Helping People & Organizations Deal with Change

Learning Objectives

1 Understand the Theories, Methods and Tools Used to address:

   a. Change as experienced by the individual

   b. Interaction between individuals

   c. Interaction between individuals and the system or changes to the system

Topic Summary

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- b. Differences in People – Contributions from Freud, Fromm & Maccoby
  - i. Figure 2: Maccoby's Personality Viewed as a System (4)
  - ii. Relationship Awareness Theory (4)
  - iii. 5 R's of Motivation (5)
  - iv. Maccoby's Critique of Maslow's Theory/Hierarchy of Needs (6)
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Helping Individuals and Organizations Deal with Change

By Clifford L. Norman and C. Jane Norman

The intent of this brief paper is explore some theories, methods and tools that have proven to be useful in helping people embrace and understand change. These ideas, methods, and tools are addressed at three levels in this paper:

- *Change as experienced by the individual*
- *Interaction between individuals*
- *Interaction between individuals and the system or changes to the system*

The fields of psychology and change management are very dynamic. New ideas are forthcoming each day, some good and some bad. As you explore these ideas and encounter other ideas, methods and tools that have proven useful, we would be very interested in your feedback.

Dealing with change in many organizations has become an everyday challenge. There are continually new methods, tools, products, and sometimes a meeting of very different cultures as our world becomes smaller. How can we deal with these changes successfully? Not to many years ago it was common for people to raise an issue about the monotony and sameness of the work world. Many people considered it their responsibility to resist change. Now more and more thoughtful people are agreeing that managing change is one of our more important tasks. Despite this, there remains much that is misunderstood about how people and organizations undergo change.

One common mistake is to think of change as only a technical issue. This view would confine us to consider only the new methods and equipment to ensure that they function as planned. Weisbord (1987) noted that for every technical change in a system, there are usually social and economic changes as well. These changes must be planned and managed to implementation if we are to gain the predicted benefits of the change. We have to learn how to change more effectively. Creating structure such that we *make it easy for people to do the right thing and hard to the do the wrong thing* is a key in helping people adopt change.

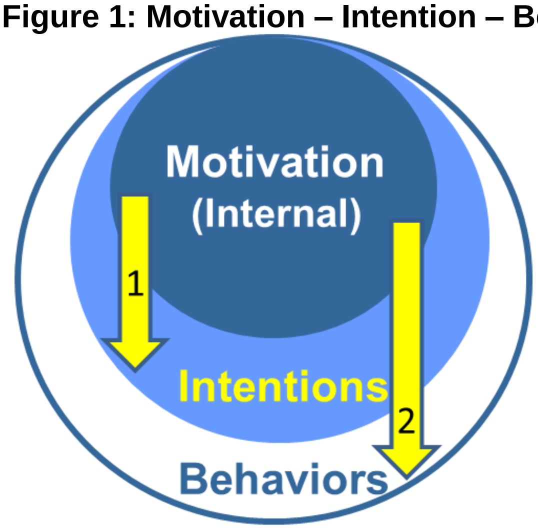
Change as Experienced by the Individual

People undergoing change deal with it as individuals. They cope with change on three levels:

1. Physical – the change must be physically possible;
2. Logical – the change makes sense (i.e., be logical); and
3. Emotional – the change "feels right."

People generally try to be congruent with their values, intentions and actions. Our values and beliefs drive our motivation. Things we deeply care about get done. Figure 1 describes how our internal *motivation* drives our *intentions* and *behaviors* (Porter, 1996). In case 1, we stop just short of acting on our motivation and intentions. We care about a situation, maybe even publicly state our beliefs and have the best of intentions, but take no action. In some cases, we not be aware that we are being incongruent in our actions until some else points out our failure to act. As we become aware of our incongruence this can create self-worth issues until our motivation (values and beliefs), intentions and behavior are brought into congruence. Situation 2 describes this congruency as we have acted on our intentions. Appendix 1 provides a flow diagram that describes how the individual reacts to issues, their intention and impact of the system on their behavior.

Figure 1: Motivation – Intention – Behavior



Differences in People – Contributions from Freud, Fromm & Maccoby

Maccoby and Scudder (2010) have offered the following description of the evolution of the theory of personality as developed by Sigmund Freud and Eric Fromm:

Sigmund Freud first used his model to help explain psychopathology, but he also employed it to describe three normal personality types he called:

1. ***Erotic** – a caring personality with a strong value of loving and caring relationship. Fromm's work refers to the non-productive version of this type as the Receptive Orientation.*
2. ***Narcissistic** – independent and not open to intimidation; characterized by an ego with a large amount of aggressiveness at its disposal, which also manifests itself in a readiness for activity. Fromm's work refers to the non-productive version of this type as the Exploitative Orientation.*
3. ***Obsessive** – ideals of hard work and conscientiousness; characterized by a demanding super-ego, strong commands programmed in childhood. Fromm's work refers to the non-productive version of this type as the Hoarding Orientation.*

Erich Fromm described the non-productive orientations and their related productive characteristics in an effort to move people toward increased productivity. He accepted and modified Freud's types and added a fourth type to Freud's trio; the marketing personality. Just as the obsessive personality is the bureaucratic prototype; the marketing personality fits the typical Interactive Social Character.

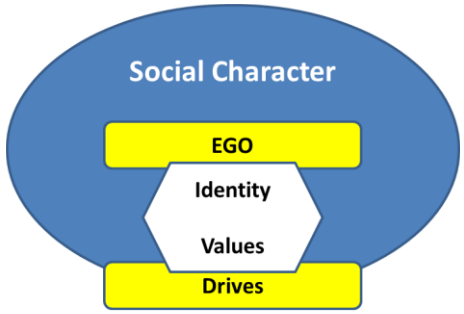
4. ***Marketing** – the ego-ideal is radar-like, orienting behavior to what is "appropriate" according to group values and pressures, to avoid the shame of looking bad.*

Dr. Michael Maccoby has described the four basic types of personality developed by Freud and Fromm as the *Caring, Visionary, Exacting and Adaptive*. These terms are very much in line with the original work from Freud and Fromm. Maccoby has also added the idea of the personality type being contained in the social character of the environment. The social character can be thought of as the “culture” of the village, country, organization or work unit. Three other parts of the system are adapted from Freud:

- The **Ego**, the mainly conscious reasoning facility that transforms these drives into needs and acts to satisfy them.
- The **Identity and Values**: composed of partly unconscious moral commands programmed by parents in childhood and conscious ideals and values which sometimes conflict with the drives and needs.
- **Drives** which are largely unconscious.

Figure 2 describes Maccoby's depiction of these important relationships in his personality system.

Figure 2: Maccoby's Personality Viewed as a System



Understanding the differences in people is critical to being in tune with our relationships and trying to optimize everyone's abilities and inclinations as we face change in our world. Porter

(1996) has proposed the idea of Relationship Awareness Theory to help us understand how we are different, what motivates us and how we interact with other based on our individual differences. The theory has four premises[1]:

1. Behavior is driven by Motivation: *We all do what we do because we want to feel good about ourselves*

2. We tend to take two different approaches to life:
   a. *When we feel that things are going well.*
   b. *When we feel that we are faced with opposition or conflict.*

3. Personal weaknesses are overdone strengths - *A "personal weakness" is no more or no less than the overdoing or misapplying of a personal strength.*

4. Personal filters influence perception - *We naturally tend to perceive the behaviors of others through our own filters.*

Relationship Awareness Theory helps us to understand that when things are going well, we have congruence in our values, motivation, strengths and behavior. We feel good about ourselves and observers may perceive this balance. When encountering *conflict,* our strengths may now be overdone and they become weaknesses. For many of us, our reaction to conflict in the early stages is usually picked up by many observers. Understanding our own values and motivation as we interact with others can help us prevent unwarranted conflict due to profile differences. Note: For more on Relationship Awareness Theory see the Strength Deployment Inventory instrument handout.

[1] *Relationship Awareness Theory, 9th Edition*, Elias H. Porter, Ph.D. Personal Strengths Publishing, 1996.

What motivates us? We tend to embrace and work on those things that we care about; those things that make us feel good about ourselves and generate genuine interest for us. Dr. Michael Maccoby has introduced what he calls the 5 Rs of Motivation:

1. **Reasons:**
   Why do we follow? What provides meaning to our work?
2. **Relationships:**
   What are the important relationships that contribute to my aims in accomplishing my purpose?
3. **Responsibilities**:
   Are my responsibilities clear for me to contribute to the purpose for which we are working?
4. **Recognition**:
   Am I recognized and appreciated for my personal contributions? How does my work affect my worth and dignity?
   Intrinsic Motivation: Work and play satisfaction come from the activity itself, as well as from fulfillment of social and personal needs. Satisfaction occurs during the activity. Examples: working on a team to improve one's job, or learning a new computer program that will improve performance.
5. **Rewards:**
   Am I being paid fairly for my level of expertise and skill?
   Extrinsic Motivation: Satisfaction lies outside the work activity itself. Examples: retirement plans, life and health insurance, rest pauses, and vacations.

