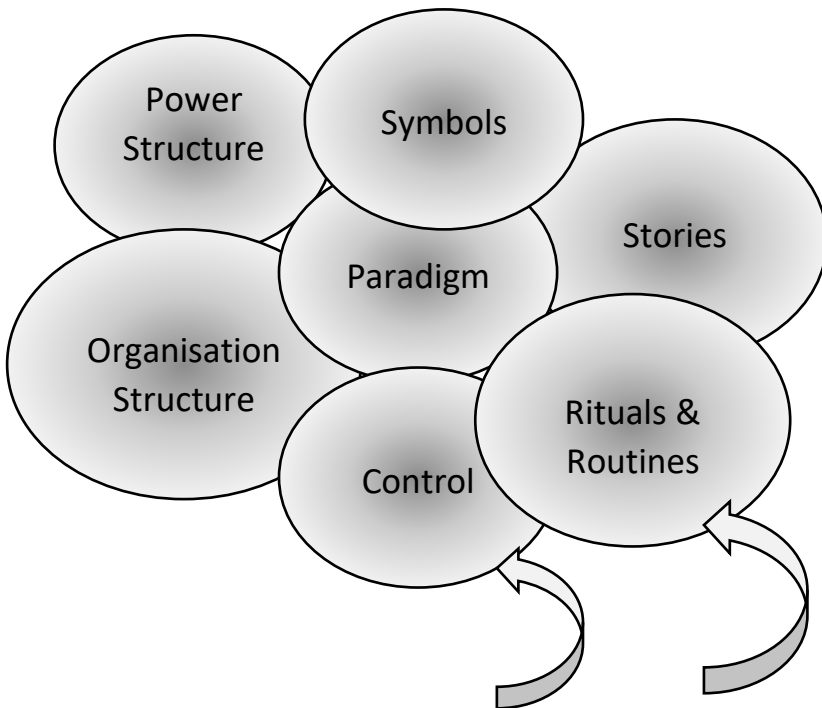
FIG 7.2 Culture Web Impact

According to Fairbairn (2002), ISO 9000 is an "adaptable system" that integrates the advantages of exerting required control as firms develop. Specifically, the benefits of ensuring that quality is maintained. Using the model developed by Johnson and Scholes (1993), he outlines how the cultural paradigm of an organisation is influenced by culture in the form of a "web of interlinking elements." According to the model mentioned above, an organisation's quality control system is likely to affect its rituals and routines, organisational structure, and the controls, all of which are likely to affect the organisation's overall paradigm.

In the future, it is anticipated that organisations having a "Role culture" and a "Task culture" would have an easier time adapting ISO 9000 to their respective cultures. Wipro, Infosys, and Ranbaxy are just a few examples of companies in the business sector in India that have already transitioned to role culture and tack culture. These organisations can put quality procedures in place, allowing them to be more efficient. Examples of role culture include the quality of service provided to customers and the performance of an organisation. This pattern may continue, given that in an increasingly competitive corporate climate, quality will be the deciding element in determining who comes out on top.

There are some alternative worldwide models; however, TL 9000 is the only one tailored to the telecommunications sector and based on the ISO framework. Quest Forum is the name given to this

group, comprised of service providers and telecom service suppliers. An enterprise's quality management system is the ISO system's primary emphasis, whereas the certification of goods is the primary goal of the TL system. Similarly, the QS 9000 standard for the automotive sector was presented to the public for the first time in 1994. This standard is divided into two sections: the first addresses essential criteria and the second addresses needs unique to individual customers. There are a variety of techniques available for achieving exceptional levels of performance, such as the six sigma methodology, which Motorola first developed in the 1980s, and the Malcolm Baldrige criteria, which were first presented in 1987. All of these systems focus on achieving outstanding performance, which helps to shape the organisation's culture.

Cultural Intelligence

Because of the proliferation of many cultures worldwide, cultural intelligence has become more critical. According to one definition, it is "the capacity of an individual for effective adaptation to new cultural contexts, that is, for unfamiliar conditions owing to cultural context" (Christopher, Earley; Ang, Soon and Tan, Joo Seng, 2006). They understand that cultural intelligence may be broken down into three categories.

i. Thinking strategically about culture, we have an awareness of how individuals behave in a new culture and the reasons behind such behaviours;

ii.   Having a drive that involves energy and endurance, and

iii. Having a behaviour-response in a particular style.

In order to have a complete grasp of what members of a particular culture value or think, one must also be familiar with the rituals and practises that make up that culture's behavioural norms. The terms "declarative knowledge" and "procedural knowledge" refer to these types of information, respectively. The aspect of motivation encompasses not only self-motivation but also self-confidence, self-evaluation of personal identity, values, and the process of defining goals, among other things. The capacity of a person to participate in culturally adapted behaviour is the subject of the third aspect of behaviour, which is referred to as action. All of this necessitates the development of a new conceptual framework, which in psychology is known as higher-order thinking or cultural strategic thinking.

The most recent research emphasises the beneficial impact that cultural intelligence plays in gaining a competitive edge. Cultural intelligence would be a crucial ability for managers to possess in order to be professionally successful in an environment that is constantly changing since organisations are getting more culturally driven and are globalising by establishing their companies in other nations.

Questions (Chapter I to VII)

1. Analysis of the Internal and External forces affecting the organisation.
2. Describe the types of organisational change.
3. How do external forces influence organisational change?
4. Throw light on prototypical theories of organisational change.
5. Differentiate between Theory E and Theory O. How do these impact organisational change?
6. Describe process models of change management.
7. Elucidate parameters of strategic change in Galpin's model.
8. Compare Lewin's model with Schein's and highlight similarities and differences.
9. Discuss the various variables involved in the organisational change Dissipative Equilibrium Model. How are these related to organisational effectiveness?
10. What are the transactional and transformational factors in the Burke-Litwin organisational performance and change model?
11. Draw similarities and differences between the delta techniques and Lewin's change model.
12. Discuss the skills and processes involved in championing change.
13. How can structure and systems be leveraged to introduce organisational change?

14. What are the features of organisation culture?
15. Throw light on the role of Business Process Reengineering in organisational change.
16. Can the leadership of an organisation change its culture? Cite an example from a company where leadership has positively impacted organisational change.
17. Discuss the strategies for culture change.

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