

Dynamics of Organizational Change and Learning

Reflections and perspectives

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Dynamics of organizational change and learning

Reflections and perspectives

Jaap Boonstra

This final chapter reflects on theories, methodologies, and practices which are presented in this book on the dynamics of organizational change and learning. In the introduction of this book it was posed that almost three quarters of all change efforts fail to achieve the intended result. The authors of this book wish to contribute to achieving better results in changing organizations. We want to understand the dynamics of organizational change and learning, untangle the mysteries of change processes, and we would like to share our knowledge, experience, and reflections. This book offers no clear set of 'rules of thumb' or 'best ways' to change organizations effectively. Together we present theoretical insights, implications, methods, and critical reflections. We strongly believe that the presentation of divergent perspectives in this handbook may be helpful to develop new knowledge and new perspectives. By doing so we hope to encourage practitioners, scholars and scientists to reflect on their own practices and theories, to elaborate on their own fascinations, and to develop and explain their own methodologies.

This chapter starts with reflections on the dynamics of organizational change and learning. It compares multiple perspectives on change and learning, and explores tensions between the perspectives. The second section focuses on specific issues in organizational change and learning, such as failures and success, power and empowerment, resistance and commitment, persuasion and communication, and different roles of change managers and consultants. The third section summarizes change methods presented in this handbook, and links them to assumptions and values in organizational change. This chapter concludes with opportunities and questions as to the dynamics of organizational change and learning.

Dynamics in organizational change and learning

There is no consensus on a workable set of principles in organizational change and learning. Theories and practices of change and learning are rooted in deeply held assumptions and values. This means that it is useful to make the values that underlie different approaches to change and learning explicit and a subject of discussion.

Multiple perspectives on changing and organizing

The first part of this book focuses on Organization Development. Several definitions of Organization Development have been presented, but there seems to be no accepted general definition, although some distinctions are recognizable (see the contributions in Part I).

- Basic values in organizing are a strong belief in human potential, participation in the workplace, and interpersonal relationships based on trust and openness.
- Basic values in changing are employee participation in the change process, and learning through feedback and collective reflection by all actors.
- Human beings are seen as being inherently good, creative, and searching for new experiences to develop their human potential.
- Human beings are open, purposeful people who use conversation in preparation of concerted action and constructing realities.
- Organizations are seen as purposeful social and technical systems in interaction with each other.
- Organizations are seen as open systems in interaction with their environment.

- Change is aimed at enabling organizations to be effective in their relations with their environment, and to contribute to the quality of work life.
- Change is treated not as discrete events, but as a process with phases and logical flows.
- Change practices and interventions are based on the application of behavioral science.
- Change practices rely on knowledge about individuals and their relationships in organizations, the division and coordination of labor, and organizational strategies.
- Learning is a collective, ongoing, and cognitive activity of all participants in change and fuelled by experimentation in and reflection on practices and methodologies.
- Knowledge of organizing and changing is gained through collaboration of practitioners and researchers in change processes, and through action research using local knowledge.

A key issue for Organization Development is to integrate the interests and needs of individuals with the collective interest of organizations. Organization Development consultants prefer cooperation to conflict, self-control to institutional control, and participative leadership to autocratic management (see also Buelens & Devos, Chapter 1.4).

The second part of this handbook centers on Planned Change. The focus of Planned Change is on realizing competitive advantage and stakeholders' value. Basic values of Planned Change are less pronounced; nevertheless, some distinction can be made (see the contributions in Part II).

- A basic value in organizing is the need for organizations to adjust to environmental changes and market demands by implementing new organizational arrangements based on the customer value stream.
- A basic value in changing is an integrated approach steered by management which pays attention to business strategy, corporate structure, management processes, technology, and social capital.
- Human beings are seen as the social capital of the organization with skills and capabilities to perform objectives and contribute to the value stream.
- Human beings are motivated by challenging jobs, and are willing to change when they see advantages for themselves.
- Organizing is a primary business process in terms of a horizontal stream of value-added activities focused on customers and clients.
- When organizing, the boundaries between the organization and the environment are blurred due to external networks with suppliers and customers, and strategic alliances with competitors.
- Change is induced by market demands and changing environments, and is aimed at achieving performance measures in order to realize competitive advantage.
- Change takes an organization-wide approach and attention must be given to broadening and mobilizing support for change by bringing the key stakeholders into line.
- Change practices and interventions are based on economic reasoning to create credible measures of performance, and on behavioural science to realize commitment to change.
- Change practices rely on knowledge about competitive advantage, the structuring of organizations, and developing new skills and capabilities of human resources.
- Learning is primary a process of change managers reflecting on change experiments, and on the failures and successes in earlier change efforts.
- Knowledge of organizing and changing is obtained by the way in which we operate and capture the results of the use of applied techniques.

A key issue for planned or market-induced change is to achieve competitive advantage in a competitive world by organizing work processes around the value chain, developing the skills of human resources, and realizing commitment to change by bringing key stakeholders in line. The values of Planned Change are rooted in organizational behavior and economic approaches (see also: Buelens & Devos, Chapter 1.4). Organizational behavior scholars emphasize that change will not be sustainable if they are not embedded in the development of human resources. The economic approach focuses on shareholders and customers as the most

relevant stakeholders, and implies goal congruence in effective, credible, and accessible performance measures presented on a common platform.

It seems that two dramatically different approaches to organizational change are being employed, guided by very different assumptions on organizing, changing and learning. This observation was also made by Beer and Nohria (2000). They refer to these approaches as Theory E and Theory O (see also: Walton & Russell, Chapter 2.3). The purpose of Theory E is to create economic value. Its focus is on formal structure and systems. It is driven top-down with extensive help from consultants and financial incentives. Change is planned and programmatic (see also: Jensen, 2000; Choshal & Bartlett, 2000). Theory E is comparable with the design approach described in the Introduction of this book. The purpose of Theory O is the joint optimization of social and technical systems, and the simultaneous development of organizational effectiveness and the quality of working life. It is based on collaboration in the change process of managers and employees facilitated by consultants. Change is emergent, less planned and programmatic (see also: Senge, 2000; Weick, 2000). Theory O is comparable with the development approach contained in the Introduction. The practices and theories in use for both approaches are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Planned change and Organization Development

Planned change (Theory E)	Organization development (Theory O)
- Organizations as adaptive systems to market demands	- Organizations as purposeful socio-technical system
- Human beings as social capital to perform objectives	- Human beings as creative and collaborative people
- Employees motivated by personal advantage	- Employees motivated by developing human potential
- Managers using position power in steering changes	- Managers using personal power in mutual collaboration
- Consultants as knowledge-driven experts	- Consultants as process-driven facilitators
- Organization life as source of shortcomings	- Organization life as source of experience
- Focus on economic measures of performance	- Focus on improvement of effectiveness and working life
- New design of work processes as blueprint	- Improvements based on the existing organization
- Top-down steering of change process	- Utilization of knowledge and insight of personnel
- Solution-oriented based on value chain	- Problem-oriented based on working experiences
- Episodic change with stable end situation	- Continuous changing and improving change abilities
- Single linear change process	- Iterative change process
- Techno-economical process rationality	- Socio-political process rationality
- Strict norms and planning in change process	- Regard for ability to change in emergent change process
- Abstract models and concrete working methods	- Concrete working methods and abstract models
- Emphasis on expert knowledge	- Application of operational knowledge
- Separation of design and implementation of changes	- Smooth transition between phases in change
- Learning as reflection by change managers	- Learning as a collective and ongoing activity
- Knowledge development by using techniques	- Knowledge development by action research

The question that arises concerns the possibility of using the tension between Theories E and O in organizational change and learning, and minimizing their negative consequences. Mixing the approaches without being aware of the inherent tension between them leads to tensions in the change process itself as well as to negative outcomes for the transparency of the change process and negative results for commitment of those participating in change.

Beer and Nohria (2000) plead for the integration of the theories and approaches to change. They suggest two possibilities. The first possibility is sequencing change strategies, starting with Theory E followed by Theory O. Theory E focuses on rapid, dramatic, and painful changes that may be required to increase economic value, which cannot be achieved through a

long-term Theory O strategy. Theory O strategy focuses on building new trust and commitment and the development of human competencies. Switching strategies seems to be difficult because change managers are unable to alter their style and thinking, and find it difficult to change employee opinion that they are ruthless and cannot be trusted. The second possibility is to integrate both theories and keep the tension between the two approaches. This requires simultaneous and equal emphasis on optimizing shareholder value, developing organizational capabilities, and improving the quality of working life. A synthesis requires that change managers mobilize energy for performance improvement, but also that they enable managers throughout the organization to lead a process of innovation and change, and invite employees to participate in the change process.

In an earlier publication the possibility of alternation was proposed in order to integrate both approaches in organizational change (Boonstra & Vink, 1996). Management steers on outlines while further completion is done by Organization Development. As the change advances the approach will include more elements of development. The principles for innovation and change may be formulated in conferences and discussed between top management, middle management, and employees. After top management sanctions the principles, the organization can be analyzed by a facilitating team with the collaboration of all members involved. The interpretation of data could take place in a participative learning process with a change agent as facilitator to establish procedures, to guide meetings and discussions, and to clarify the relationships in the data. After the diagnosis the development of new working arrangements may be designed as an iterative process. Top management formulates general coordinating and innovative frameworks supported by organizational experts and business consultants. Employees interpret and elaborate these frameworks with the help of facilitators. As the process progresses, the emphasis gradually shifts to principles and methods of Organization Development in which the organization's members manage the changes themselves. Search conferences, participative design, and democratic dialogue are methods which may be used in this alternating process.

Another possibility, suggested in the Introduction of this handbook, is to choose a change strategy based on contingency factors. Planned change seems suitable when the problem is known, not too complex, and a solution is within reach. The approach is mandatory when the organization is in crisis and quick action is required. Planned Change also seems more appropriate when no reasonable degree of consensus about the nature of the proposed change can be reached or a sizable reduction in personnel is expected. Organization Development appears to be more suitable in the case of complex issues for which no evident solution is at hand. Organization Development is preferable when gradual and incremental improvements and innovations can be effectuated, and value is placed on enhancing the organization's ability to innovate. Marc Buelens and Geert Devos elaborate on this contingency position in this handbook (Chapter 1.4). They argue that one of the major problems obstructing the further development of change theories is the desire to develop a general theory that can be applied to all change efforts. In their perspective, a clear understanding of the specific situation and complexity of organizing and changing is essential for selecting an appropriate change strategy. They distinguish four change strategies for specific situations. Change in traditional settings demands a combination of action planning and strong leadership. In the context of crisis and high pressure a planned approach with project management is more appropriate. Change in professional settings demands a strategy based on participation and negotiation with elements of action planning. In an experimental setting a development approach is appropriate based on a joint process of problem definition and problem solving. Despite these guidelines, the selection of an appropriate strategy can still result in change failures when the choice of change strategy is extremely one-sided and possibilities for integrating different strategies are neglected. Working on change needs the art of inquiring various contexts, and the art of choosing methodologies which are in accordance with these contexts.

Organization development, planned change, and continuous changing

Reflecting on the assumptions of Organization Development and Planned Change we see fundamental differences in basic values pertaining to organization, human beings, organizational

change, and learning. The differences between change practices are quite clear. Nevertheless, there are similarities as well. Both approaches see organizations as an entity, and more or less as a combination of people and resources to be optimized in a structure which is used to take decisions to achieve defined purposes. Both distinguish between organization and environment, agree on the need for adaptation to environmental developments, distinguish between persons and organizations, focus on the organization of work processes and organizational strategy, and distinguish between change agents and employees.

There are other perspectives on organizing, changing and learning. Luc Hoebeke (Chapter 2.4) gives another view of organizing when he describes how he, as a practitioner and scientist, is confronted with loosely coupled networks of smaller or bigger groups, with lobbying and manipulation, with the creation of 'facts', with many interpretations and realities, with a plethora of voices, silences and exits. It seems there no such thing as an organization as an entity. People working together and relating to each other create processes of organizing, relating and sensemaking. This perspective corresponds with the view of Leon De Caluwé and Hans Vermaak (Chapter 3.2) when they describe organizations as loosely coupled systems and networks of autonomous centers that interrelate in performing activities and are continually searching for identity in an ambiguous world. André Wierdsma (Chapter 3.3) calls this transactional organization in which the performance of activities, maintenance of relationships and creation of meaning are interwoven. From these perspectives organizations are seen as cultural artifacts where people make choices in dealing with complexities and with each other. By making choices they create a subjective reality. In this subjective reality of organizing and changing many dilemmas and paradoxes emerge (see Hoebeke, Chapter 2.4). Perhaps the distinction between Organization Development and Planned Change is just such a paradox which only exists because we want to make sense of the complexity of organizing and changing, and try to predict and manage processes of change.