Daniel Pink (2009) has recently recovered research from the 1940's that shows in transactional work extrinsic rewards are very effective, i.e. paying package handlers per package. For knowledge workers where ideas and creativity are required, extrinsic motivation can actually lead to worse performance. This runs counter to the widely accepted idea that everyone is motivated by extrinsic rewards.
http://www.ted.com/talks/dan_pink_on_motivation.html

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

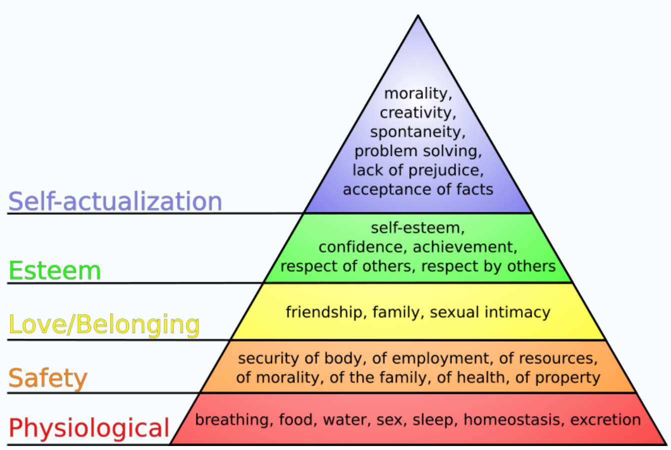
Maslow's hierarchy of needs was proposed by Abraham Maslow in his 1943 paper A Theory of Human Motivation. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is depicted in order of importance by level. It is often shown as a pyramid consisting of five levels: the lowest level is associated with physiological needs, while the highest level of achievement is associated with self-actualization. According to Maslow, lower needs on the hierarchy must be met first. Once these basic needs are met then the individual moves to the next levels to achieve personal growth. Higher needs in only are considered when the lower needs are met. Figure 3 describes the five levels proposed by Maslow from lowest to highest.

Maccoby's Critique of Maslow's Theory

Dr. Michael Maccoby (1988) offered a critique of Maslow's theory. He determined that it is misleading and inadequate as a basis for understanding the relationship between social factors and individual development for the following reasons:

1. The theory tends to rate everyone according to a scale of development rather than understanding situations and variation in people.
2. The need hierarchy ignores internal conflict and fails to distinguish between rational and irrational needs, progressive and regressive needs.
3. Maslow does not recognize the necessity of choice.
4. The theory pays little attention to the conflict between rational and irrational emotional attitudes (passion and reason).
5. Careerism brings happiness. Materialism is a prerequisite to self-actualization. Is self-actualization only for the rich and successful?
6. Instead of evaluating social systems in terms of how well they help actualize the creative needs of different types of people, Maslow's hierarchical system evaluates the person in terms of how well he adapts to the system, as though that were the full measure of his potential. A system that "fits" and stimulates one character type (not to speak of temperament and talents) may be frustrating for another.
7. Despite his conscious attempt to develop a modern humanistic psychology, Maslow ends by supporting, even celebrating, some values--hierarchy, mechanistic thought, idealization of success, careerism--that block the development of the heart.

Figure 3: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



Adapting to Change: The Role of Cognitive Dissonance and Self-Justification Theory

When people are asked to use a new structure or change a current practice, it is usually easier to adopt if the change is consistent with existing attitudes and beliefs that exist in the culture. If this is not the case, people will try to work out the dissonance between their individual beliefs and attitudes while seeking to adopt the requested change. Fistinger (1957) described this internal conflict with the terms *cognitive dissonance*. According to the theory individuals generally seek to maintain consistency among their beliefs, attitudes and behaviors. When there is an inconsistency between the beliefs, attitudes or behaviors (dissonance), a change must be made to eliminate the dissonance. If a dissonance exists between attitudes and behavior, it is more likely that the individual will alter their attitude to accommodate the behavior. This is especially true if the behavior is aligned with deeply held beliefs. If the request behavior is in direct violation of the belief system, the individual may opt to leave the system or organization.

Two factors affect the strength of the dissonance:

1. The number of dissonant beliefs held by the culture and the individual
2. The importance attached to each belief in the culture

There are three ways to eliminate dissonance:

1. Reduce the importance of the beliefs creating the dissonance.
2. Add more beliefs that are in line with the beliefs in the culture that outweigh the dissonant beliefs, or
3. Change the dissonant beliefs so that they are no longer inconsistent.

In eliminating the dissoance, as individuals we experience a need to justify our choices. This need to justify our actions to reduce dissoance is called **Self-JustificationTheory.** This theory is grounded in Feistinger's cognitive dissonance theory and can be described as a rationalizing our behavior in hindsight which was in conflict with our internal or external beliefs, attitudes, or cultural norms. Self-justification can usually be observed in two categories:

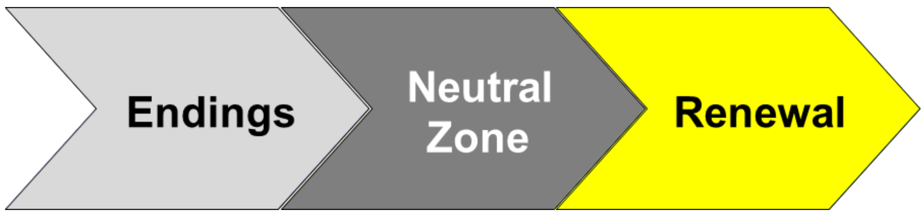
1. Internal self-justification: Changing our attitudes, downplaying or denying the negative consequences;
2. External self-justification: Forming excuses from bad luck, to lack of competencies. Keil et al. argue that two effects are relevant for escalation behaviour - social and psychological self-justification. Whilst psychological self-justification is a strategy to overcome dissonance, social pressures increase the need for self-justification, e.g., saving your face.

Self-justification is a psychological process to reduce or eliminate dissonance. Cultural and social pressures usually increase the need for self-justification in the individual.

Kurt Lewin’s Transition and Change Model:

How do we cope with change at the individual level? Helping individuals cope with change at the physical, logical and emotional levels is essential to helping people adopt a change. Bridges (1992) popularized a concept develop by Dr. Kurt Lewin (1951) and discusses the emotional acceptance of change by individuals as they transition through a change. It is explained as a three phased process. Figure 4 describes the three phase of the transition process.

Figure 4: Transitions through Organizational Change



1. **Endings (Unfreeze)** - letting go of the past. Actions: help people to let go of the past. Formally, let everyone know that what was has ended. People cannot move forward until they have let go of the old. Here are some ideas for unfreezing[i]:

   - Burning platform: Create a need to change; share the crisis at hand
   - Challenge: Encourage people to achieve remarkable things.
   - Command: Just tell them to move!
   - Evidence: Use data; provide data to help people make a good decision
   - Destabilizing: Create a structure that upsets the current reality
   - Education: Provide education and training to help people change.
   - Restructuring: Redesign the structure to encourage behavior change.
   - Rites of passage: Recognize what has been and help people move forward
   - Setting goals: Provide goals and objectives.
   - Visioning: Provide a positive vision of the future.
   - Whole-system Planning: Everyone contributes to the plan through active participation in gathering data for inputs and turning these inputs into useful information.

One company held an auction after they were merged to sell off all the old signs, coffee mugs, and stationary of the former company. The proceeds of the auction were given to a charity.

This auction allowed people to formally end the old and move forward into the new company environment.

2. **Neutral zone (Transition)** - the time in between the past and the present that includes the new change. This is the time that people are undergoing a new learning curve; relationships are being tested and formed. Actions: help people move through this period by providing structure that helps people to do the right thing and makes it difficult to do the wrong things.

- Boiling the frog analogy: Small changes may not be noticed.
- Challenge: Inspire people to achieve great things.
- Coaching: Provide support for all impacted stakeholders.
- Command: Tell people what to do.
- Give People Access to Information: Provide information education and training to help people move[ii]
- Facilitation: Use a facilitator to guide team meetings.
- First steps: Make it easy to get going; provide a path forward
- Involvement: Provide opportunities for people to be involved in the development, testing and implementation of the change.
- Open Space: Give people an opportunity to express what concerns them.
- Re-education/retraining: Educate and retrain the people you have in new knowledge/skills.
- Restructuring: Redesign the structure to force behavior change.
- Shift-and-sync: Change a bit then pause, stabilize and change again.
- Spill and fill: Incremental movement to a new view of the system.
- Stepwise change: breaking things down into smaller change packages.
- Whole-system Planning: Everyone contributing to the vision and planning.

During the Neutral Zone care should be given to over communicate the why of the change, giving guidance and help to deal with the new structure. Sometimes it is better just to change the structure cold turkey.

A Vice President's secretary was the first within headquarters to be given a new computer. She ignored the computer and continued to use the typewriter, justifying her behavior by saying it took too long to learn and it would not be an improvement over what she could do with a typewriter. One weekend, the Vice President came to the office and took the typewriter home to his garage. The next Monday morning, his secretary came in his office alarmed and agitated! Her typewriter was missing! Someone must have stolen it! He laughed and told her that it was he that "stole" the typewriter. He empathized with the difficulty in making such a change. But he felt it was one of the most important changes that she could make for the future. And he knew if she made the change, she could coach other secretaries and lead the technology change. He encouraged her and told her that he predicted based on past behaviors that she would become the most proficient secretary on the computer in headquarters. She took the challenge and within a year fulfilled his prediction.

3. Renewal (Refreeze) - Beginning again; establishing new work norms, relationships and routine. Actions: Ensure that people will have time to learn and adopt the change. Make sure that the necessary education and training are available to ensure a "soft landing" in the new environment.

- Burning all the ships (Cortez): Ensure there is no way back
- Give people access to information: Share with people that the change is real.
- Develop opportunities for intrinsic rewards to flourish of contribution and learning
- Institutionalization: Build the changes into the formal systems and structures.
- New challenge: Provide a positive vision of the future.
- Provide Alignment: Align job roles with new structure.
- Self recognition: Allow people to demonstrate how they are adapting to the new structure. Celebrate their accomplishments.
- Socializing: Build it into the social fabric.

Bridges maintains that people resist the *transition* and not necessarily the *change.* People resist the loss of who they were in the prior system, they resist the chaos that can occur in the neutral zone, and finally, they resist the fear of the new situation; Will I be able to be as successful in the new work? What happens if I make mistakes? How long will I be allowed to learn the new system? All of these things fuel the emotional feelings that can lead to resistance.

Change at the individual level has also been described by Hiatt (2006) in the ADKAR model for individual change. This model describes five required building blocks for change to be realized successfully on an individual level. The building blocks of the **ADKAR** Model include:

- **Awareness** – of why the change is needed
- **Desire** – to support and participate in the change
- **Knowledge** – of how to change
- **Ability** – to implement new skills and behaviors
- **Reinforcement** – to sustain the change

Interaction between Individuals

We have all heard that people are different. The differences become very important as we try to work and make changes together. Social psychology provides insight to help us better understand the interactions between people, the system and their environment. Follett (2003) makes the following observation regarding social psychology:

> *I should like, for social psychology, to express it as follows: Thinking (willing, purposing) is specific relating of the interdependent variables, individual and situation, each thereby creating itself anew, relating themselves anew, and thus giving us the evolving situation.*

The important points to bear in mind are:

- Behavior is both internally and externally conditioned.
- Behavior is a function of the interweaving between activity of organism and activity of environment, that is, response is to a relating.
- By this interlocking activity individual and situation each is creating itself anew.
- Thus relating themself anew.
- Thus giving us the evolving situation.

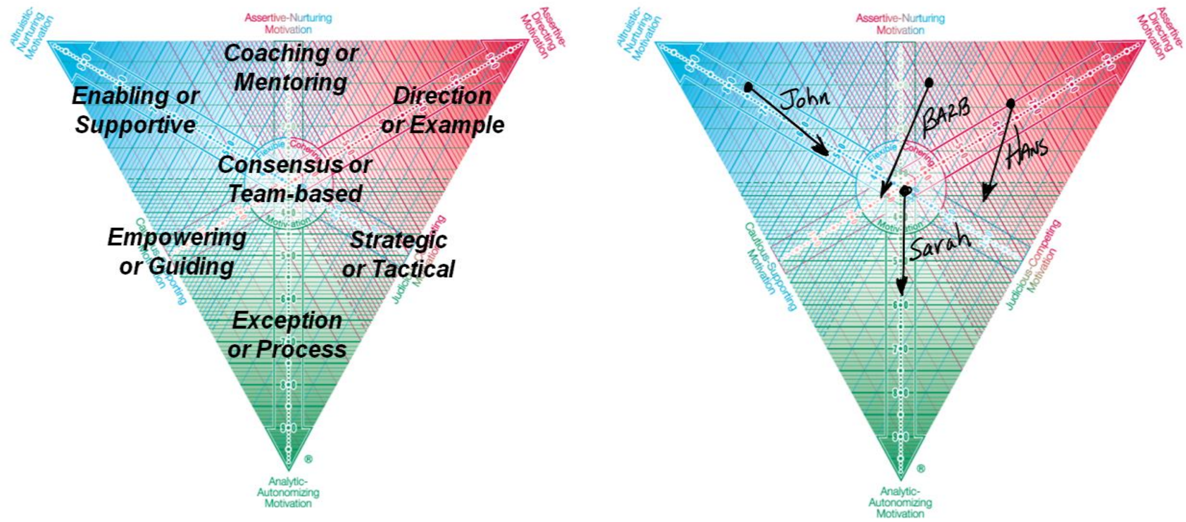
To help people discover the relating style, Porter (2006) developed the Strengths Deployment Inventory (SDI). The SDI is an interpersonal inventory focusing on motivation when things are going well and changes in motivation in conflict situations. Scores for individuals or groups can be graphed and discussed collectively. Instruments such as SDI can shed light on the individual differences that are typical. The SDI instrument has identified seven different profiles for individuals. These can be viewed relative to the contributions of Freud and Fromm in Table 1:

Table 1: Relationship of SDI & Evolution of Personality Type Descriptions

<table>
<tr><th>Freud</th><th>Fromm</th><th>Maccoby</th><th>Porter</th></tr>
<tr><td>Three normal types, based on earlier explanations of psychopathology.</td><td>Four non-productive orientations of adults in society.</td><td>Four productive types within a social character, with an emphasis on leadership.</td><td>Seven Motivational Value Systems striving for self-worth in relationships.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Erotic</td><td>Receptive</td><td>Caring</td><td>Altruistic-Nurturing (Blue)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Narcissistic</td><td>Exploitative</td><td>Visionary</td><td>Assertive-Directing (Red)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Obsessive</td><td>Hoarding</td><td>Exacting</td><td>Analytic-Autonomizing (Green)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="4">Recognition of blended types</td><td>Marketing</td><td>Adaptive</td><td>Flexible-Cohering (Hub)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Recognition of blended types</td><td rowspan="3">12 combinations of above 4 types based on dominant and secondary types</td><td>Assertive-Nurturing (Red-Blue)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Judicious-Competing (Red-Green)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Cautious-Supporting (Blue-Green)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Personality differences between going-well state and conflict state are not described.</td><td>Two states of personality; independent descriptions of changes in motivation during conflict</td></tr>
</table>

Figure 5 describes how these seven profiles can be used to describe a team of individuals. The example that shows the team of four highlights the challenge with profile differences in a team. The start of the arrow describes the relating style. The arrow describes the reaction to conflict for the individual team member. In our example, John, Barb, Hans and Sarah have very different relating styles. They also react to conflict in very different ways. Understanding these individual differences would help to minimize the opportunity for conflict over simple profile differences. The use of SDI helps people to understand these differences and more importantly embrace the diversity to maximize strengths and to minimize potential weaknesses and traps for a team.

Figure 5: SDI Profile Graphic

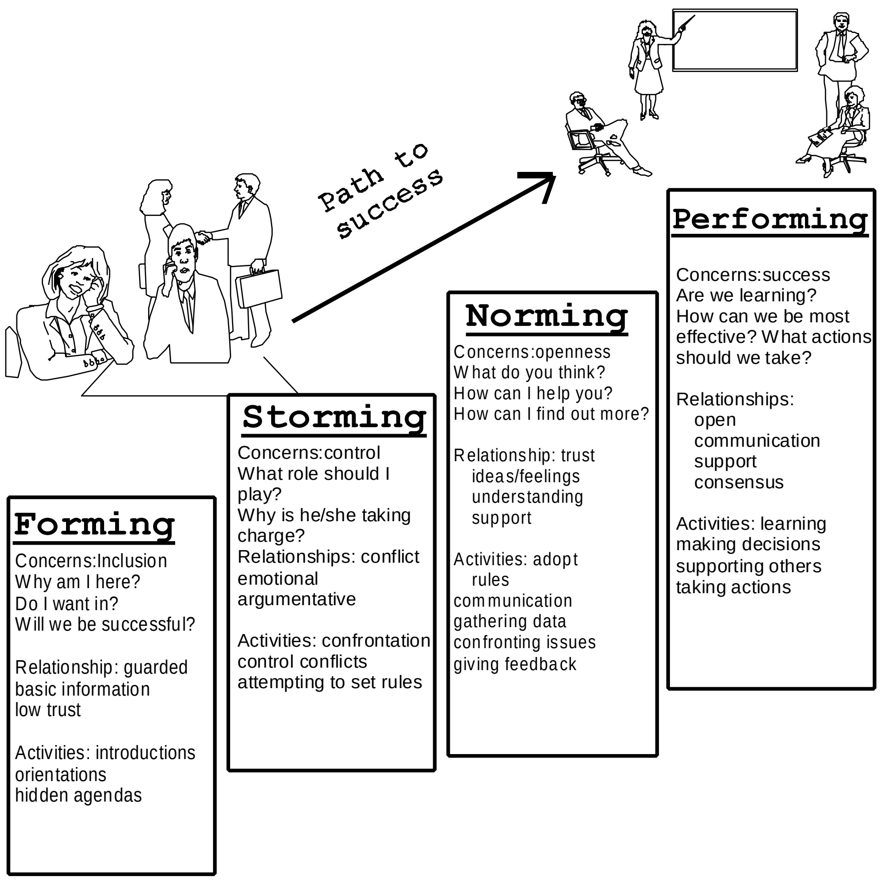


Effective teamwork requires understanding the common purpose of the group while respecting each other. Consider the definition of team:

> *A small group of individuals with complementary skills who have learned to work together toward a common purpose for which they hold themselves mutually accountable.*

Effective teamwork results from an environment that is conducive to trust & effective communication. Tuckman (1955) wrote about the basic stages that small groups experience over time in building this communication and trust relationship. These stages are commonly described as forming, storming, norming, and performing. While teams typically evolve through the stages, it is not uncommon for a team to get stuck in storming or to go back and forth between norming and performing. Familiarity with this growth pattern and the pitfalls that can hinder team growth helps each team achieve and maintain the "performing" level. Figure 6 presents a summary of the four stages.