The contribution of Dian Marie Hosking (Chapter 3.4) gives a critical perspective on organizing, changing and learning. She distances herself from organization theory and organization psychology that separate the organization from people as a context for individual activities, satisfactions, and inter-group relations. This construction of organization and people as separate entities has implications on understanding relations between subjects and objects, and how we look at processes of organizing and changing. From a separated point of view, organizations are seen as logical and objective entities whose outcomes are related to how it fits the environment and to organizational strategies, structures, cultures, and human resources. The distinction between subject and object can be recognized in processes of changing when top management, change managers, and consultants are perceived as being active subjects in relation to an organization that is there to be known and changed. The subject is assumed to make social realities and relationships and influence others as objects that can be shaped. This subject-object view of organizations and people is reflected in methodologies of Organization Development and Planned Change which focus mainly on changing organizational structures, technologies, human relations and individual competencies to match environmental contingencies. In the perspective of Dian Marie Hosking (Chapter 3.4) on organizing, changing and learning, the relation between person and organization is seen as one of mutual creation: through their interactions people construct an organization as a social reality, which in turn reflects and influences interactions. Language plays a key role in constructing these social realities. To understand processes of organizing and changing attention is given to multiple, local-historical and social realities that are constructed in relational processes and through interaction. Social realities emerge in ongoing interactions as interweaving activities, relationships and meanings. These interactions are processes in which realities are constructed, actively maintained, and changed.

When organizing, changing and learning are seen as interactive processes in which people construct their relationships, activities and meanings, the basic assumptions and methodology of organizational change are constructed in a new way (see the Introduction and the contributions in Part III). This way of looking at organizing and changing might be helpful in understanding the

tensions between Organization Development and Planned Change; it provides ways to understand our own bias in dilemmas of organizing and changing, and helps to choose a position between the two sides of these dilemmas. Perhaps it is useful to construct this perspective as Theory C (see Table 2).

Table 2: Continuous changing and constructing realities

Continuous changing and constructing realities (Theory C)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Organizing and changing is an ongoing process of inter-activities, sensemaking, and self making - Human beings construct organizing and changing as social realities by multiple interaction and sensemaking - Employees, organizational leaders and consultants interact and work together in a non-hierarchical manner - Changing and organizing is a process of endless modifications in work processes and social realities - Changing and organizing is rooted in multiple realities to facilitate ways of relating that are open to new possibilities - Changing and organizing becomes a continuous and interrelated process in which all participants are involved - Focus on accommodations and modifications based on interweaving activities, interrelations and sensemaking - Involvement of all stakeholders as participants in a joint interaction process of creating new realities - Searching for new possibilities in a continuous process of transformation and learning - Continuous changing with no end state; accumulation of endless small accommodations - Cyclical process of changing and equilibrium seeking between stability and change: freeze-rebalance-unfreeze-freeze - Social constructionist rationality in which relations and realities are constructed as real in their consequences - An ongoing process of improvising, sensemaking and accommodating - Concrete inter-activities in multiple, local-historical and social realities - Changing is a collaborative approach in which everyone contributes as an expert - Inquiring, intervening and changing are left joined - Learning and knowledge development as process of interaction, reflection and sensemaking by all participants

Changing becomes a continuous process. To illustrate this process of continuous changing Karl Weick and Robert Quinn (Chapter 3.1) turn Lewin's three-stage change model of unfreeze-change-refreeze around in an equilibrium-seeking cycle of freeze-rebalance-unfreeze-freeze (see also: Cummings, Chapter 1.1). This cycle is constructed and emerges as the change process unfolds. Freezing makes patterns visible through narratives, metaphors, causal loop diagrams, cognitive maps, and schemes. Rebalancing is a process of reinterpretation, re-labeling, and re-sequencing patterns to reduce blocks and to open new possibilities for interaction and sensemaking. Unfreezing resumes improvisation, translation, and learning in ways that are more mindful.

Changing is a continuous activity at local levels where people interact and make sense of their own social reality. On this local level histories, narratives, practices, and multiple realities may be voiced and contribute to small-scale changes. These small-scale changes can be decisive if they occur at the edge of chaos or in a context of rebalancing and unfreezing. In their contribution, Leon De Caluwé and Hans Vermaak (Chapter 3.2) relate to chaos theory to understand how large systems become innovative and adaptive systems. Small changes can have large consequences because of self-reinforcing feedback loops and relations in a social network. In interconnected systems small changes emerge through the diversity and interconnectedness of many micro-conversations (Ford & Ford, 1995). Micro-level changes provide a platform and a context for transformational change on macro-level.

Changing is a collaborative approach in which everyone contributes as an expert (see Emery, Chapter 1.2; Levin, Chapter 1.3 and Hosking, Chapter 3.4). This means that everyone is included who has an involvement in change issues enabling multiple local realities in different but equal relations. Of course, several roles can be played in this process of interaction, and in attempts to understand how things are really going on here. In processes of interaction, to

understand social realities and construct new multiple realities, organizational leaders, employees, consultants and change agents contribute different knowledge and experiences. Organizational leaders may introduce the voice of shareholders, present their perspectives of global developments, and express their concern about continuity. Employees may express how things are really going on, explain processes of inertia, share their experiences with customers, competitors and market developments, and express their relationship with colleagues and managers. Consultants and change agents may share their experience with changing and organizing, contribute to reframing current patterns, introduce new language, unblock improvisations, facilitate dialogues, and open up new possibilities. These ways of relating that are not based on hierarchy or expertise make space for sustaining multiple interdependent ways of organizing and changing, and give free play to multiple local realities (see De Caluwé & Vermaak, Chapter 3.2).

Possibilities and positive values are centered and changing is focused on interweaving activities, interrelations, and sensemaking. Working with what is valued as being positive invites participants to learn how better to improvise and stimulate the exchange of experiences. Small-scale innovations diffuse naturally and contribute to large-scale change. Creating new possibilities strengthens a holistic vision of social reality and allows scope for intuiting, improvising, imagination, and the desire for better futures.

Inquiring and intervening are left joined in a continuous process of transformation and reconstruction. Inquiring may articulate multiple narratives and relations, and it supports searching for patterns of inertia, understanding multiple relationships, exploring new ways for carrying on together, and experimenting with new ways of organizing and changing. In this sense, inquiring is a process of deconstructing and constructing social realities and an ongoing process of intervening.

Changing is connected to learning as a collective process. Changing and learning on the level of principles means that people reorder relationships and activities, and deconstruct and reconstruct meanings together (see Wierdsma, Chapter 3.3). Learning is seen as a change in routines, response repertoires, and basic assumptions about social realities and interrelations. A range of skills, rules, insights, principles, and knowledge is altered in an interactive process of relating, acting, reflecting, interpreting, and sensemaking.

The reflection in this section and the presentation of Theory C on organizing and changing seems to be prescriptive and presented as espoused theory. Nevertheless, many principles in organizing and changing presented here can be recognized in organizational life, and practices in continuous changing are reflected in theories-in-use presented in this handbook. The perspective of Theory C corresponds with the trajectory of continuous changing as described by Karl Weick & Robert Quinn (Chapter 3.1), the White-print paradigm of changing presented by Leon De Caluwé and Hans Vermaak (Chapter 3.2), the presentation of transactional organizing and co-creation of change by André Wierdsma (Chapter 3.3), and the critical perspective of Dian Marie Hosking (Chapter 3.4). These contributions and the paradigm constructed in Theory C may be helpful in understanding why change projects are seldom fully implemented and why many change programs fail to achieve intended results. This perspective may help to reflect on change works and can be helpful in understanding complexity in organizational change. It offers new possibilities in organizing and changing, and can be helpful in choosing position in multiple paradigms and dilemmas of organizing, changing and learning.

Teaching, learning and interactive learning

This handbook presents several perspectives on organizational learning. These perspectives are related to the paradigms on organizing and changing as discussed in this handbook and reflected upon in this chapter. Several authors distinguish between first-, second-, and third-order learning (see the Introduction; Cummings, Chapter 1.1.; Wierdsma, Chapter 3.3. and Smit & Beckett, Chapter 5.3).

First-order or single-loop learning focuses on changing rules, practices and competencies. It is a passive internalization of an existing culture in which the learner copies correct behavior that is readily available in an organizational context. Learning is knowledge acquisition and the application of the rules of action based on an acquired store of knowledge and experience. The acquisition and improvement of skills and competencies are important.

First-order learning is related to the grammar of behaviorism and the cognitive school of thought (see Sauguet, Chapter 5.1.). It corresponds with Model I theories-in-use as described by Chris Argyris (Chapter 5.2) and the ideas of positional organization presented by André Wierdsma (Chapter 3.3). This type of learning is congruent with a design principle which Merrelyn Emery calls redundancy of parts, according to which people are seen as parts and human resources (Chapter 1.2). First-order learning is based on explicit knowledge and connected to embrained and encoded knowledge as described by Alice Lam in her critical reflection (Chapter 5.4).

First-order learning takes the form of learning by conditioning, learning by imitation or learning by teaching. Training programs are provided to impart skills and basic competencies or to change human behavior. This kind of learning is often visible as a specific phase in planned change programs which teach employees new competencies helping them to operate in new contexts. The learners are seen as objects and as human capital, and teachers are the ones who know.

Second-order or double-loop learning focuses on changing rules and insights. It is an active adaptation in finding out how correct solutions can be produced when the context does not provide for copying existing rules of action and known solutions no longer work.

Second-order learning is related to the cognitive school of thought and to pragmatism (see Sauguet, Chapter 5.1). In the cognitive school learning is understood to be a proper connection between values, thoughts, actions, and outcomes. Knowledge can be transformed and managed as any other resource, and new routines and insights can be shared with others. It corresponds with Model II theories-in-use (see Argyris, Chapter 5.2), the design principle of redundancy of functions (see Emery, Chapter 1.2), and ideas of transactional organization (see Wierdsma, Chapter 3.3). Second-order learning is connected to embodied knowledge which focuses on practical and individual types of knowledge that is developed through experience and reflection (see Lam, Chapter 5.4). These perspectives on organization and learning influence learning programs which have attempted to move beyond conceptual transmission through teaching. Learning is associated with purposeful action and it is close to adaptation as it involves replacing current values and insights by new ones. The learning process is basically individual but it takes place in a social context and affects social organization through the exchange of new insights.

One form of second-order learning based on the cognitive school is problem-solving through experimentation and the exchange of successful practices through the use of knowledge systems. The Pragmatic school of thought on learning proposes action learning programs in which participants confront actual problems in small learning groups with the purpose of solving them and learning at the same time (see also: Revans, 1998). Individuals learn to explore different perspectives on problems and issues, and to link their exploration to the development of the organization, their relationships with others, and to reflection on their own insights and assumptions. Experimental learning and action learning are often visible in Organization Development practices. Learners play and explore in a purposeful action to develop individual competencies and competencies of the organization to cope with environmental changes. The role of consultants and trainers is beyond teaching and closer to facilitating learning processes on individual and organizational levels.

Third-order or deutero learning is initiated by interactions in organizational networks and reflections on principles of organizing and changing. Learners question the validity of activities, relationships and meanings posed by context and interactions. During organizing, changing and learning contexts and principles are inquired, deconstructed and reconstructed. Existing cognitive maps and competencies are destroyed and new competences, activities, relations, and meanings

emerge in a process of acting, reflecting and relating. Knowing and learning exist as engaging with others in a context of organizing and changing.

Third-order learning is connected with some insights of the cognitive and the pragmatic schools of thought on learning, and with principles of situated learning (see Sauguet, Chapter 5.1). It is related to transformational organization (Wierdsma, Chapter 3.3), perspectives on organizing as relational construction processes (Hosking, Chapter 3.4), and to principles of interactive learning presented in the Introduction. The cognitive and pragmatic schools help in our understanding of how cognition and action are interrelated in a process of enactment and how people make sense in confusing and ambiguous contexts (see also: Weick, 2001). The school of situated learning suggests that language and symbolic activities may transform principles of organizing and changing. Learning is an interactive process of people acting within social contexts. The social context forms a ground in which ideas, acts and relations as well as learning contents and learning possibilities are constructed. In this sense Alice Lam speaks about organizational embeddedness of knowledge and learning which shapes and inhibits the learning and transformational capabilities of organizational communities (Chapter 5.4.). The dynamics of participation in organizing, changing and leaning enables participants to acquire knowledge in an interactive process with other participants (see Emery, Chapter 1.2 and Levin, Chapter 1.3). Third-order learning is related to embedded knowledge, which is based on shared beliefs and understandings and rooted in communities of practice (see Lam, Chapter 5.4).

Third-order learning implies that meanings are constructed socially in interaction with others, and in dialogue that makes room for multiple voices and multiple social realities. In these interactive processes people try to make complexities and ambiguities clear by constructing a shared meaning to issues and new possibilities. By exchanging meanings, arguments, and ideas participants mutually influence each other's perspectives, insights and principles, which may construct new sets of values on organizing, changing and learning. In third-order learning people learn how to learn. This perspective points to the importance of social interaction, contexts, trust for learning, and development of knowledge. Knowledge is seen as being subjective and tacit, not easily codified and difficult to transmit independent of the subject (see Lam, Chapter 5.4.). This kind of learning and development of knowledge contributes to the accumulation of knowledge on identity formation, community building, and working principles in social realities. Learners, members of organizational communities, and people creating and holding social contexts are subjects in processes of self-making and world-making.