Figure 6: Forming, Storming, Norming and Performing Model of Teamwork



Appendix A describes some methods by which teams make decisions.

Listen-Question-Restate/Rephrase (LQR)

Many of us find listening to another person a challenge. It has been said that in a two-way conversation "he that pauses is deemed the listener." While the other person is talking, we are sometimes busy crafting our response. To counter this tendency, there is a technique called Listen-Question-Restate/Rephrase or LQR. This means to be an active an active listener. To be an active listener you must first clear your mind and be present with the speaker. Listen first to content and only question for clarification. Finally restate and rephrase your understanding of the sender's message.

Groupthink: Behavior that Creates Barriers to Team Effectiveness

While there are many positive aspects to teamwork, there are also some pitfalls such as "groupthink." Irving Janis (1972) coined the term *groupthink* to describe the uncritical and self-perpetuating decision process that characterises some groups.

Groups that are most susceptible to this condition may have one or more of the following attributes:

- cohesive groups
- strong leader
- time pressure

Janis (1982) describes groupthink as "a mode of thinking that people engage in when they are deeply involved in a cohesive in-group, when members' striving for unanimity override their motivation to realistically appraise alternative courses of action." In short, groupthink can damage the quality of the decision making process used by groups. In these cases, the quality of the decision process reached by groups may not reflect the 'best' or even an 'average' of the individuals. Social factors such as dominance by one or two individuals, retreat of others and the compliance or apathy of others can destroy the effectiveness of a group. Some of these factors are very subtle and difficult to identify and manage. The following are some symptoms of groupthink:

- *Illusion of invulnerability:* creates excessive optimism & encourages taking extreme risks
- *Rationalisation:* group members discount warnings that might lead members to reconsider their assumptions
- *Stereotyped view of outside group's leaders:* as too evil, too weak, or too stupid
- *Pressures toward uniformity:* direct pressure on any member who expresses dissent
- *Self-censorship:* because of the apparent group consensus, each member minimises the importance of their own doubts
- *Illusion of unanimity:* resulting from factors above, an enhanced perception of unanimity, hence increased conformity pressures
- *Self-appointed mind guards:* members who protect the group from adverse external information

Fortunately, there are many ways to help prevent groupthink. We can enlist one or more of the following ideas to protect ourselves from this social trap:

- Bring in people from outside the group
- Assign the role of 'devil's advocate,' to ensure that decisions are challenged
- Establish team norms and procedures to ensure that every side of an issue is aired
- An influential leader or thought leader should refrain from expressing their own opinion first.
- Use the ladder of inference to challenge base data (see Figure 10)
- Enlist the Model Two Learning Norms (see this paper on p. 19)
- Use of De Bono's Six Hats to View Idea from all perspectives

Embracing Conflict to Aid Progress

As we discussed earlier, profile differences in individuals can lead to unwarranted conflict. Follett (2003) offers us some insight into changing our view of conflict as warfare to understanding conflict as the legitimate expression of differences. Follett defines conflict as difference—difference of opinion and of interests. Without conflict, without difference, there would be no progress. Conflict can actually be used to provoke creativity. Follett described the use of conflict to create in this way:

> *As conflict—difference—is here in the world, as we cannot avoid it, we should, I think, use it. Instead of condemning it, we should set it to work for us. Why not? What does the mechanical engineer do with friction? Of course his chief job is to eliminate friction, but it is true that he also capitalizes friction. The transmission of power by belts depends on friction between the belt and the pulley. The friction between the driving wheel of the locomotive and the track is necessary to haul the train. All polishing is done by friction. The music of the violin we get by friction. We left the savage state when we discovered fire by friction. We talk of the friction of mind on mind as a good thing. So in business, too, we have to know when to try to eliminate friction and when to try to capitalize it, when to see what work we can make it do….* Mary Parker Follett [i]

Many times opposition is viewed as conflict, but the two are defined are differently. Table 2 contrasts the two definitions. Opposition of ideas is very important to an effective dialogue (For more see Table 3, p.18 for discussion and dialogue contrasts). Conflict usually results when we react to a perceived threat to our self-worth. Generally, people are willing to go into conflict about things that are important to them. Elias Porter (2006) has made the observation that conflict can emerge from not understanding how we approach challenges individually, what he called "profile differences." Understanding the differences in profiles combined with the *Difficult Conversation* worksheets can help us to consider the other person's viewpoint and enter the conversation with the aim of learning rather than being a threat to the other person's self-worth.

Table 2: Opposition and Conflict Definitions

OPPOSITION:	**CONFLICT:**
op'po•si'tion–n. 1. Resistance, contradiction, contrast, differences... *Some of the most creative ideas come from the synergy of opposition.*	**con•flict'–n. 1.** A sharp disagreement or collision in interests, ideas and/or principles... results in emotional disturbance... *When a person's sense of self-worth is perceived to be threatened or at risk.*

Role of Attribution Theory in Observation, Learning and Judgment

This theory is referred to as "attribution theory" and comes from the field of social psychology. The term was first coined by Lee Ross some years after a now-classic experiment by Edward E. Jones and Victor Harris. Myers (1990) defines attribution theory and the corresponding fundamental attribution error (the tendency to find fault) as follows:

> Attribution Theory: The theory of how people explain others' behavior --for example, by attributing it either to internal *dispositions* (enduring traits, motives, character and attitudes) or to external *situations (circumstances, system)*
>
> Fundamental Attribution Error: The tendency for observers to underestimate situational influences and overestimate dispositional influences upon others' behavior.

We all are prone to commit the attribution error. Gladwell (2000) provides another definition of the fundamental attribution error: the “extrapolation from a measured characteristic to an unrelated characteristic.” When observing others in a behavior we can attribute reasons for their behavior to their character, professional associations, family, etc. “She behaves that way because she is an engineer.” “You are just like your mother.” Seldom do we take the time to understand the underlying circumstances (system issues) that have contributed to the observed behavior. On the other hand, when we are asked to account for our own behavior, we will tend to blame the circumstances and the system and minimize our own contributions. The reality of the situation is probably somewhere between for most situation.

Hidden Conflict - How do we know what is NOT being discussed?

Conflict is uncomfortable and many of us are very good at ignoring issues and circumstances that can create conflict. Openness and trust are usually required in an organization to ensure that learning is taking place. People in some organizations have learned that certain topics are not to be discussed regardless of their relevance to improvement or the organization’s well being. Halberstam (1988) provides a story about Henry Ford who refused to hear about new models of automobiles. Ford stifled innovation. He refused to introduce cars with new colors telling his managers that “customers can have any color they want as long as it is black.” Ford belittled his own son for trying to introduce innovation and watched as General Motors eclipsed Ford in sales. Wright (1996) describes the event:

“…Henry (Ford) did not like the new approach GM was taking to styling and annual model changes, but the die was cast. It quickly became apparent the Model A would not be built for 19 years as the Model T had been. GM passed Ford in sales in 1931 and Ford never regained the lead[iii]

Christensen (2003) describes a more recent example concerning Digital Equipment. Ken Olson, CEO of Digital, once told people around him not to bring up the word, “Personal Computer.” People learned this was hot language for the boss. This prevailed until the organization was purchased by Compaq Computer, a personal computer manufacturer.

As individuals, how are we contributing to the anti-learning environment by withholding information? Argyris has provided us with a technique called “Left Hand-Right Hand Column.” This technique allows the user to record the conversation the right hand column while engaged in the conversation or while observing. At the same time, the user notes down the thoughts he or she is having but not discussing. Figure 7 is an example of this technique taken from Senge (2000):

Figure 7: Left Hand – Right Hand Column

(Senge, 1990, pp. 196)

What I am thinking	What was said
Everyone says the presentation was a bomb.	**Me**: How did the presentation go?
	Bill: Well, I don't know. It's really too early to tell. Besides, we're breaking new ground here.
Does he really not know how bad it was?	**Me**: Well, what do you think we should do? I believe that the issues you were raising are important.
He really is afraid to see the truth. If he only had more confidence, he could probably learn from a situation like this.	**Bill**: I'm not so sure. Let's just wait and see what happens.
I can't believe he doesn't realize how disastrous that presentation was to our moving ahead.	
I've got to find some way to light a fire under the guy.	**Me**: You may be right, but I think we may need to do more than just wait. (Senge, 1990, pp. 196)

When Conflict Happens: Preparing for the Difficult Conversation

People who are experienced at helping other people make improvements will generally tell you that employing people skills poses the most challenge for change agents. Sometimes the fear and anxiety of the unknown can lead to conflict in the organization. Stone, Patton and Heen (1999) have made a wonderful contribution in helping us tackle *difficult conversations*. A difficult conversation can be defined as a conversation that we would rather not have or something that we find difficult to discuss. So we are in the weekly meeting and the same topics are being discussed and no one wants to breech the *real issue*. So we have a dilemma; do we continue to avoid the issue and feel a loss of self-worth or do we confront the issue head on. At times we feel trapped, this is a no win situation. Stone, Patton and Heen (1999) have offered there are usually three simultaneous conversations at work relative to a conflict:

- The What Happened Conversation (The evidence)
- The Feeling Conversation
- The Identity Conversation (What does this situation say about my self-worth?)

To begin the shift to a healthy outcome, we must embrace these three conversations from our perspective and the perspective of the other party. To help this process along, the two page worksheet in Figure 8a and 8b was prepared by the authors and produced by the Triad Consulting Group.

We are routinely effective in the description of our side of the issue and how we have been harmed or hurt in the relationship. These worksheets invite us to consider how the other party is fairing in the conflict to focus on learning from each perspective. As we approach the end of the second page, we can shift from blaming to learning. Generally, we are usually able to better articulate the issue so we can have the conversation. In some cases we may find our perceptions are more emotional and reflect our own journey up the ladder of inference. Completing these worksheets may cause us to eliminate the need to have the difficult conversation with the other party. If it is deemed necessary to have the conversation, this preparation can help articulate the issues with less emotion and a deeper understanding of the issues—from both perspectives.

Figure 8a: Difficult Conversation Worksheet- (Reference: http://www.triadcgi.com/)

TRIAD CONSULTING

Preparation Worksheet

The *What Happened?* Conversation					
Understand Each Other's Stories		Sort Out Contributions		Separate Impact & Intent	
My story: *What is the problem from my point of view?*	**Their story:** *What is the problem from their point of view?*	**My contributions:** *How have I contributed to the current situation?*	**Their contributions:** *How have they contributed to current situation?*	**My intentions:** *What were my intentions?*	**Their intentions:** *What might their intentions have been?*
What facts or observations seem important to me?	*What facts or observations might be important to them?*	*How might I change my contribution?*		**Impact on me:** *What impact has this situation had on me?*	**Impact on me:** *What impact might this situation have had on them?*

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Preparation Worksheet

The Feelings Conversation		The Identity Conversation		Choosing My Purposes
My feelings: *How do I feel about this situation?*	**Their feelings:** *What might they be feeling?*	**My self-image:** *What do I fear this situation says about me?*	**Their self-image:** *What might the situation say about them that would be upsetting to them?*	**My purpose for having a conversation:** *What do I hope to accomplish in this conversation?*
Which feelings make sense to share?		*What's true about this?*		*Circle the purposes that are* *1. In your control, and* *2. Helpful to you.*
		What's not?		

Leading Change -- Interaction between Individuals and the System or Changes to the System

Effective change in the organization is usually guided by the leadership of the organization. The interaction between individuals and the system as change is introduced is critical to the adoption and implementation of change. Creating the ***Will*** to embrace the change is a major responsibility for the leaders sponsoring the change. The effective leader understands that he or she is not necessarily ***creating*** will as much as they are uniting wills of the people who work in their organization. Follett (1919) has described this process of uniting wills:

> *We see this same process in studying the group. It is the essential life process. The most familiar example of integrating as the social process is when two or three people meet to decide on some course of action, and separate with a purpose, a will, which was not possessed by anyone when he came to the meeting but is the result of the interweaving of all. In this true social process there takes place neither absorption nor compromise.*

Walton (2004) has noted, “The age-old secret to generating buy-in is to strategically design, target and deliver a story that projects a positive future.” To accomplish this positive future state Walton suggests a *Strategic Story Methodology*, the following is adaptation of the approach:

> Establish the aim; what do you want to accomplish? What actions do you want your audience to take regarding your stated aim? To accomplish this overall aim of the story there are three steps:

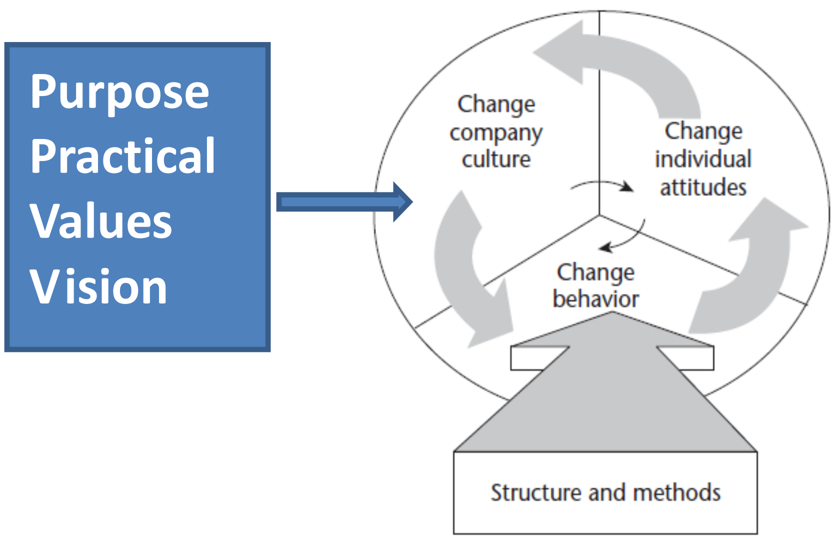
1. **First Step:** Establish your strategic storyline.
   - Paint the picture of how the future will be different. Use a specific date to show when this future will happen.
   - Create the *relative advantage* for the group, the WIIFM (What is in it for me?).
   - Describe the positive impact on the outcome, process and balancing measures that will be affected by achieving this future state.
2. **Second Step**: Develop the vision of the future in three key points that target your audience’s wishes, hopes and aspirations.
   - What are three most important changes (or groups of changes) that need to happen to move the group to the desired future state.
   - Help people to see that the changes support the values of the organization (see Figure 5 on the role of values and introducing a change).
   - Use everyday language to help people adopt the changes being discussed.
3. **Third Step**: Call your audience to action.
   - Enlist people who care about the issue, who have an internal commitment to see the project through to completion. *Align the wills!*

- Ensure that resources to accomplish the aim are discussed and people know that this is available and the leaders are serious about making this future state a reality.
- Develop a plan to address the changes and establish a path forward.

Role of Structure, Behavior, Attitudes and Culture in Making Changes

How can we make successful changes? Within an organization we can establish some structure and methods that influence the behavior of the people in an organization, we can work on individual attitudes, or we can focus time and energy on the organization's culture. Figure 9 illustrates these choices.

Figure 9: Structure, Behavior, Attitudes and Culture



Many experts would advise us that cultural change takes time and demands that the beliefs of the organization be changed. Challenging beliefs or attitudes directly can create cognitive dissonance as discussed earlier which can result in resistance to stop or impede the change effort. To accept change, most of us need to understand the reason for the change and experience how it helps us. From Figure 5, it will be easier for us to adopt a change if we can see how it matches our current values, or beliefs (tenets). Introduction of a change that appears to match the beliefs of the organization usually facilitates adoption of the change. Safety at chemical plants throughout the country is usually perceived as job one. Much time and effort is usually spent to ensure that the plants are operated in a safe manner. Any improvement that is introduced that also is linked to plant safety will usually find a quick path to adoption.

To help people implement a new change or adopt a new structure, it is usually important to communicate the "why" of the change to the affected stakeholders. The Five Attributes of Adoption provided by Rogers (1962) gives a good framework to ensure effective communication:

1. Relative advantage of the change (What is in it for me?)
2. Compatibility with the current culture and what people routinely see/assume,
3. Minimize complexity when explaining the change,
4. Allow people to try and test the new change, and
5. Observe the success of the change in others; providing examples and opportunities for people to observe the successful use of the change by others will increase support for the change.

Tom Peters highlighted the new product introduction process at 3M in a video which provides a good example of ensuring the change is compatible with the current culture and what people are used to seeing:

> *A 3M researcher was introducing a prototype of a CD to get permission from the product review board to start production. During the presentation the researcher always held the CD in the flat position. At the end of the presentation and off line, Peters asked the researcher why he never showed the face of the CD. The researcher explained that 3M makes "flat stuff," tape, sanding paper, and post-it notes and that holding the CD flat would make his product more familiar to the audience and give him a better chance at adoption.*

People generally find change challenging when they do not understand the reasoning behind the new structure. Roger's attributes of adoption have proven in practice to help people *transition* through the change process.

Appendix 1 attempts to share the thought process for an individual as they respond to the call for change in the organization.