Dynamics of organizational change and learning

Undoubtedly, theories and practices of organizational change and learning have become more elaborate, complex, and dynamic during the past decades. At the same time, people in organizations experience many changes in their professional life which are not helpful or successful. In many organizations change projects succeed each other, while the results of these change efforts are dubious. What are the reasons for the dynamics in the world of management and organization? How can we understand the increased attention in questioning existing theories and practices on organizational change and learning?

Of course, the dynamics in organizational change and learning could be explained from an environment which seems less predictable, more turbulent, and more dynamic. The boundaries between organizations and their surroundings are becoming vaguer as a result of globalization, developments in communication technology, changes in distribution channels, growth in knowledge and exchange of knowledge, building of strategic alliances and networks, increasing interdependence between public and private sectors, and growing concern for good governance. Furthermore, market demands seem to be higher than ever with economic instability, higher demands from shareholders, increased competition, and time-based competition.

The dynamics in organizational change and learning may be understood from the internal complexity of organizations. This complexity grew because of the expansion of organizations, the availability of new technologies, more attention for the customer chain, the diversity in cultural

background of employees, increased alienation or increased structural tensions, conflicts and political mechanisms.

The external and internal world of management and organization seems to be less structured, more dynamic, and more ambiguous. But I don't see this as a satisfactory explanation why tensions arise in theories and practices of organizational change and learning. The explanations so far distinguish between organization and environment, and see organizations as an entity separated from change managers. The reasoning goes outside in from the environment to the organization. The reasoning does not take the choices and principles of scholars and practitioners in organizational change and learning into account. It does not reflect on ways in which we construct dynamics in change and learning by ourselves.

To understand the dynamics of organizational change and learning it is worthwhile to reflect on our own practices and thinking as scholars and practitioners in organizing, changing and learning. The construction of our own framework has momentous implications for our actions and the choices we make. In my view, the dynamics we experience in theories and practices lie not in the changing environment or changing organizations, but in the conceptual frameworks and assumptions we use ourselves in organizing, changing and learning. These assumptions lie behind the choice of frameworks, change strategies, and methods. To understand dynamics of change and learning that we experience, it is useful to examine the ideas and assumptions that lie behind our practices. What does it mean to opt for a specific change approach? What are the implications of this choice? The distinctions we made between Planned Change (Theory E), Organization Development (Theory O), and Continuous Changing (Theory C) may be helpful in understanding difficulties we experience in organizing, changing and learning, and in constructing new realities and possibilities for organizational change and learning.

Perhaps the theory and practice of Planned Change underestimates value differences, creativity of people, how problem definition and problem solving are interrelated, and principles of second-order learning. These neglects may result in resistance and avoidance, superficial change, and management based on control and intervention. The theory and practices of Organization Development may underestimate the importance of conflict, institutional control, and how values are embedded in autocratic management and positional organization, resulting in inertia during changing and learning, and failure in reaching sustainable changes. And perhaps theories and practices of Continuous Changing underestimate economic drives, power and politics, the dominant influence of traditional management practices, and difficulties in the diffusion of knowledge. Does this distinction in theories and practices mean that there is a need to develop an integrated perspective on how to manage change effectively and that we have to break the code of change? (Beer & Nohria, 2000). I don't think so. To avoid an unproductive discussion on effectiveness, and to avoid attempts to smooth over epistemological differences, I argue in favor of making clear differences between approaches that fundamentally differ in underlying values and principles. This can be helpful for scholars and practitioners to reflect on their own assumptions, fascinations, preferences and values, and to position themselves in the dynamic field of organizing, changing and learning. The reality of organizing, changing and learning is a multiple reality full of tensions, conflicts, and dynamics, and we are well-advised to use these dynamics in our professional learning and the development of knowledge.

Theories are conceptual narratives with underlying assumptions that provide us with views of the essence of reality, how we can understand reality, and how we can build knowledge to understand and change realities. Every theory has value as well as limitations as arbitrary views of reality. All theories provide us with methodologies that are applicable in specific contexts and of no use in other contexts. Therefore, a deliberate and conscious choice of change methodologies by consultants and change managers needs an extensive body of knowledge, reflection-in-action, and reflecting on the way in which we learn and develop knowledge. Debates between the different approaches and their working principles could attribute to our knowledge and the diffusion of knowledge as well as to the development of new theories on organizational change and learning. We ourselves created the dynamics of organizational change and learning by

constructing theories, principles, methodologies and practices, and by applying them in social realities of organizational life. These dynamics, which we create as practitioners and scholars, opens up new perspectives in professional dialogues with all participants active in organizing, changing and learning.

Issues in organizational change and learning

In the previous section different theories on organizational change and learning were presented based on multiple perspectives presented in this handbook. This reflective overview may be helpful in reflecting on one's own Theories-in-use and choosing and developing one's own methodologies. This section reflects on some issues in organizational change and learning that are discussed in various parts of this handbook. These issues seem to be main themes and offer possibilities for the development of practices and the construction of knowledge.

Failures and success

There are many explanations for failures of organizational change. The strategic management perspective looks for the cause of failures in problems with implementation, lack of sufficient support, or technical and political factors that hinder the implementation of the strategic policy by those implementing it. The structural perspective suggests technologies in place and the division of labor are the main reasons for difficulties in realizing effective change. The perspective of power and politics attributes the failures in organizational change to existing power relationships and agents defending their interests and positions. The cultural perspective seeks the reasons for barriers to change in rules, habits, institutional arrangements, and values within the organization limiting the ability of people to develop alternative behaviors and interaction patterns. The psychological perspective attributes problems encountered in change processes primarily to lack of employee motivation and people's desire for certainty, security and stability (see also: Introduction of this handbook). These perspectives seek obstacles for change in the existing organization and the behavior of people in this organization. Many intervention methods are suggested to overcome these barriers, i.e., interactive policy development, redesigning business processes, breaking politics by using legitimate power, broad cultural training programs, game simulations, conference methods, large group interventions, reduction of uncertainty through teaching, and good communication concerning the change. Reflecting on these explanations and interventions we see how a distinction is made between organization, people, and change managers. Aspects of the organization and people in the organization are seen as things that have to be changed as objectives by change managers as knowing subjects. Failures are not explained by the change process itself, the choice of frameworks, the choice of change strategies, the assumptions and behavior of change agents, and the interactions of people involved in change.

There are also multiple clarifications of failures that reflect on the change process itself. Attention is given to a perspective based on change management practices, a perspective rooted in values and basic assumptions, and an interactive perspective.

The change management perspective proposes that ineffective change management stems from the fact that the environment, the organization, and the change strategy that is chosen do not fit. Marc Buelens and Geert Devos (Chapter 1.4) present some generic failures in change management, i.e., failing to see that the environment of the organization is changing, choosing and applying an ineffective change strategy, and a one-sided implementation of change strategies. Furthermore, they call for attention to a lack of vision for change, a lack of accepting goal discongruence and value differences, a lack of creativity and poor decision making, and a lack of understanding the change strategy and the progression of change. The failure of not reading the environment correctly is supported by Carnall (Chapter 2.1). Other failures he proposes are a one-sided, human behaviorist approach to change, ineffective leadership of change managers, the absence of an integrated approach, and the implementation of change in only one part of the organization. Klaus Doppler (Chapter 2.2.) adds several failures connected to the change manager's actions, namely, lack of clarity as to the reason and purpose for change, top-down

steering and control of change managers, not involving those who will be affected, too many change projects at once without a clear necessity, no thought for vested interests, insufficient communication as to the purpose of change and the continuation in change projects. Kilian Gravenhorst and Roel In't Veld (Chapter 4.3) state that obstacles in change should be understood as being a response to a chosen change strategy by change managers. Change strategies often focus on single issues and on implementing solutions as identified and formulated by change strategists and top managers. In their view, change processes are underestimated or neglected too often.

The perspective focusing on assumptions of change managers suggests that managers use a traditional, positional or episodic view of organizing and changing. These assumptions influence the purposes of change and how the change processes are managed. Merrelyn Emery (Chapter 1.2) believes the traditional view of organizing is reflected in the use of a closed system framework, an organizational design principle based on redundancy of parts, and a lack of interaction between subject and object. Klaus Doppler (Chapter 2.2) refers to old concepts of leaders as heroes, organizations as clear structures with division of functions, personnel as reproducible objects, and planning as a procedure to ensure accountability and steadiness of purpose. André Wierdsma (Chapter 3.3) explains how the model of positional organization focuses on external control and programmable behavior with functional and cognitive barriers between managers, professionals in staff departments, and employees. Positional organization assumes that there is consensus on the aims of the organization, that organizational culture is a binding force, and that hierarchal structures contribute to control and clear responsibilities. In these organizations there is a strong internal focus on stability and change is an episodic implementation process for a new design.

The interaction perspective considers organizing and changing as an ongoing process of interaction, sensemaking and self making. Failures of organizing, changing and learning have to be sought in these processes of interaction and sensemaking. During interaction and sensemaking actors have a certain amount of freedom to interact. At the same time, interaction and sensemaking are restricted by institutionalized contexts and assumptions that are taken for granted and as such embedded in existing distinctions, technologies, and routines that were constructed in earlier interactions (see also: Lam, Chapter 5.4). It is not unusual that open interactions and dialogue about principles of organization and changing never start because of the dominant values based on positional organizing and Model I reasoning (see Argyris, Chapter 5.2). Defensive routines may develop during interaction processes in organizing and changing. These routines prevent people from experiencing embarrassment and, at the same time, prevents them from discovering the causes of embarrassment. As a result, there is a growing misunderstanding and mistrust which in turn inhibits interacting, changing and learning. If interactions about these principles do start, people could create contexts at the edge of chaos and may no longer be able to find a new balance in organizing and changing. As a result, conflicts may arise which cannot be overcome, interaction stops, and the process of organizing and changing comes to an end.

Practitioners and scholars looking for failures in organizing and changing may reflect on the different explanations provided above, and ask themselves: 'What do I do wrong, that the other person is behaving so oddly, and that changing and learning are blocked?'

Success in organizational change and learning depends on the purposes or the perceived outcomes of organizing and changing. Assessing success is difficult because different actors might pursue different purposes, start from different value systems, and might give different and conflicting interpretations to the same events and outcomes. Therefore, I choose to reflect on principles, insights and methods that may contribute to success. Based on the contributions and descriptions in this handbook, success factors can be identified that contribute to successful organizational change and learning. This is not easy task given the different approaches to change. Some success factors we agreed on, others are conflicting. Success factors in this handbook that we agreed on are listed in Table 3. The insights and use of methods are embedded in the values underlying the change approaches described in the previous section. This means that the methods can be applied in very different ways depending on the epistemological framework you choose.

Table 3: Success factors in organizational change

Success factors in organizational change
Principles:
<ul style="list-style-type: none">- There is no one best way in organizing and changing- Human beings are motivated by meaningful work- Organization is a process of interaction- Participation of stakeholders in changing contributes to involvement and engagement- Learning is an ongoing process of reflecting and interacting- Knowledge construction is an ongoing process in which every member has a voice
Insights:
<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Concentrate on accelerating diffusion and incorporate practices with positive effect- Realize genuine participation of all people and actors involved in organizing and changing- Design and execute methods with genuine collaboration in active and adapted change- Opt for flexibility rather than mechanistic order in terms of fixed designs or steps- First concentrate on design of social systems, and secondly on adaptation of technological systems- Create a joint and reflective learning process for all participants involved in organizing and changing- Continually monitor change processes to reflect on the process and the outcomes in order to make conscious decisions on how to advance- Deliberate the involvement of outsiders and external stakeholders in organizing and changing- Give strict attention to the horizontal work processes oriented towards clients and customers- Ensure active, multi-sided communication and dialogue

The epistemological frameworks contribute to different perspectives and practices in organizational change and learning. Grounded in these differences there appear to be some debates on success factors in organizing and changing.

One ambiguous issue is the importance of taking horizontal work processes and the customer value stream as a point of departure for organizing and changing. From the perspective of Planned Change and Theory E, this statement is quite obvious. But from the perspective of Organization Development and Continuous Changing there are also reasons to deliberate this insight carefully. Scholars in Organization Development see the workplace and self steering groups as the most important unit in designing and changing organizations, and these units are related to horizontal work processes. Scholars and practitioners in Continuous Changing refer to activity systems, work systems or communities of practice as groups in which interaction, sensemaking, and organizing is most profound. This means that groups in the value stream are the most obvious points of action. Besides this, focusing on the value stream proves opportunities for relating the world of customers, suppliers, and competitors with organizing, changing and learning.