Role of Leadership Once the Change has been Determined

Once the change is announced, Pfeffer and Sutton (2006) have provided four key elements for creating the path forward. To create and align ***Will***, the leadership team should consider creating:

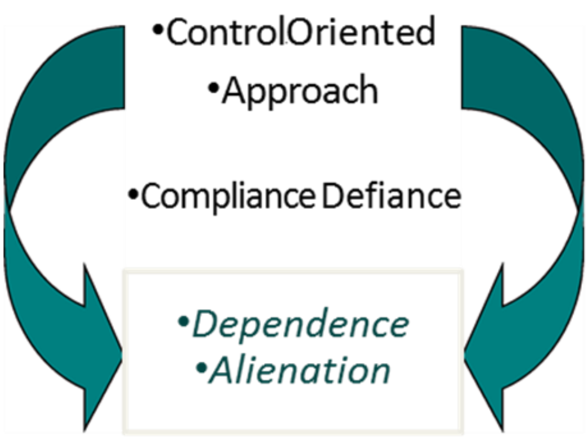
1. **Dissatisfaction**
   People need to be unhappy about the current state of affairs. If unhappiness with the status quo isn't there, create it.
2. **Direction**
   Relentlessly communicate what the change is, why it is necessary, and what people ought to be doing *right now* with as much clarity as possible. If you are not saying, writing, and modeling the same message over and over again, it probably isn't going to stick.

3. **Overconfidence (punctuated by self doubt and updating)**
   Express excessive _**faith**_ that the change will succeed and be worth the pain, time and money in the end. Create a self-fulfilling prophecy, regardless of the success rate anywhere else. Learning is the focus which means we openly discuss doubts, uncertainties, make predictions of outcomes and learn from the results, good and bad.
4. **Embrace the mess**
   Accept that there will be errors, setbacks, miscommunication, frayed nerves and frightening rumors, when an organization tries to do something new, no matter how well the change is planned. Use PDSA to learn and be willing to test any and all ideas to LEARN and make change successful.

Moving from "Control" to "Choice" to Enable Intrinsic Motivation & Creativity

Maccoby and Scudder (2010) have provided two views of helping people to have reasons to follow. Framing of the issue as one of "choice" as opposed to "control" allows the individual to make a choice to follow and more importantly contributes their ideas and creativity to the choice. Figure 10 describe the intended and unintended consequences of these two approaches.

Figure 10: Control vs. Choice Oriented Approaches



The intent of control-oriented approaches is to obtain compliance. The alternative to compliance is defiance – or maybe even a creative combination of compliance and defiance. An approach intended to yield cooperation may have unintended consequences. Some benefit of control-oriented approaches include: speed, consistency and clarity. When over-used, control-oriented approaches can create dependence or alienation – because people either wait to be told how to do things or they resent being told how to do things.

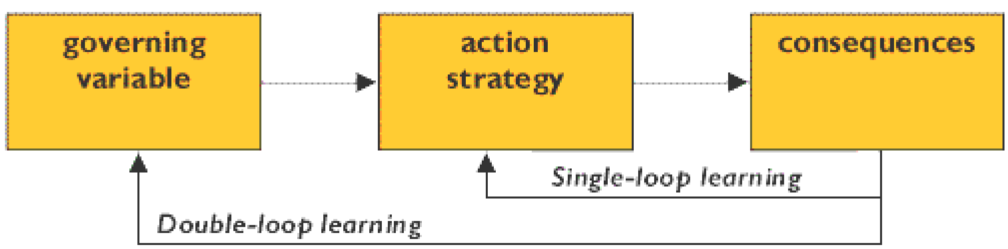
The intent of choice-oriented approaches is to create involvement. The alternative to involvement is other options – using the choice to do something else or to do nothing at all. An approach intended to yield involvement may instead have unanticipated consequences. Some benefits of choice-oriented approaches include: new and better ideas, self-regulating behavior and accountability. When choice oriented approaches are misapplied they can result in unclear expectations or too-slow responses, especially in crisis situations.

Role of Single and Double Loop Learning

Dr. Chris Argyris and Dr. Donald Schön (1978) introduced the idea of learning and changing in an organization when problems are difficult, embarrassing or threatening to the well being or self worth of the people in the organization. The journey to learning usually begins with recognition of an error. An error was defined by Argyris & Schön as a mismatch between plan or intention and what actually happened when either is implemented. Sometimes it is difficult to acknowledge the error due to cognitive thinking traps. Organizations can have the most difficulty in learning when the problems are difficult, embarrassing or threatening. Unfortunately, this is when learning is needed most.

Argyris and Schön described the process of learning from errors with the idea of *single and double loop learning*. Figure 11 describes both single and double loop learning.

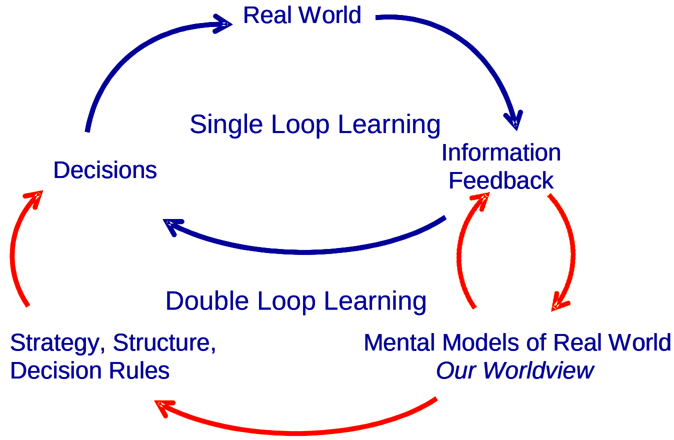
Figure 11: Single and Double Loop Learning Model



When the error is detected and corrected it permits the organization to carry on its present policies or achieve its…objectives, then that error-and-correction process is *single-loop* learning. Single-loop learning is like a thermostat that learns when it is too hot or too cold and turns the heat on or off. The thermostat can perform this task because it can receive information (the temperature of the room) and take corrective action. *Double-loop* learning occurs when error is detected and corrected in ways that involve the modification of an organization's underlying norms, policies and objectives.

Dr. John Sternman provides a similar view of the two loops of learning in Figure 12. The primary job in a double loop learning mode is to expose our underlying mental models or assumptions that drive our formulation of strategy and decisions. Such learning can lead to a reframing of the situation, new goals and new rules for decision making, not just new decisions.

Figure 12: Second Version of Single and Double Loop Learning



Model One and Model Two Approaches to Learning

Argyris & Schön described two types of approaches to learning for which members of an organization can engage when faced with problems that could be embarrassing and/or threatening. The attributes of an organization which exhibits anti-learning or Model One behaviors is usually relegated to *single loop learning*. Figure 13 describes this approach and the attributes of a Model One organization facing embarrassment or threatening situations. The first column describes the governing variables or worldview in use for the organization. The second column describes the actions that the team will take given the governing variables. The last three columns describe the consequences of the actions which can be intended or unintended. Argyris & Schön defined governing variables, actions and consequences as follows:

- **Governing variables:** those variables that people are trying to keep within acceptable limits. Any action (change) is likely to impact upon a number of such variables – thus any situation can trigger a trade-off among governing variables.
- **Actions:** the moves and plans used by people to keep their governing values within the acceptable range.
- **Consequences:** what happens as a result of an action(s)? These can be both intended - those the change agent believes will result - and those unintended. In addition, those consequences can be for the self, and/or for others.

A Model One reaction to problems within an organization can be described as defensive and usually emphasizes a unilateral approach to taking action. Governing variables are not questioned relegating the group to a reduced set of possible solutions or single loop learning. Consequently data and information are cut off from sources that may be helpful to the team which becomes “self-sealing” with only single loop learning. These are described in Table 3.

Contrast this approach to that of a Model Two organization that would engage in Double Loop Learning by challenging the governing variables in an effort to learn. This is described in Table 4. The Model Two approach demands participation by people who have an internal commitment to solving the issue and are not threatened by the journey. These people care about the outcomes and usually have intrinsic motivation. People in a Model One situation may be driven by "external commitment" and will work on an issue as long as it is important to the managers of the organization or while they are rewarded. This approach can lead to micromanaging by those who wish to prevent any possibility of embarrassment or threat to the organization. These behaviors can include the active opposition to any ideas that may be perceived as threatening to the present worldview and status quo.

To operate either Model One or Two some *social virtues* are usually at work in the background. An example of social virtues that may be at work are presented here under five categories provided by Argyris; 1) Help and Support, 2) Respect for others, 3) Strength, 4) Honesty and 5) Integrity. Table 3 & 4 describe the social virtues of both the Model One organization with Model Two. Table 5 provides a contrast between the social virtues for the Model One and Model Two Organization.

Figure 13 describes the concept of empowerment as it relates to alignment & authority and an individual's commitment to act. The commitment could be internal or external. If the commitment is internal, the individual is intrinsically motivated and cares about the project. If the commitment is external, then the individual is only motivated as long as external forces are at work; "I will commit time to this project as long as my boss cares about it." If external commitment pervades a team, then the team leader will probably find the need to follow-up frequently and making sure tasks are being done. If the team is made of people who are orientated to an internal commitment, the team will be make progress and will tend to be more self-managed. Team members will find the time and resources to make the project work because they care about it.