Reflecting on the contributions in this handbook we can see opposing views as to success factors. These opposing views correspond with the values behind the change approaches as discussed earlier. From the perspective of Planned Change, success factors are:

- Create problem awareness and awareness of the need for change
- Build a system of credible and valid measurements of performance aimed at understanding how well we are doing as compared to competitors
- Opt for an organization-wide approach and implement change in the whole organization
- Get people and departments in the organization in line with the objectives and directions for change
- Broadening and mobilizing support for change, mobilize commitment and resources

From the perspective of Continuous Changing, these insights are doubtful because they suppose an active change agent as subject who manages other people as object. Secondly, measurements of performance assume that there is an objective reality that can be measured; the question is whose performance criteria are to be measured, and whose purposes are to be put aside. Thirdly, the aim for alignment and commitment ignores differences and conflict, while the expression of differences is perceived as being a contribution to changing and learning from the perspective of Continuous Changing. Again, it appears that the application of insights and methods is rooted in the values of change approaches. The explication of one's own assumptions is helpful in developing well-considered methodologies of one's own in organizational change and learning, and helpful to make values and choices explicit in methods for ourselves and others.

Power and empowerment

For many years, little attention was paid to the issue of power in theory and practice of organizational change and learning. And even today, publications on the power issues lag far behind in numbers as compared to publications of empowerment, change strategies, and interventions. Organization Development used to be blamed for the neglect of power and politics (see Bradshaw & Boonstra, Chapter 4.1) and Planned Change was criticized because of the implicit use of power by managers and change agents (see Hardy & Clegg, Chapter 4.4). In Part IV we dedicate our attention to power in processes of organizing and changing. Power can be seen as an actor's capability to achieve his or her own will or as a process of interaction in organization. Patricia Bradshaw and Jaap Boonstra (Chapter 4.1) present four perspectives of power from a dynamic view based on tensions between personal versus collective power, and manifest versus latent power. The four perspectives are related to perspectives on organizational change and change strategies.

The paradigm of personal-manifest power states that power is a force that can be attributed to a person as the potential ability of an agent to influence others. The potential power is grounded in sources of power that can be attributed to specific persons or groups. Cynthia Hardy and Steward Clegg (Chapter 4.4) refer to power as domination when only the legitimate position of management is taken in account. This paradigm can be seen in coercive and expert approaches to change. It presumes an active subject using power over other persons (see Hosking, Chapter 3.4). Power can be used to define objectives for change, control the change process, design new structures with expertise, break through vested interests, align people to change, and realize commitment. This paradigm is especially related to the perspective of Planned Change whereby top management initiates and steers the change process, or to Blue-print thinking of change (see De Caluwé & Vermaak, Chapter 3.3). This perspective becomes more interactive when attention is given to interpersonal power and the use of power by people or groups in interaction. The contribution of Gary Yukl (Chapter 4.2) is one example of this interactive perspective.

The paradigm of structural-manifest power attributes power to positions of specific groups in the structure of the organization or to relational networks. In the view of Cynthia Hardy and Steward Clegg this kind of power is derived from owning and controlling the means of production and is reinforced by organizational rules, procedures, and structures (see Chapter 4.4.). In many organizations the distribution of power is characterized by stability. Sometimes this stability is disrupted by conflicting interests and controversies in decision-making. Negotiation models of change or Yellow-print thinking of change are related to this paradigm (see De Caluwé & Vermaak, Chapter 3.2). However, some variants of Organizational Development are also related when attention is focused on collaboration and solving conflicts, on structural change to realize empowerment or on alignment of technical, structural, cultural, and political systems.

The paradigm of personal-latent power raises the question of how individuals come to limit themselves in behaving, relating, changing and learning. Cynthia Hardy and Steward Clegg pass on disciplinary practices and the formation of dominant ideologies restricting people to develop their identities and activities (Chapter 4.4). On the other hand, the question is raised as to how individual people become active agents in empowerment. Based on this paradigm one can understand how one's own values and beliefs constrain acting and interacting by latent control

mechanisms in contexts which are embedded in dominant discourses and internalized by people. The idea of Model-I reasoning presented by Argyris (Chapter 5.2) is partly related to this perspective. This paradigm could be recognized in the perspective of individual learning and deep reflection as approach to change.

The paradigm of cultural-latent power assumes that organizing is a process of interaction and sensemaking, creating social realities that are reflected in values, principles, rules, institutions, and dominant discourses. The use of power could be prevented by shaping people's assumptions and values (see also: Hardy & Clegg, Chapter 4.4). This paradigm is connected to Organization Development efforts that strive to achieve commitment, adaptation of a new organizational culture, and a harmonious development of new meaning. In general, these efforts take the existing power relations for granted. When the existing power relations and assumptions of those participating in change are taken into account, the perspective of Continuous Changing emerges, giving space to dialogue, interaction, deconstructing and reconstructing, organizing and changing. Non-hierarchical ways of relating can construct power to sustain multiple independent, local ways of proceeding in different but equal relations and can give free play to multiple local realities (see Hosking, Chapter 3.4). The white-print thinking as to change is related to this perspective (see De Caluwé & Vermaak, Chapter 3.2), and also to the perspective of co-creation (see Wierdsma, Chapter 3.3), and the critical concepts of Change-works described by Dian Marie Hosking (Chapter 3.4). Many of the ideas on learning presented in Part V are related to this paradigm, although the issue of power is not always discussed explicitly.

This reflection on power teaches us that organizing and changing inevitably involves power. Neglecting power games may result in excluding voices, ignoring identities, avoiding conflict, denying ambiguity, neglecting the rules of the game, overlooking the roles of different players, and closing space for changing and learning. This may result in conforming existing order and putting aside possibilities for transformational change.

Resistance and commitment

Contrary to the limited awareness of power relations, resistance is given a lot of attention in theory and practice of organizational change. This seems strange from the perspective that there is no resistance without force (see Hosking, Chapter 3.4), and from the view that resistance and power comprise a system of power relations in which both domination and liberation are possible (see Hardy & Clegg, Chapter 4.4).

In their contribution, Kilian Gravenhorst and Roel In't Veld give an overview of perceptions on resistance to change (Chapter 4.3). The traditional perception in management literature states that resistance is illegitimate, dysfunctional and self-interested behavior that has to be beaten. This reasoning implies that if there is resistance, there is a justification for the use of power on the part of managers. In mainstream change literature resistance is seen as an inevitable and natural behavioral reaction to organizational change. This behavior has been explained from individual psychological factors such as fear, low motivation, preference for stability, self-distrust, and insecurity. Another more political explanation for resistance is found in the behavior of people defending their own interests. Resistance may also be perceived as a misunderstanding of the change and its implications, or employees doubting the objectives or feasibility of the change. From this perspective, resistance is seen as an expression of concern that has to be taken seriously. In these explanations, resistance is attributed to people as objects for change, and resistance is seen as a barrier that has to be recognized and responded to in the right way by change agents as purposeful subjects. One of these right ways is to show sincere interest in the individual situation and personal opinions, and to build trust and an atmosphere in which fragile ideas and emotions can be voiced. Another possibility is active communication between change managers and the people affected to get things in motion as required (see Doppler, Chapter 2.2).

From Organization Development approaches, resistance is allocated more to ongoing social processes in organizations creating driving and restraining forces that affect change (see Cummings Chapter 1.1). Backgrounds for resistance are existing work habits and routines, cultural values developing over time, group thinking in teams, decision making in organizational

strategies, and the application and use of technologies. Driving and restraining forces shape how social processes evolve over time creating a quasi-stationary equilibrium. To change organizations, driving and restraining forces must first be identified. The strengths of these opposing forces can then be decreased or increased to achieve desired change. The underlying assumption is that effective change strategies face less resistance when restraining forces are reduced and driving forces are promoted. If the assumption is made that people are open to purposeful systems that have potential for seeking the ideal, sufficient conditions for motivated actions lie within the people and their interactions with others. Motivation to change can be increased by changing the nature of their interactions and transactions between subject and object (see also: Emery, Chapter 2.1).

Another interactive view on resistance is put forward by Kilian Gravenhorst and Roel In't Veld (Chapter 4.3). They state that change approaches that exclude relevant stakeholders are a main reason for resistance. Resistance is not seen here as an entity of a person or a group, but as a purposeful action of an actor in reaction to an action of another actor. Their explanation of resistance is sought in the traditional top-down management of change processes, and in the exclusion of relevant stakeholders. Resistance is now an indication of bad change management and managers can prevent resistance by choosing a change approach that allows for cooperation and involvement of relevant stakeholders. Interventions to support this change strategy are survey feedback, conference methods, process management, and third party interventions. This interactive perspective on resistance and commitment is supported by Gary Yukl (Chapter 4.2). He shows that the use of consultation, collaboration, and inspiration is effective for realizing commitment, while pressure by means of threats and rewards, and legitimating the need and approach for change are likely to result in compliance or resistance.

The interactive perspective on resistance is revisited by Cynthia Hardy and Steward Clegg (Chapter 4.4). They make clear that the strategy of involving different stakeholders is close to a unitary view of management to give meaning to ambiguous situations by giving attention to different points of view, facilitating interactions, consulting people in defining problems and directions for improvement, and inspire people to contribute to change and collaborate in organizing and changing. Undoubtedly, an interactive change strategy and many of the suggested interventions result in commitment for transitional or second-order change, although their contribution to transformational or third-order change is uncertain. This reflection on resistance makes it clear that the underlying values and assumptions on human beings, power, organization, and change shape our ideas about the reasons for resistance and affect the choice of interventions or acts of people involved. The questions remain as to whether we want to bring the content, the rules, and the players of the game under discussion, and to what extent we consider change strategies and interventions to be ethically acceptable.

Persuasion and communicating

Many contributions in this handbook give attention to communication processes, but the approaches differ. Is communication the vehicle and propellant for change? Is it close to persuasion? Could communication be used by change agents to generate and sustain new conversations that contribute to shared visions and commitment? Is communicating a necessary condition for people to act socially? Or is communicating equivalent to organizing, changing and learning?

Those who use a conceptual framework of Planned Change make distinctions between communication, organization, change, and people. To overcome problems in the structure of the organization it is important to have proper communication skills. Communication is helpful in spreading information, coordinating activities, and reducing conflicts in the organization. Proper communication in change programs reduces uncertainties by informing people, introduces other courses of action by instructing, or contributes to successful change by enlightening and through empowerment. Many 'laws of good communication' are proposed, i.e., communication must be reciprocal, consistent, complete, authentic, based on data and shared goals, and repeated many times. The communicator needs to be credible, aware of the inner state of the addressee, and open

to feedback (see Doppler, Chapter 2.2 and Walton & Russell, Chapter 2.3). These ideas come close to persuasion. The change agent and communicator may use several influences or communication tactics in interaction with others, such as rational persuasion, inspirational appeals, consultation, and apprising. Gary Yukl (Chapter 4.2) provides guidelines on how to use these communication tactics to influence commitment in change. He discards pressure and legitimating as tactics which are not very successful in realizing commitment for change. Merrelyn Emery (Chapter, 2.1) makes it clear that in organizations based on the design principle of redundancy of parts, relations are not symmetrical and lack the reciprocity of sender and receiver. In these organizations there is an absence of discussion, a predominance of orders and instruction, and an autocratic style of management with persuasion, pressure, and legitimating as the main communication principles. Cynthia Hardy and Steward Clegg (Chapter 4.4) place this perspective on communication and change in rational and unitary views on organizing, and criticize the idea that the application of communication strategies by change managers avoids resistance and stimulates change because the underlying value structure of the organization and its members is not changed.

Organization development scholars and practitioners emphasize participation, dialogue, collective reflection, and knowledge construction as critical processes of organizing and changing. Participation and dialogue create knowledge that is built on the experience of the actors involved, and are distilled through their reflection process (see Emery, Chapter 1.2. and Levin, Chapter 1.3). Communication is reciprocal and almost equivalent to organizational development. In search conferences and dialogue conferences people develop a joint understanding of 'what is going on', 'what to do', and 'how to proceed'. The developmental process builds on collective interaction and communication leading to participative learning and experimentation. In these conferences, everybody has a voice and the obligation to judge arguments that are put forward (see also: Emery, 1999 and Gustavsen, 1992). In participative design workshops, conferences, and large group interventions, new forms of communicating take place when people from different hierarchical levels and units work together in mixed groups, diagnosing the existing situation and developing new futures (see Gravenhorst & In't Veld, Chapter 4.3). The communication itself creates change in organizational arrangements and communication patterns, and opens up new possibilities for communicating and organizing. Hardy and Clegg (Chapter 4.4) relate this perspective of communication to a humanist and unitary view of organizations in which common goals bind people to the organization, and caution us that this kind of communication may result in seductive change strategies and manipulation.