Table 3: Model One Organization Attributes When Faced with Embarrassment or Threat

World View & Governing Variables for Action	Action Strategies	Behavioral Consequences	Learning Consequences	Effectiveness Consequences
Define goals and try to achieve them	Design and manage the environment unilaterally (be persuasive, appeal to larger goals, etc.)	Actor seen as defensive, inconsistent, incongruent, controlling, fearful of being vulnerable, withholding of feelings, overly concerned about self and others, or under concerned about others	Little testing of theories publicly	Decreased long term effectiveness
Maximize winning and minimize losing	Own & control the task (claim ownership of the task, be guardian of definition & execution of the task.)	Defensive interpersonal & group relationship (depending on actor, little help to others.)	Single loop learning	Self-sealing
Minimize generating or expressing negative feelings	Unilaterally protect yourself (speak in inferred categories accompanied by little or no directly observable data, be blind to impact on others & to incongruity; use defensive actions such as blaming, stereotyping, suppressing feelings, intellectualizing	Defensive norms (mistrust, lack of risk taking, conformity, external commitment, emphasis on diplomacy, power-centered competition and rivalry	Frequent private testing of theories	
Be rational	Unilaterally protect others from being hurt (withhold information, create rules to censor information and behavior, hold private meetings.)	High freedom of choice, internal commitment & risk taking		

Table 4: Model Two Organization Attributes When Faced with Embarrassment or Threat

World View & Governing Variables for Action	Action Strategies	Behavioral Consequences	Learning Consequences	Effectiveness Consequences
Valid information	Task is jointly controlled	Learning oriented norms	Processes can be disconfirmed	Increased long term effectiveness
Free & informed choice	Bilateral protection of others	Actor experienced as minimally defensive	Double loop learning	
Internal commitment to the choice & constant monitoring of its implementation	Design situations where participants can be origins of action & experience high personal causation	Minimally defensive interpersonal relations & group dynamics	Frequent public testing of theories	
	Protection of self is a joint enterprise and oriented toward growth	High freedom of choice, internal commitment & risk taking		

To operate either Model One or Two, some social virtues are usually at work in the background. An example of social virtues that may be at work are presented here under five categories provided by Argyris: (1) Help and Support, (2) Respect for others, (3) Strength, (4) Honesty and (5) Integrity. Table 5 contrasts the social virtues of both the Model One organization with Model Two.

Figure 13: Empowerment – *A Function of Alignment/Authority to Act*

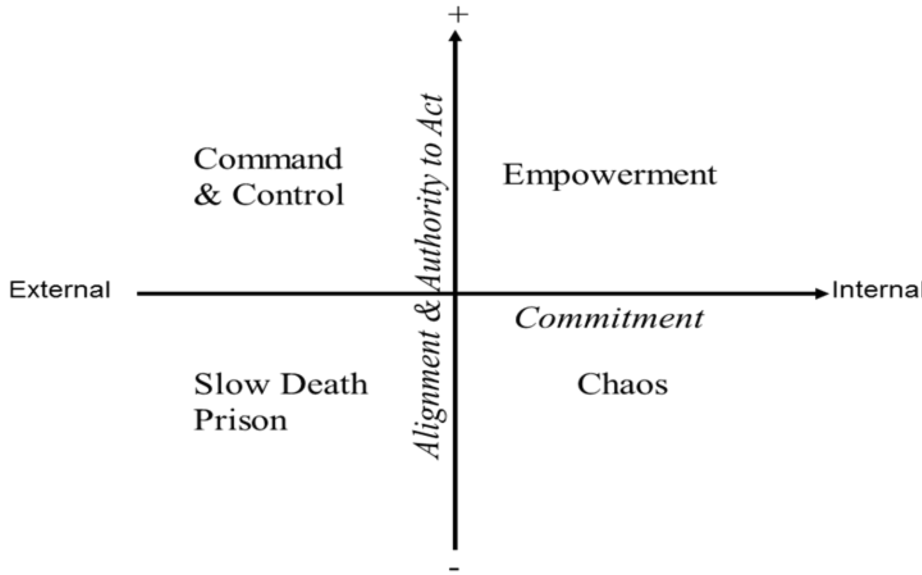


Table 5: Social Virtues of a Model One and Model Two Organization

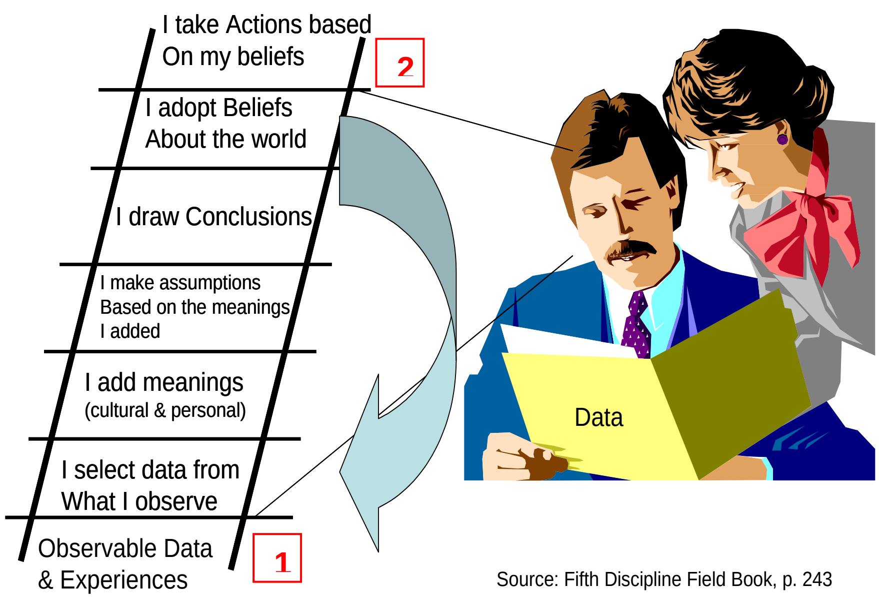
Model 1	Model 2
Help and Support • Give approval & praise • Tell others what you believe will make them feel good about themselves. • Reduce their hurt by telling them how much you care, and if possible, agree with them that others acted improperly.	**Help and Support** • Increase the other's capacity to confront their own ideas, to create a window into their own mind, and to face the un-surfaced assumptions, biases, and fears that have formed their actions toward other people.
Respect for others • Defer to other people; do not confront their reasoning or actions.	**Respect for others** • Attribute to other people a high capacity for self-reflection and self-examination without becoming so upset (self worth threatened) that they lose their effectiveness and their sense of self-responsibility and choice. Keep testing this attribution.
Strength • Advocate your position in order to win. Hold your own position in the face of advocacy. Feeling vulnerable is a sign of weakness.	**Strength** • Advocate your position and combine it with inquiry and self-reflection. Feeling vulnerable while encouraging inquiry is a sign of strength.
Honesty • Tell no lies, • Don't tell others all you think or feel	**Honesty** • Encourage yourself and other people to make public tests of their ability to say what they know yet fear to say. Minimize what would otherwise be subject to distortion and cover-up of the distortion.
Integrity • Stick to principles, values and beliefs	**Integrity** • Advocate your principles, values, and beliefs in a way that invites inquiry into them and encourages other people to do the same.

Argyris & Schön and have provided some group norms or behavior guidelines to help us create an environment where the social virtues presented in Model Two can be encouraged in the organization or team. These **Model Two Learning Norms** encourage participation, use of data, and exploration of theories and possible new approaches as we tackle difficult problems:

1. Participants must clearly advocate their ideas.
2. Participants must provide data, facts, or reasons for their ideas.
3. Participants must explain why their data, facts or reasons warrant their advocated idea.
4. Participants must invite inquiry from their collaborators about the quality of their advocacy, data, and explanation.

Using these norms within a team helps to mitigate the effect of the *Ladder of Inference,* discussed earlier and described in Figure 14. When we ask for the base data or evidence in the beginning of the conversation, we ask the proponent of the idea or action to take us on the journey of learning. How did their thinking about this base data or evidence lead them to their conclusions and actions?

Figure 14: Ladder of Inference



Examining the ladder from bottom to top, you will notice that other people are merely observers relegated to the interpretation of; 1) the original observable data/experience and, 2) the actions taken by the participants. When we "run up the ladder" and establish our beliefs, this thinking process usually takes seconds. Acquired beliefs about the world act as a filter for observing data and experiences in the future. Data and experiences most familiar to the person collecting the data or making the observation will usually be noticed, reinforcing the acquired beliefs. Contrary data and experiences should question or help revise the acquired belief.

However, data and experiences which do not reinforce the acquired beliefs are usually ignored. Kuhn (1996) called the inability to see data that disconfirms beliefs as “paradigm paralysis.” Use of the Model Two group norms provides a method for participants to share their journey from data to action with other participants and to confront their underlying beliefs or worldview. These Model Two Norms provide a challenge to the established paradigm and an opportunity for changing the worldview and the current decisions and strategies that are in good currency today.

Dialogue combined with the Model Two Norms discussed earlier can be a very useful technique to encourage inquiry, exploration and team learning. An effective team is able to move between discussion and dialogue. These norms have been useful in helping teams uncover the possibilities in difficult situations they face. Table 6 revisits the comparison of discussion and dialogue.

Voltaire warned[iv] change agents: “It is dangerous to be right in matters on which the established authorities are wrong.” Within the Model One environment, the authorities may not be in a learning mode. In a Model Two circumstances understand that it is dangerous to maintain the illusion of being right, when in fact you are operating from false assumptions.