From the conceptual framework of Continuous Changing, communication constructs meanings which emerge from social interacting in ongoing processes of organizing and changing. Communicating, organizing and changing are interrelated. In organizing and changing, meanings that were formed previously may be destroyed and alternative and new meanings may be created. In transactional organizations people perform activities, form relations, create meaning, and construct social realities. Meanings arise in language. Language is embedded in communities and becomes an interpretative framework for giving meaning to activities (see also: Wierdsma, Chapter 3.3). The use of language in communication constructs social realities, and at the same time language is deconstructed and reconstructed in organizing and changing. Change-works enable multiple-voicing, not to increase the likelihood of acceptance or the quality of solutions, but to include multiple local realities, to imagine new ways of going on together, and to construct new realities in organizing and changing (see Hosking, chapter 3.4). In this line of thought communicating is organizing, changing and learning.

Roles of change managers and consultants

Change managers and consultants can take on different roles in organizational change and learning, namely, powerful change agent, expert, process manager, facilitator, friendly outsider or active participant.

The role of powerful change agent refers to the existing organizational hierarchy that renders managers the ability to control the organization and the behavior of others, and to change

the organizational structure and processes. This role may be fulfilled by organizational leaders who feel responsible for effective change and by consultants who operate as interim managers. The powerful change agent sets the goals, imposes and declares organizational change and leads and controls the change program by using legitimate position power. This power stems from the formal position of the change agent and implies the use of positive and negative sanctions such as rewards, support, coercion, warnings and threats. In order to employ sanctions, it is necessary to know how the change program is proceeding and to what extent employees perform the required actions. Therefore, feedback and control systems are widely used. Other power bases could be used besides legitimate power, such as inspiring people and arousing enthusiasm by appealing to aspirations, using relationships to lay coalitions, using knowledge and information to persuade others, apprising others why change is beneficial for them, and legitimating the change by pleading scarcity and threats from the environment (see Yukl, Chapter 4.2). This role of the powerful and active change agent is related to positional organization (see Wierdsma, Chapter 3.3) and connects with what Bradshaw and Boonstra (Chapter 4.1.) call manifest-personal and manifest-structural power. The approach to change is based on personal-position power. It fits with Episodic change in which the role of the change agents is that of prime mover who creates change (see Weick & Quinn, Chapter 3.1).

The role of expert is connected to particular abilities, skills, and expertise of the change agent. These change agents use expert knowledge to assist groups in the organization in analyzing and solving problems. The experts use their analytical and planning skills, and focus on knowledge and results (see De Caluwé & Vermaak, Chapter 3.2). This role can be fulfilled by professional staff members or external consultants who take on a role as advisor to management or as project leader. The change manager as organizational expert contributes to change through expertise in specific fields, such as information technology, business strategy, work processes, business design or employee motivation. Business consultants usually start the change process by business and information analyses based on an economic technological rationality. The change manager as behavioral expert contributes to change by assisting managers with an efficient implementation operation mostly within the perspective and goals as defined by managers. Behavioral knowledge is now used to realize compliance with or commitment to the implementation of changes. In this situation, behavioral science and practice become a form of social engineering. The role of expert is related to manifest-personal power, and an expert-power approach to change (see Bradshaw & Boonstra, Chapter 4.1). This role is linked to Blue-print thinking (see De Caluwé & Vermaak, Chapter 3.2), and fits in Episodic change in which experts, in collaboration with management, are prime movers and subjects of change.

Process managers depart from a pluralist perspective on organizational change. This view maintains that groups and departments are dependent on each other but on the other hand pursue their own interests (see Hardy & Clegg, Chapter 4.4). The change model is characterized by conflict management and negotiation and connects with surface-structural power relations (see Bradshaw & Boonstra, Chapter 4.1). Process managers focus on preventing conflict in the change process by regulating the participation of groups involved by structuring the decision making process, facilitating negotiations on the objectives of change and the way the change process is organized and managed. Negotiations are directed at smoothing opposition, tensions, and differences in opinion between parties. The objective is to accomplish agreement that does justice to the interests of all parties involved (see also: Gravenhorst & In't Veld, Chapter 4.3). The freedom of choice of parties involved needs to be taken into account, as well as the equality of parties, equal changes for alternatives, mutual control over decision making, the majority of votes, and the preferences of minorities. Managing the process of policy formation, and creating support demand certain political skills of the process manager, as well as the ability to operate in complex arenas of interest. Leon de Caluwé and Hans Vermaak relate this role to Yellow-print thinking (see Chapter 3.2).

Facilitating can be conducted in many ways. It can be based in the application of behavioral knowledge and take on a form of management by seduction (see Bradshaw and Boonstra, Chapter 4.1). In this case, the facilitator is a purposeful subject in change and helps the

organization and the employees by striving for commitment, harmonious development of new meaning, and adoption of new attitudes, organizational constellations and cultural values. Change is implemented gradually and the process allows the participation of all people involved. In the Red-print school of thought, the facilitator is there to change soft aspects of an organization, such as management style, competences, and cooperation (see De Caluwé & Vermaak, Chapter 3.2). This school of thought is focused on motivating the human factor and developing human competencies and talents by applying human resources management techniques and by teaching and training. This facilitating method verges upon Episodic change because the change activities carried out by the facilitator stop when new human resources techniques are implemented or culture learning programs come to an end. In the Green-print school of thought, facilitators focus on setting up learning environments. The facilitator supports the development of continuous learning in collective settings and participates in action learning settings and co-creation for change and development (see also Wierdsma, Chapter 3.3). The contribution of the facilitator lies in the creation and continual monitoring of conditions to facilitate continuous learning processes. The facilitator is the friendly outsider as described by Levin (Chapter 1.3). Levin states that it is vital for the outsider to introduce a professional conceptualization of the principles of Organization Development as it guides the structuring of change activities, makes the mutual roles of all people involved clear, and helps insiders to understand the premises on which transformation is founded. In this kind of facilitating, action research could be used to generate a collective knowledge base, and to shape new relations and interactions. These new relation patterns may support the development of new activities, behaviors, values, and norms. This may help to enhance the change and learning abilities of the organization and its members. The role of the facilitator as a friendly outsider is rooted in the paradigm of cultural-latent power (see Bradshaw & Boonstra, Chapter 4.1). This role of friendly outsider could be associated with Continuous Changing because the development and learning process is an unlimited sequence of action, reflection on action, mutual understanding, and new action.

The active participant in processes of changing and learning plays a specific role by sharing his or her experience and knowledge of changing and learning in a process of self-organization. The active participant becomes director, actor, and participating observer. The director creates a context in which the participants interact, and by doing this, becomes a player in the game. The participating observer is part of the process, follows the rules of the mutual game, and reflects on the game. The active participant is a friendly outsider and insider at the same time and balances between involvement and distance. The added value of the active participant lies in creating space for dialogue, activating stakeholders, building safe environments, offering scope to experiment, and appreciating positive strengths and capabilities of participants in interacting and self-organizing (see Wierdsma, Chapter 3.3). The importance of dialogue in changing and learning is underlined by Schein (1994). Genuine dialogue provides possibilities for exchanging ideas and cross-influencing attitudes and opinions of each other in a process of interacting. Such a process allows the development of new interaction patterns, multiple but shared sets of norms and values, and shared knowledge and language to understand events that occur in the change process. The role of active participant in changing and learning is connected to White-print thinking (see De Caluwé & Vermaak, Chapter 3.3). Activities in this White-print thinking are observing what it is that makes things happen and changing, recognizing and removing obstacles, clearing perspectives, supplying meanings, getting initiatives started, recognizing emergent activities, and making space for exploring and experimenting. These activities are related to Continuous Changing (see Weick & Quinn, Chapter 3.1).

Deliberate and conscious action

Based on the theories and practices presented in this handbook several issues were described, and roles of change agents were distinguished. In practice, it is difficult to draw a sharp distinction between the roles of change agents. Some roles seem quite akin to management, like the powerful change agent, the process manager or the project manager. Management literature includes behavioral expertise in change management. Theories and practices in organizational

change take up an important position in MBA courses and training programs for managers. This means that behavioral knowledge is included in the body of knowledge of management and managers perform activities that consultants usually did (see also: Walton & Russell, Chapter 2.3). The roles of consultants are not strictly defined either. Consultants may become temporary managers, interim managers or project managers with delegated legitimate power and a clear position in hierarchy. The roles between managers and consultants may blur when consultants practice collaborative consultation. The autonomy and credibility of consultants may come under pressure when problem definitions and goal orientation of top management are taken over unquestionably. Many experiences and techniques in organizational change have been standardized in models, products, and prescriptive rules. Applying these models, products, and rules make the consultancy firm a service factory and the applying consultant a service provider who uses instruments, rather than an actor in changing and learning who uses methods by design. In any case, in practice change agents and consultants will mix several roles. What is the benefit of distinguishing the roles as described above? The first reason is that it may help to define one's own roles in change works. The second reason is that it provides the possibility of combining roles more consciously and deliberately. But most importantly, it creates a reflective framework for looking at and choosing one's own position in the epistemology and methodology of organizational change and learning.

Questions that arise are: What is my position in relation to top management? What is my relationship with different actors? Do I see change as an episodic change program or as continuous changing and learning? What knowledge and added value do I have to offer? Do I work with standardized models and do I see change as an organized tour or is changing similar to hiking, searching, and discovering? What does organization mean? How do I define people in change? How do I view power and resistance? What does communication mean to me? Who is subject and who is object in change, or are we all purposeful subjects in changing and learning? The answers to these questions reflect assumptions, and these assumptions lie behind the choice of conceptual framework and change strategies, intervention methods, and change works that ensue from that choice. Virtually every intervention method and all change works could be applied in many ways, depending on thought worlds and assumptions. Examining one's own assumptions enables one to enter into the practice of intervention methods and change works without making intervention rules and tools to convert an object, but creating a professional and personal change methodology.

Interventions and change-work practices

Many interventions and change works are described in this handbook, although we do not provide a complete overview. This section gives a comprehensive overview and a reflection on the change methods presented in this book. There are many overviews of intervention methods and several ways to arrange them (e.g., Block, 1999; Cummings & Worley, 2001; De Caluwé & Vermaak, 2002; French & Bell, 1998; Kubr, 2003; Schein, 1998; Tichy, 1983). The arrangement here is on the primary pretext to act, and on a rough fit with assumptions and thought worlds of organizing and changing. The conceptual framework and the aim of the method place limits on relevant and useful methods, shape how methods are understood, and shape how methods are carried out.

Table 4: Interventions and change works

Planned Change	Organization development	Continuous changing
Blue-print thinking - Bench marking - Balanced Score Card - SWOT analyses - Future searches - Re-structuring - Business Process redesign - Total Quality Management - Time-based competition	Green-print thinking - Socio-technical work design - Leadership training - Coaching - 360° feedback - Simulations - Double-loop learning - Survey feedback - Team building - Group development - Cultural change programs	White-print thinking - Appreciative inquiry - Search conferences - Dialogue - Narrative inquiry - Story telling - Creating learning space - Collective learning - Action learning - Action research
Red-print thinking - Work design - Reward systems - Selection - Career paths	Yellow-print thinking - Mutual gains negotiation - Third party intervention - Task forces - Process management	

Business performance

Several methods are proposed to improve business performance. Carnall (Chapter 2.1) stresses the importance of ‘reading’ the environment correctly and putting a competitive business model in place. Future searches may contribute to rapid change by building a common data base, discovering the future in diverse perspectives and creating commitment to action plans (see also: Weisbord, 1992; Jacobs, 1994). Carnall advocates that these searches are a process of building credibility and valid measures of performance focused on understanding how well we are doing, and how we compare to competitors. He proposes Balanced Score Cards, analyses of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT analyses) and the method of bench marking the collected solid and reliable data on market demands and environmental changes, and to contribute to measurement, accountability, transparency and access to outcome measures. Bench marking focuses on a comparison of one’s own organization with the best competitors in the world and gives attention to products, product systems, business strategies, and business processes. A project for Business Process Redesign may start from these diagnoses for a break through change and irregular leaps in performance (see Carnall, Chapter 2.1).

The term ‘business process redesign’ (BPR) is often used when redesigning strategy, information technology, and organizational processes (Hammer & Champy, 1993). In essence, BPR is a fundamental rearrangement of business processes enabling information technology to realize reduction of costs, increase of profitability, and an enhancement of performance in quality, service and speed. The design philosophy of BPR concerns the radical redesign of business processes. Business processes are rearranged on a customer or product basis. In the customer-oriented or product-oriented process design, process segments are placed in a natural sequence. Teams bear the responsibility for the execution of tasks within a segment and are held accountable for measurable results. Frequently, separate teams are formed for innovating, planning, preparing, and executing tasks. The operational teams are confronted with an elaborately modeled and automated production method. Organizing the redesign process is primarily a task for management. Top management contributes to the motivation for change and is responsible for designating goals and allocating means. Teams of line managers are responsible for designing sub-processes. A steering committee of managers develops the strategy for the change process and coordinates the course of

events. Consultants support the entire process with techniques and resources (Harrison & Pratt, 1993). Several stages can be distinguished in the design method. Teams of managers analyze business processes and circumscribe performance criteria for the redesign. With the consultant's assistance, a perspective is developed on the organization of business processes. The analyses of the teams are combined into a blueprint for the organizational structure, the appropriate technological architecture and information systems. The new organizational structure is implemented by the line management. Communication about the importance of the new design is considered a success factor for change. Training programs could illustrate the significance of change and support the change by teaching new skills.

Other major change programs, such as Total Quality Management and Time-based competition, may contribute to major changes to improve business performance (see Carnall, Chapter 2.1). Applications of these major change programs are wide-spread in industry and the service sector; nevertheless, their contribution to sustainable performance improvement could be doubted.

The methods for improving business performance are related to the assumption of Planned Change and Blue-print thinking. The change manager is a purposeful subject in a role of powerful agent or expert. The organization and employees are objects and the ones who undergo the change.

Structuring organizations

Restructuring of organizations could be used for improving business performance, profitability, and competitive advantage. Business Process Redesign is an example. The design principles are primarily based on the principles of redundancy of parts. Open systems theory recommends organizational design methods based on socio-technical work design and provide guidelines for work design based on the redundancy of functions (see Emery, Chapter 2.2). The purpose of socio-technical work design is to improve organizational effectiveness, improve the quality of working life, and level power. In contemporary socio-technique, attention is paid to the relation between corporate strategy, organizational structure, the nature of the transformation process, the technology, and the work design. The central design principle can be summarized as the formation of complex tasks within simple structures, instead of the performance of simple tasks within complex structures. What is central is the shift from the maximal division of labor in classically structured organizations to the minimal division of labor as the leading principle of design for flexible and modern organizations. According to socio-technical views, the team is the smallest unit of organizing. In the organization, groups are always interdependent. It would benefit flexibility, effectiveness, and quality of working life, if groups can regulate their own tasks, can shape their own work organization, have a high measure of control, and have the ability to solve problems independently. Change process management rests on experience in the practice of the classic Organization Development and is theoretically founded on theories of group dynamics, learning processes, process intervention and systemic change (see also: Beer & Walton, 1987). In the design activities employees are actively involved in shaping their own work situation and are allowed to experience a learning process during the change process that enhances their understanding of their own situation. A participative approach usually employs search conferences, group discussions, workshops, and the experience gained through team-based work to design the work organization (see also: Mohrman & Cummings, 1989).

This book proposes other design principles and methods for structuring organizations (see Walton & Russell, Chapter 2.3). Organizing can be seen as balancing between the dilemma of differentiation and integration. Pressures for differentiation stems from a differentiated environment and market demands, while the need for coordination creates internal pressures for integration. Several organizational structures are suggested for better alignment with their strategy and environment. Cummings (Chapter 1.1) refers to borderless organizations and virtual organizations, and Walton & Russell (Chapter 2.3) refer to matrix organizations, networked organizations, and the strategic enterprise.

Socio-technical work design is definitely rooted in Organization Development and Green-print thinking. Participation of workers is a principle and based in values of autonomy, self-regulation, and democracy. Besides this, there is the insight that participation of workers is necessary for creative design. Change agents and workers are participants in this method, who bring in different knowledge and experience. The other suggestions for organizational designs are based on organization theory and the design principles seem more related to Blue-print thinking. The methods for redesign could be applied in various ways depending on whether assumptions and values for change are rooted in Planned Change or in Organization Development.

Employee motivation

Improving employee satisfaction and motivation is suggested in order to contribute to increased flexibility of the organization and business performance (see Carnall, Chapter 2.1). Many interventions to increase motivation are based on work organization and human resources management.

Organization Development assumes that new forms of work make work more motivating and fulfilling by improving the quality of one's professional life. Practices in Organization Development with job enrichment and job enlargement resulted in work designs that enhance both productivity and employee satisfaction. The design principles are based on redundancy of functions and expanding jobs horizontally and vertically. The assumption is that improving employee motivation through work redesign may contribute to improved organization performance and reduces absenteeism and turnover (see Cummings, Chapter 1.1. and Emery, Chapter 1.2).

Improvement of employee motivation is given a lot of attention by human resources management and is traditionally associated with the personnel function in organizations. Based on human resources management it is assumed that reward systems can play a powerful role in promoting performance (see Walton & Russell, Chapter 2.3). This led to interventions aimed at making rewards more contingent on performance. One popular method is the implementation of gain sharing (see Cummings, Chapter 1.1). In gain sharing, employees are paid a bonus based on measurable gains in performance over some baseline standards. The underlying belief is that people are motivated by external rewards and do things for which they are rewarded. Other human resource interventions are selection and career paths (see Walton & Russell, Chapter 2.3). One classic idea pertaining to selection is to put the right person in the right place, assessing skills and competencies needed for a specific job. Another idea is that the composition of teams, including the selection of members, is vital to group performance and organizational effectiveness. The introduction of career paths is aimed at developing employee goals, abilities, and skills to fit with the organizational strategy and market demands. It is supposed that career paths may increase the employee's ability to see a meaningful path forward and to feel a valued member of an organization.

Interventions based on human resource management fit with the assumptions of Planned Change and Red-print thinking. The change manager is an active subject and a behavioral expert, and the employees are objects to be motivated.

Leadership, culture and group performance

The development of leadership is given a lot of attention in behavioral science interventions. To affect changes, Carnall (Chapter 2.1) refers to Kottler (1994) who states that effective leaders need a wide range of contacts and good working relationships in the firm and the industry. Linked with this is a good track record in a relatively broad set of activities. He also refers to keen minds, interpersonal skills, high integrity, seeing value in people, and a strong desire to lead. In a more recent book, Kottler (1996) added to these prescriptive leadership traits the will to search for new challenges, wanting to be a winner, and the will to reflect on personal failures and successes. This perspective of managerial traits and skills leads to a huge training industry for

teaching individual managers how to become an effective leader (see Walton & Russell, Chapter 2.3). Coaching and individual feedback can help in individual learning and development. There are multiple descriptions of the appropriate skills and the appropriate activities of the coach, and recommendations on how to coach. Individual feedback may help to understand the effects of one's own behavior on others. Individual feedback can take many forms, such as personal feedback, norm-based assessments, surveys, 360° feedback, or even pencil tests (see Walton & Russell, Chapter 2.3). The use of personal feedback as a personal development tool is widespread, although it is hard to assess the long-term impact on behavioral and organizational change. The effectiveness of training programs for managers is debatable. Therefore, other forms of learning are proposed, such as game simulation. Game simulation is an intervention which allows participants to experience first hand the systemic consequences of individual action and how structures influence behavior (see Walton & Russell, Chapter 2.3, see also: Senge, 1990).

In this book, Argyris (Chapter 5.2) raises the question as to why so little learning occurs on individual and organizational levels. He believes that we must dig deeper into theories-of-action and designs-for-action. Human beings behave with two types of theories-in-action. The espoused theory is on intended behavior and is usually expressed in the form of stated beliefs and values. The theory-in-use is actual behavior which has become subroutines and a master program held by individuals to design their actions and to implement this design. Many times there is a mismatch between the espoused theory and the theory in use. A dominant theory-in-use is described as Model I, i.e., achieve your intended purpose, maximize winning and minimize losing, suppress negative feelings, and behave according to what you consider rational. The most prevalent design-for-action that arises from the governing values of Model I are to advocate your position, evaluate the thoughts and actions of others, and attribute causes for whatever you are trying to understand. Most people are unaware of the governing values and the way this shapes action designs and action routines. This stable state of using Model I theories and actions inhibits genuine learning. To help individuals recognize their skillful Model I incompetence and unawareness, the intervener introduces Model II theories. The governing values of Model II are valid information, informed choice, and vigilant monitoring on the implementation of choice in order to detect and correct mismatches between intended and actual outcomes of their actions. At the outset, Model II theories are espoused theories. The challenge for the intervener is to help individuals transform their espoused theories into theories-in-use by learning new sets of skills and new governing values. This whole process is the essence of double-loop learning. In double-loop learning attention is focused on changing the governing values and master programs that produced the routines in question. Interventions to facilitate double-loop learning are researching the theory-in-use and the action designs of the client, the use of case studies to get at the theories-in-use and the organizational defensive routines, and the use of cases as an intervention tool in reflecting and redesigning actions (see Argyris, Chapter 5.2, see also: Argyris, 1990).

Survey feedback is a classic intervention method and has become a major component of company-wide interventions based in Organization Development. It involves systematically collecting survey data about the organization and feeding the data back to members at all levels of the organization so that they can discover sources of problems and devise relevant solutions (see Cummings, Chapter 1.1). Kilian Gravenhorst and Roel In't Veld (Chapter 4.3) consider survey feedback as an active process of information acquisition and knowledge dissemination, with the explicit purpose of serving as a basis for action for all organizational members. They describe a case study in which survey feedback is used to reflect on the change process itself, and how the method contributed to bringing stakeholders together to discuss perceived difficulties, to search for solutions, to reflect on assumptions underlying the change approach, and to organize the change process based on different assumptions. The use of this method became a powerful learning tool for the members in the case organization and resulted in a fundamental shift in change approach.

The earliest intervention methods based on Organization Development principles focused on improving social processes in organizations. Team development is still a robust intervention method. Klaus Doppler (Chapter 2.2) states that to transform a group to a well-functioning team it

is necessary to create a common goal, mutual interests, and personal commitments. One belief is that teams must manage their work processes, culture, systems, and relationships to be effective (see also: Katzenbach & Smiths, 1993).

Culture has long been a domain for change practitioners. Scholars have prescribed corporate cultures best suited to specific business models and strategies (see Walton & Russell, Chapter 2.3). Implementation methods based on this idea of 'best cultural fit' are mainly in the form of large scale training and communication programs. Based on the values of Organization Development, cultural change is a comprehensive intervention method which combines various intervention methods. In general, the first step is to assess the organizational culture by using survey feedback or by bringing groups together to identify espoused values and underlying assumptions. Various artifacts, theories-of-action, and designs-of-action are investigated. As this process proceeds the facilitator begins to push for some of the underlying assumptions by noting areas of consistency and inconsistency between espoused theories, actions-in-use, and artifacts. The next step is to identify cultural assumptions that will aid in getting to shared goals, and cultural assumptions that hinder goals being achieved. After this reflective diagnosis, an action plan is developed to determine what steps might be appropriate. The execution of the action plan is monitored by the members themselves with the help of the facilitator. Members of the organization are fully involved in owning both the diagnoses and the interventions (see also: Schein, 1992).

The behavior science interventions described above are rooted in assumptions of Organization Development and reflect a Green-print thinking. The change agent is subject, takes a role as facilitator and strives for involvement of other actors as participant.

Group dynamics, conflict and process management

Group dynamics have a long history in theory and practice of Organization Development. Workshops and taskforces are widely used in organizational change (see Levin, Chapter 1.3). Workshops are used in change and learning to enable and discourage participative processes. These kinds of workshops are purposefully and consciously designed with regard to what would be the expected outcome, the interaction possibilities, options for reflection, and the expected group dynamics. Taskforces may be used to support a participative change process and give room for collective interaction in line with general values of Organization Development.

In teams and organizations the emergence of conflict is normal. Whenever people work together different points of view, needs, and interests collide between individuals, in groups or between groups. Klaus Doppler provides a method for conflict management (Chapter 2.2). In his perspective an understanding of what has happened needs to be acquired, mistrust has to be broken step by step, and trust has to be built up again. An important task is to reestablish a situation of direct communication. A neutral third party may be needed to monitor the interactions between parties and to facilitate the conflict resolution. In communication, parties can learn about their differences and commonalities. Morten Levin (Chapter 1.3) describes a method for mutual gains bargaining. The core process elements are making a distinction between positions and interests, identifying conflicting situations, acknowledging the participants' conflicting interests as a natural fact, and designing a creative process in which conflict situations can be addressed, interests are made clear, and participants create new actions that would potentially fulfill their interests. In processes of conflict resolution a third party plays an important role. Many interventions are available to the third party. Some well-known interventions for dealing with conflict and tension are confrontation meetings, principled negotiations, integrative agreements for negotiation, and constructive dialogue. The principles, method, and practice of conflict resolution is meticulously described by Kilan Gravenhorst and Roel In't Veld (Chapter 4.3).

Process management is an intervention method that regulates dynamic decision making processes in cases of complex problems which need to be solved by a network of actors (see Gravenhorst & In't Veld, Chapter 3.3). This intervention applies to situations in which no objective solution is available and tensions exist between interests of parties. It involves different

actors who need each other to solve problems while at the same time they pursue their own interests. Process designs guide the decision making process and create a collective rationality through integrations of different perspectives and different preferences. A process manager designs and guides the process, and continuously monitors whether problem definitions, options, and solutions are appealing to the stakeholders involved. The general principle is that an acceptable decision can only be developed if all relevant stakeholders are involved in all phases of the process, from problem definition to deciding on a solution. Design principles are openness, protection of the core values of stakeholders, continuity and speed, and substance and quality in the solution.

Group dynamics, conflict resolution, and process management are mainly related to the assumptions of Organization Development, and connected more to Yellow-print thinking than Green-print thinking. The change agent is facilitator and subject and collaborates with the other agents as subjects in a pluralist world. The following section presents methods of inquiry and searching, dialogue and narratives, and learning and researching. These methods and change works are related to assumptions of Continuous Changing and White-print thinking. Subjects work together in organizing, changing and learning.

Inquiring and searching

The perspective of Continuous Changing tells us that organizing, changing and learning are ongoing processes of human interaction and communicating. This is congruent with the idea of appreciative inquiry. Appreciative inquiry is a theory of organizing and changing and a method for changing socially constructed realities (see Walton & Russell, Chapter 3.3). The theory and method consider social realities to be constructions of the moment, open to continuous reconstruction by people involved in interaction. Working appreciatively means working with what is positive valued and appreciated by people in social realities (see Hosking, Chapter 3.4). The shift to possibilities, rather than problems, invites participants to learn how better to improvise, and helps participants to imagine new ways of proceeding together. Appreciative inquiry gives very careful attention to the appreciative question around which a process is based. In general, the interaction process starts with grounded observation of the 'best of what is'. Through vision, participants jointly articulate 'what might be', ensuring the consent of participants to 'what should be'. Then, experimenting starts with 'what can be' (see Walton & Russell, Chapter 2.3, and also Cooperrider & Shrivastva, 1987). A nice example of appreciative inquiry is described by Luc Hoebeke (Chapter 2.4).

Searching for new ways and new futures can be stimulated by bringing participants together in a conference, usually for more than one day. A search conference is a joint visioning and planning conference of which the outcome is concrete working plans initiating change activities (see Levin, Chapter 1.3). The idea is that participants can construct visions of a desired future and a joint understanding of what to do. The interaction process builds on visions of social realities now and in the future, concrete experimentation, collective reflecting, and learning. Follow-up conferences give the opportunity for exchanging experiences and progression, and enable interactions for further experimenting. A search conference could focus on searching the dynamics of problems and inhibitions to solve them. People who own the problems, experience them, or may contribute to solving them are brought together for a two- to four-day conference. An open dialogue is held during the conference and people search to identify the problems and resolve them. Guiding rules for designing and facilitating conferences are provided by Kilian Gravenhorst & Roel In't Veld (Chapter 4.3). They present a conference in an insurance company to illustrate practice.

Dialogue and narrative

Appreciative inquiry and search conferences are related to the theory and method of dialogue. Dialogue encourages people to explore their interactions, their different ideas about reality, and generate new interactions and ideas by constructing new realities from their

interactions and dialogue. Dialogue is often encouraged in conferences. During these conferences, the discourse is seen as being essential for organizing, changing and learning (see Levin, Chapter 1.3). A design principle in organizing a dialogue conference is to clarify a set of rules that guides the process and secures participation (see also: Gustavsen, 1992). An outside facilitator usually takes on the policing role, while participants take initiatives and control the process. One specific approach of dialogue conferences is focused on networks of organizations that try to learn from each other's experiments by means of conferences. Based on shared experiences, and mutual definition of problems or desirable states, experiments are carried out simultaneously within each organization. Conferences thus become a continuing dialogue on organizing, changing and learning in networks.

Narrative is closely related to the thought style of social constructionism and ideas on communicating presented by Dian Marie Hosking (Chapter 4.4). The idea is to work with how people talk with, to, and about one another and construct their wider realities and relations. Narrative change works have become increasingly popular in recent years. Narrative inquiry often proceeds through open interviews. The interviewer encourages a conversation of equals by being relationally responsive and leaving room for the other to tell their story. Analyzing the narratives is an act of deconstruction of the story by searching for dualities, denying the plot, finding the exception, tracing what is between the lines, and other cognitive activities (see Hosking, Chapter 4.4.). Several stories can be brought together for deconstruction by multi-voicing, and reconstructing by making new stories and opening up new possibilities.

Learning and researching in action

Continuous Changing could not be separated from learning. Second- and third-order learning are related to organizing and changing. In this handbook, two methodologies for organizational learning are elaborated. Gerhard Smid and Ron Beckett (Chapter 5.3) explain design principles to create extended space for learning that enable emerging relationships and create innovations. In order to extend the space for learning it is necessary to determine the developmental frame and estimating zones of proximal development, to assess the context of organizing and learning of the learners, to reconsider the capabilities and learning principles of the support organization, to define the relations between learners and supporters, and to ensure the basic idea of extra space for learning. After this preparatory work the extended learning space can be designed with careful attention for social, lingual, and physical aspects, awareness of desirable futures, and consideration for managing learning. Many choices are available in all these design variables. The choices are made in collaboration with learners and supporters. Designing and taking care of the learning space is a continuous interactivity during learning. Two case studies are used to explain the design principles in detail (see Smid & Beckett, Chapter 5.3)

A method for collective learning is provided by André Wierdsma (Chapter 3.3). The method is based on principles of transactional organization and Continuous Changing. The method provides a temporary context which offers conditions in which stakeholders can reflect on their relationships, activities, and meanings. This reflection supports a dialogue on how the organization of work is constructed, and in which the rules, insights, and principles underlying organizing, changing and learning can be discussed. Creating conditions for continuous collective learning is an ongoing process for the participants in learning. Principles for collective learning are linking learning to core issues which are important for viability, working with participants who represent variety, realizing degrees of freedom for third-order learning, working with reports of effectiveness in the organization, choosing working methods which presuppose active participants, choosing working methods that make variety and interaction patterns manifest, creating space for mutual collaboration and development of new meanings, taking care of high quality of new meanings so that they can be shared with third parties, securing relational quality in interactions and dialogue. The facilitator deals with the initiation, structuring and facilitating of the dialogue and the reflection on that dialogue. The facilitator keeps space and creates a safe environment for exploring and experimenting. Several case studies are described to illustrate the method (see Wierdsma, Chapter 3.3).

Both methods for collective learning are connected to the tradition of action learning. Action learning sees organizing and changing as a continuous learning and transformation process (see Cummings, Chapter 1.1). Action learning involves interrelated actions that comprise an iterative learning process in which participants learn to reflect on their values in changing, organizing, and learning. Double-loop learning is possible when actors learn how to confront value inconsistencies and conflicts and modify values accordingly. Action learning may involve deuterio learning or third-order learning when participants start learning how to learn. In the Introduction, action learning is associated with principles of interactive learning. If organizing is seen as interacting in which actors give meaning, develop assumptions and values, and use language in order to communicate and understand, then organizing, changing and learning meet each other in a dynamic process.

Action research can serve as a methodology for action, changing and learning. Principles for action research are a collaborative relationship between researchers and actors. Researchers become actors and actors become researchers. They have a mutual responsibility for exploring, interacting, experimenting, and enriching knowledge. Accepting this mutual responsibility does not imply that the parties do not have specific responsibilities and contributions. Researchers have their own specialist knowledge, usually in social science, and in designing and facilitating processes of action research and action learning. Actors have first-hand ecological knowledge of their own social reality and the interaction patterns in which they are involved. In action research, the action researcher may add value by sharing his or her specialist knowledge of organizing and changing, while organizational members are credited with having specialist knowledge of the social reality of organizing and changing in their local contexts. The action researcher has a responsibility to his own scientific community to share new insights and knowledge, usually by writing or contributing to conferences. Collaboration means equality in an inter-subjective relationship and working in mutual agreement with the activities in the progression of researching and learning (see Cummings, Chapter 1.1 and Emery, Chapter 1.2). In the Introduction, a methodology of reflective action research is proposed in which participants act, reflect on their actions, and pay attention to the way in which they learn and generate knowledge. This methodology makes it possible to understand ambiguous issues, to initiate new interactions, to search for new possibilities, to generate new theories and methods in organizing, changing and learning, and to make this knowledge meaningful for others.

Questions and possibilities in organizational change and learning

The multiple perspectives presented in this handbook help to reflect on change works and may be helpful to understand complexity and dynamics in organizational change and learning. It provides new possibilities in organizing and changing and can be helpful in practice by choosing position in multiple paradigms and dilemmas of organizing, changing and learning. This final section begins with reflections on professional, epistemological, and research questions. This chapter concludes with possibilities for change works in organizing, changing and learning.

Professional questions

Professionals in organizing, changing and learning work in fields full of paradoxes, thought worlds, and arenas of actors with multiple ideas of what is going on. Hence it is important to be able to make conscious decisions in these paradoxes, thought worlds, and arenas in order to contribute to organizational change and learning, and to create a participative collective reflection process. This conscious and informed decision making may help to develop and explain one's own methodologies in interaction with others. Mixing change approaches without being aware of the inherent tension between them leads to tensions and less transparency in change processes themselves. It is useful to make the values underlying the professional choices explicit and a subject of discussion in order to be accountable to participants and other professionals and to contribute to collective learning.

The conceptual distinctions we made between Planned Change (Theory E), Organization Development (Theory O), and Continuous Changing (Theory C), invites one to reflect on one's

own assumptions and points of departure. It may help in choosing position and constructing one's own frameworks for action and interaction. Reflective questions for professionals in organizational change and learning are summarized in table 5.

Table 5: Professional questions in organizational change and learning

Professional questions in organizational change and learning
- Why am I working in organizational change and learning?
- To what purpose am I working on changing and learning?
- How do I perceive human beings and define people in change?
- What are my assumptions as to organization, change and learning?
- What kind of paradoxes and dilemmas do I experience in change works and how do I work with them?
- What is my definition of failure and success in organizational change?
- What is my own theoretical framework and what does it mean to me and others I am working with?
- When is change episodic for me and others and when is it more continuous?
- How do I relate myself to the different thought worlds of changing?
- What are the principles that guide my choices and actions?
- Who is subject and who is object in my change works, or are we all purposeful subjects?
- What is my position to top management?
- What are my relations with people involved in changing and learning?
- How do I work with participation in changing and learning?
- What are my preferences in roles for change managers and consultants?
- How do I view power and resistance in organizing and changing?
- What is the power I have and will use myself, and what are the ethical values that guide my choices?
- What does interaction and communication mean for me in organizing, changing and learning?
- Why do I choose some intervention methods more than other ones?
- How do I choose specific intervention methods and change works?
- What are my assumptions as to the efficacy of specific interventions in context?
- What knowledge and added value to professionalism do I have to offer?
- Why should I contribute to development of knowledge in organizing, changing and learning?
- How could I contribute to sharing insights and knowledge with participants, practitioners and scholars?

Reflecting on these questions may help in the search for one's own professional assumptions, principles and insights. Answers to these questions reflect assumptions, and these assumptions underlie choices of conceptual frameworks, change strategies, intervention methods and change works ensuing from that choice. Interacting with others on these assumptions, principles and insights may result in second- and third-order learning, and in positive contributions to our professional knowledge.

Research questions

This handbook gives an idea of dynamics in organizational change and learning. It elaborates on various theoretical perspectives, practical implications, methods, and critical reflections. It reflects on basic assumptions and values in changing and learning which guide our actions as practitioners. Many new questions emerge from the contributions in this handbook. Some issues could be given dedicated attention in research activities and knowledge development during processes of organizing, changing and learning. A proposal for some research issues is made in Table 6.

Table 6: Some research issues in organizing, changing and learning

Some research issues in organizing, changing, and learning	
-	Basic assumptions of Planned Change, the background for the dominant logic of this change approach in management and business schools, and the way this approach is related to the design principle of redundancy of parts and Model-I reasoning.
-	Institutional embeddedness of business schools and consultancy firms, and the meaning of this embeddedness on espoused theories and theories-in-use in organizing, changing and learning.
-	Relationship between organizational and institutional embeddedness, management education, action learning, action science, and practices of organizational change and learning.
-	The working principles in practices of Organization Development and the development of new insights, methods, and principles to contribute to organizational change and learning.
-	The underlying principles and the dynamics in choosing change strategies with respect to contexts, assumptions, perceived problems, ambitions, and people involved in interaction.
-	Tensions, energies, interactions, and dynamics in Continuous Changing, and inertia in Continuous Changing from Dynamic Systems Theory, Chaos Theory, and Social Constructionism.
-	Inquiring failures and successes in organizational change and learning, and searching the principles and change approaches behind the effectiveness of change efforts.
-	Working principles in interventions methods and change works and their efficacy in organizational change and learning.
-	Roles taken by change managers and consultants, the process of choosing roles, and the interactions and dynamics that flow from these choices.
-	Paradoxes and dilemmas in organizational change and learning, and the art of choosing and holding balance in these dilemmas.
-	Dynamics of the dilemma between faith and ethics in organizing, and the meaning of this dilemma for change managers, practitioners, scholars and scientists.
-	Dynamics of power and politics in organizational change and learning, and the willingness to exchange power positions and come to dialogue in order to create new possibilities for organizing, changing and learning.
-	Sources and dynamics of defense mechanisms in organizational change and learning from a multidisciplinary perspective, and the development of methods to visualize, vocalize, and overcome these defenses.
-	Principles for designing learning support for people in contexts of Continuous Changing, and reflection on the efficacy of these design principles.
-	Ways in which people learn and act in ambiguous and conflicting situations by collective reflection on contexts, their actions, and their assumption concerning social reality.
-	Principles and dynamics in processes of constructing, deconstructing, and reconstructing during interaction between people in organizing, changing and learning
-	Development of communities of practice and their role in developing and sharing knowledge in organizing, changing and learning.
-	Possibilities to bring principles and basic assumptions of organizational change and learning into dialogue in theory and practice, and to find new ways to work with multiple perspectives in development of practices, theories and meta-theories.

The social reality of organizing, changing and learning is rather dynamic. It is a world of people interacting, practicing, experimenting, and exploring. How can we get to know this social reality and develop new insights and knowledge? A methodology of reflective action research was advocated in the Introduction. In this next section we reflect and raise questions on some epistemological and methodological issues.

Epistemological and methodological considerations

In my opinion, social science is a process of knowledge development in which practitioners, participants, and scholars can contribute to knowledge. In the landscape of social science there are many assumptions about the nature of social science that oppose each other. Our

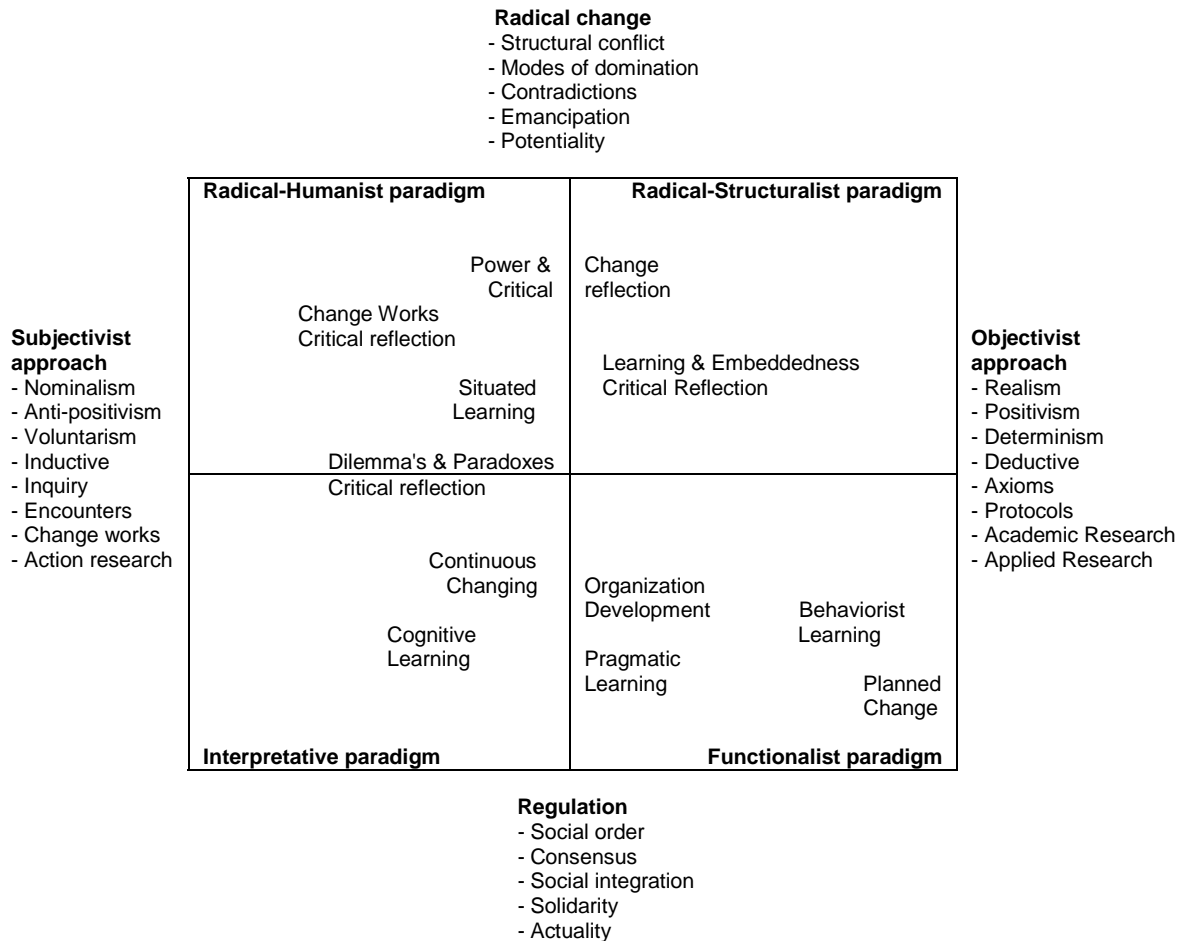
ontological and epistemological positions are behind our choices of action and interaction. Ontology is a set of generic assumptions about reality and what exists. In social science a basic ontological question is whether reality exists outside the individual in an objective environment, or whether reality exists as a product of individual consciousness, as a product of individual cognition. Epistemology is a set of generic assumptions about what we can know about reality and how one might begin to understand the world, and communicate this as knowledge. A basic epistemological question is the possibility to identify knowledge as being hard and real, or whether knowledge is more subjective, based on personal experience and insights. Connected to these ontological and epistemological assumptions are assumptions on human nature and the relationship between human beings and the environment. One perspective in social science entails human beings responding in mechanistic ways to situations in their environment, conditioned by external circumstances. The opposing perspective sees human beings as the creators of their environment. These perspectives are known as determinism versus voluntarism. If one accepts the social world as if it were a real and objective reality, then the scientific methodology is based more on analyses of causal relationships between variables. On the other hand, when the social world is accepted as a subjective experience of individuals, then the methodology focuses on understanding ways in which individuals create their world.

In a well-wrought argument, Gibson and Burrell (1979) combine these assumptions about the nature of social science in a subjective and objective dimension (see also: Burrell, 1996). They elaborate on assumptions about the nature of society in a dimension of regulation and radical change. Based on these two fundamental dimensions, they developed a scheme for analyzing social theory with four paradigms, i.e., functionalist paradigm, interpretative paradigm, radical-humanist paradigm, and radical-structuralist paradigm. These paradigms have an underlying unity in terms of its basic assumptions, which are often taken for granted. In Scheme 1, these paradigms of social science and the nature of society are sketched in four quadrants. The theories of organizational change, the schools of thought on learning, and the critical reflections as presented in this handbook are mapped within these quadrants.

The functionalist paradigm is based on an objective, positivist, and determinist standpoint in social science and provides explanations for the status quo, social order, consensus, and need for satisfaction. It's approach is often problem-oriented and tries to provide practical solutions to practical problems in an orderly and stable society. It is concerned with effective regulations of social affairs. The methodology is based on deduction of insights and rules mainly by academic and applied research. Generic models are formulated in causal relations, axioms, and protocols. Most of the Planned Change theories in this handbook fit principally in the functionalist paradigm. The theory of Organization Development fits partly in this paradigm, although the idea of purposeful human beings and the methodology of action research fit more in the interpretative paradigm. The school of behaviorist learning fits in this paradigm and most characteristics of pragmatic learning correspond with this paradigm.

The interpretative paradigm focuses on understanding the world as it is at the level of subjective experience. It seeks an explanation within the realm of individual consciousness and subjectivity. This paradigm is based on a subjectivist, anti-positivist and voluntarist standpoint in social science. It sees the world as an emergent social process which is created by individuals who interact in that process. It is oriented towards obtaining an understanding of the subjectively created social world and the way processes emerge and develop in an ongoing process. Through this paradigm there is involvement in issues related to consensus, social integration, solidarity, and actuality. The methodology is based on induction and discovery in cases, such as the methodology of grounded theory, appreciative inquiry and action research. The theory of Continuous Changing fits mainly in this paradigm, although this theory contains some characteristics of the radical-humanist approach as well. The school of cognitive learning fits in this paradigm as long as it takes an individual point of view.

Scheme 1: Paradigms in organizing, changing and learning
(based on a study by Burrell & Morgan (1978), p. 29)



The radical-humanist paradigm wants to contribute to knowledge of radical change from a subjectivist standpoint. As in the interpretative paradigm, the social world is seen as being subjective, anti-positivist and voluntarist. However, its frame of reference is committed to a view of society which emphasizes the importance of changing the limitations of existing social arrangements. Other more regulative paradigms are criticized through this paradigm and emphasis is given to radical change, models of domination, and emancipation. The methodology is based on interdisciplinary views, multi-models and multi-voices in interactions, and focus on the development of holistic knowledge and practices in changing and learning. The school of thought of situated learning fits most adequately in this paradigm. Most of the chapters with critical reflections fit in this paradigm. This is definitely the case for the critical reflection on change works with focus on interactive social construction of reality. The critical reflection in this book on paradoxes and dilemmas is difficult to characterize because it uses an action frame of reference, it gives dedicated attention to structural conflicts in organizations, and it takes an interpretative approach. It is anti-positivistic and voluntaristic, and also takes an interpretative approach in social interaction. This is the reason that I feel that the interpretative and radical-humanist paradigm fit best.

The Radical-structuralist paradigm is characterized by an objective, positivist, and determinist standpoint on social reality. This paradigm concentrates on structural relationships in a realistic social world. Analyses focus on structural conflict and modes of domination, while action is committed to radical change, emancipation, and potentiality. The view on society and change is that radical change is generated by fundamental conflicts and through political and economic crises. The methodology departs from dialectical analyses and multiple truths, and contributes to knowledge of radical change. The chapter that contains a critical reflection on power and change in this handbook presents some ideas that come close to this paradigm, although the chapter as a whole fits more in the Humanist-radical paradigm. The same argument could be used for the critical reflection on learning, but the emphasize on the organizational embeddedness of learning is more associated with the radical-structuralist paradigm.

This scheme that contains four distinctive paradigms provides a way to map some of the theories and thought worlds presented in this handbook. It also provides a convenient way for locating one's own frame of reference with regard to social theory and practice. This scheme may be helpful in establishing where we are, where we came from, and where it is possible to go in the future.

The contributions in this handbook do not fit with the need for a generic theory or dominant ideology. The contributors to this handbook do not believe in 'one best way of change' or in a workable set of general principles that the practitioner could or should follow. Most of us believe in differences, multiplicity in understanding organizing and changing, and in multiple paradigms more than one leading paradigm. This multiplicity helps us to understand our choices in a process of communicating with others, and perhaps it contributes to a meta-theory which creates possibilities for the development of methods and knowledge in organizing, changing and learning.

Possibilities in change works and knowledge development

Possibilities for developments in the field of organizational change and learning have been presented in this handbook by academics, practitioners, scholars and consultants. Based on the contributions in this handbook, this final chapter provides many possibilities for personal reflections, research activities, and knowledge development. Three more issues are added. Firstly, new arrangements emerging between organizations require further development of inter-organizational analyses and change works. The collaboration between organizations provides possibilities for inter-organizational learning in organizing and changing. Collaboration often depends on trusting relationships. This raises the question as to how trust can be conceptualized and created as a communicative sensemaking process. Another question might be how inter-organizational relationships affect the change of institutional fields, and how strategies of power are involved in these changes (see also: Clegg & Hardy, 1996). Secondly, the perspective on language and communicating in organizational change and learning provides possibilities for change works with narratives, metaphors, story-telling, dialoging, sensemaking, and identity formation. This is still an underdeveloped field which seems to be very promising in a world in which people interact with each other to make sense out of ambiguous contexts. Conversation is inter-subjective, shared, and embedded within local practices. Therefore, postmodern theories and insights through social constructionism may be helpful in jointly developing new knowledge and practices in change works. Thirdly, the development of new methodologies in action research reveals an emergent interactive social reality and a participative world view (see also: Reason and Bradbury, 2001). This raises questions concerning epistemologies of the various action research methodologies in practice, such as participative inquiry, appreciative inquiry, collaborative inquiry, democratic dialogue and other large group processes, narratives, and critical change works. Related questions are how to integrate knowledge and action, and how to present new insights and knowledge which are grounded locally.

By sharing insights and knowledge, the authors of this handbook provide a multiple perspective and give a topical representation of theories, implications, methods, and critical reflections. Together we have tried to give a better insight into dynamics of organizing, changing

and learning. We provided possibilities for collaborative action between practitioners, academics, and participants in organizational change and learning. By doing this we opened up possibilities for practitioners, scholars and scientists to reflect on their own assumptions and theories-in-use, and we invite you to develop your own methodologies and make your own contributions to organizing, changing and learning.

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