Table 6: Discussion and Dialogue

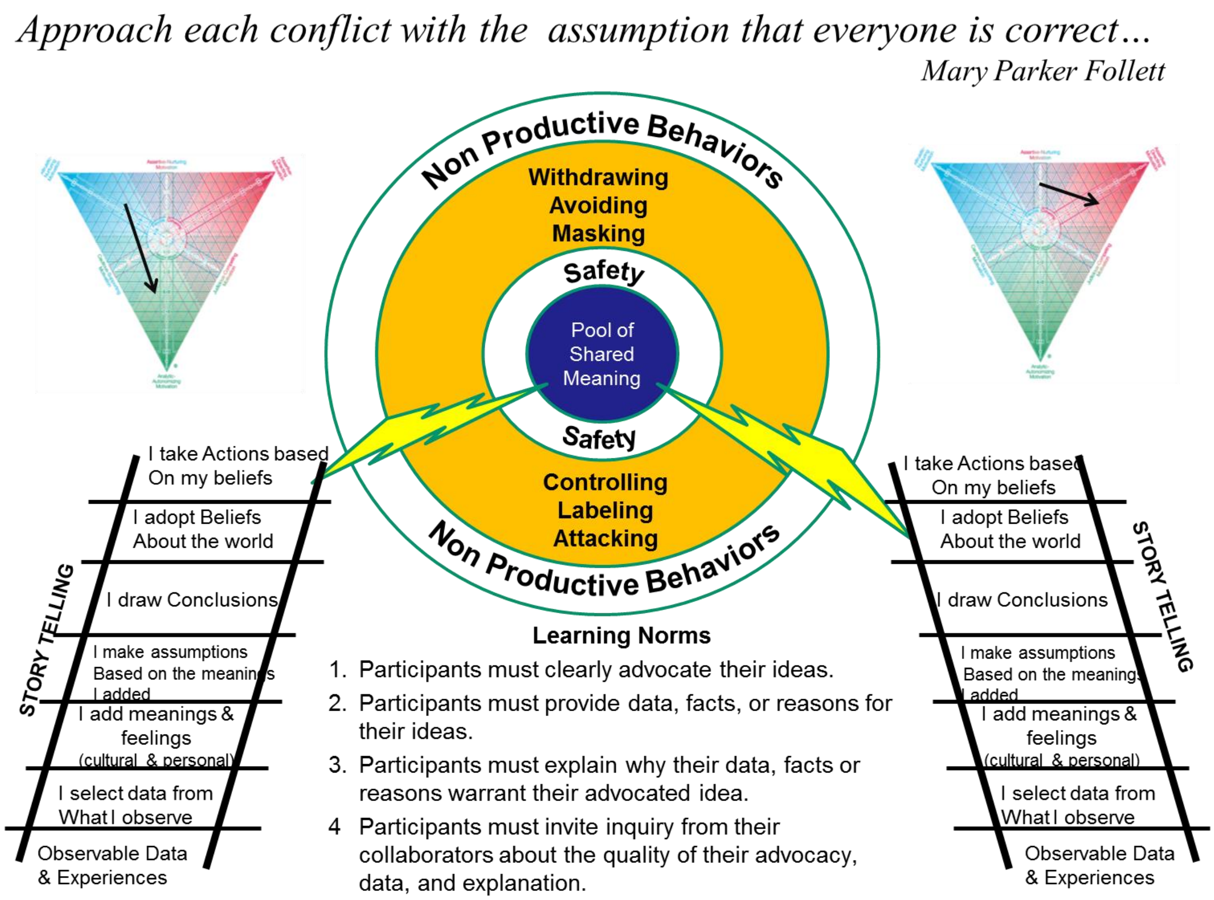
	DISCUSSION	**DIALOGUE**
AIM	Decision, action	Learning
PROCESS	Views are presented and defended	Views are explored; Inquiry and reflection
GROUP STATUS	Basic information (Ideas)	Open communication (Feelings)
OPPOSITION	Avoided if possible	Part of the process

To effectively bring along everyone to a place where we have shared meaning requires a dialogue. Figure 15 describe the challenge of a two-way conversation between two people. This figure describes and integrates some four basic ideas we have presented in this paper:

1. Personality Differences from the Strengths Deployment Inventory (SDI), reference Table 1 for the Personality Types.
2. The Ladder of Inference just discussed in Figure 15. Here we describe the journey up each ladder as the story each individual develops from their viewpoint and filters.
3. The aim of contributing to the “pool of shared meaning” and possible non-productive behaviors that may get in the way of learning.
4. The Learning Norms that could be used to help ensure we have the learning environment that will help us to more effectively develop, test and implement effective changes.

From the Strengths Deployment Inventory profile, we can see that we are very different people and process information with different worldviews and filters. Each person utilizes the ladder of inference to craft a story from their vantage point. Surrounding their ability to communicate is the challenge of making the environment safe and free from language that would threaten. If the two people can use the SDI to understand profile differences this unwarranted conflict may be avoided and a more productive dialogue would be possible. Finally, using the learning norms to ensure the communication process takes advantage of ideas, evidence and inquiry to ensure learning.

Figure 15: Ladder of Inference & the Pool of Shared Meaning



In Figure 15, we have quoted Mary Parker Follett; *Approach each conflict with the assumption that everyone is correct…*given the two or more different stories that are usually involved in learning and taking action, Follett's advice can help us to stay open to learning from others. Table 5 describes the relationship between Argyris's definition of a Model Two learning environment, the Model Two Learning Norms and the guidance of dealing with opposition from Mary Parker Follett.

Ethical and Moral Reasoning in Making Changes

Operating with the social virtues of a Model 2 organization and effectively utilizing the Model 2 Learning norms discussed earlier may require some courage on the part of the change agent. Change in organizations may be threatening to some and for us to make progress we may find ourselves challenged with a conflict. To help us help others we may want to consider what we can learn from ethical and moral reasoning. When people become aware of these levels of moral and ethical reasoning, it may help us to see the impact on the larger system in a new light.

Ethics has to do with following the rules, including the law, professional codes of conduct, religious commandments and the principles that underlie these rules. Being ethical is essential to building trust. It also keeps you out of serious trouble with law enforcement and regulatory agencies. Ethics should not only be part of every leadership philosophy, but also expected of everyone in the organization. However, your application of ethics depends on your level of moral reasoning, which influences your definition of the common good.

Levels of Moral Reasoning

The Harvard psychologist Laurence Kohlberg studied levels of moral reasoning and described the following three:

1. **Focused on one's self**: The lowest level defines good as individual well-being, avoiding punishment or gaining rewards. This implies that a person conforms to ethical rules only when an authority is watching or might subsequently learn about an infraction. With this kind of morality, there is no common good. It's only looking out for number one.

2. **Focused on one's group or department**: The next level defines good in terms of what you consider good for your family or organization as well as for yourself, without concern for the effect of your actions on those outside your circle. This definition can lead to a narrow view of the common good: we vs. others. Or it can be a start of viewing self-interest in terms of the larger community that supports your group.

3. **Focused on the impact to the Interdependent System**: A broader definition of the common good is what benefits, or at least doesn't harm, all those who may be affected by your actions, stakeholders. This might include employees, customers, owners, communities, unborn generations and the natural environment.

At this third level of moral reasoning, leaders of improvement may be challenged to make tougher decisions that don't benefit themselves or their organizations, but will benefit the larger common good that involves the ultimate aim of the customer or an environmental goal. A decision like this requires moral courage. However, a decision that does not benefit an organization in the short term may do so for the longer term. A notable example was the decision by Johnson and Johnson's CEO to withdraw and destroy all Tylenol in stores because some capsules had been poisoned. This costly decision created trust in the company and its products.

The level of moral reasoning at which leaders of change and improvement in an organization operate can be inferred by the way that purpose, practical values and definition of results are expressed.

Examples of a high level of moral reasoning include:

- Google – Sergey Brin and Larry Page, founders of Google express the philosophy of "Do no harm." Their document “Ten Things We Know to Be True” invites people to hold the organization accountable for acting in accordance with the ten things.

- The Mayo Clinic – William Mayo built the Mayo Clinic on his philosophy that the patient comes first and Mayo doctors can challenge each other and authority according to whether their actions benefit patients.

By articulating a philosophy that includes a higher level of moral reasoning you strengthen the focus on the patient and inspire your collaborators for change to think of the well-being of the organization and community that it supports.

Integrating Learning into the Organization

Using the concepts of single and double loop learning, the attributes and social virtues of a Model Two organization, the ladder of inference, dialogue and Left Hand-Right Hand Column technique can be helpful to the change agents in bringing knowledge relative to a challenging issue to the surface. All of these ideas and methods taken together can help an organization begin the process of learning together. Senge (1994) described a learning organization in the following way:

> *An organization where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning how to learn to together.*

Table 7: Integrating Theories for Learning in the Organization integrates Model Two Social Virtues with a Model Two Learning Environment while considering Follet’s Rules of Conduct.

Table 8 provides a summary of situations, theory and potential methods and tools to assess and address individual situations when striving to learn.

Appendix 1: Dissonance describes what happens when dissonance is experienced and the role of the system to provide structure. See section on Changing Culture Model.

Appendix 2: Team Decision Matrix describes the method, objectives with advantages and disadvantages in order to help individuals choose the best method of decision making for the situation and outcome desired.

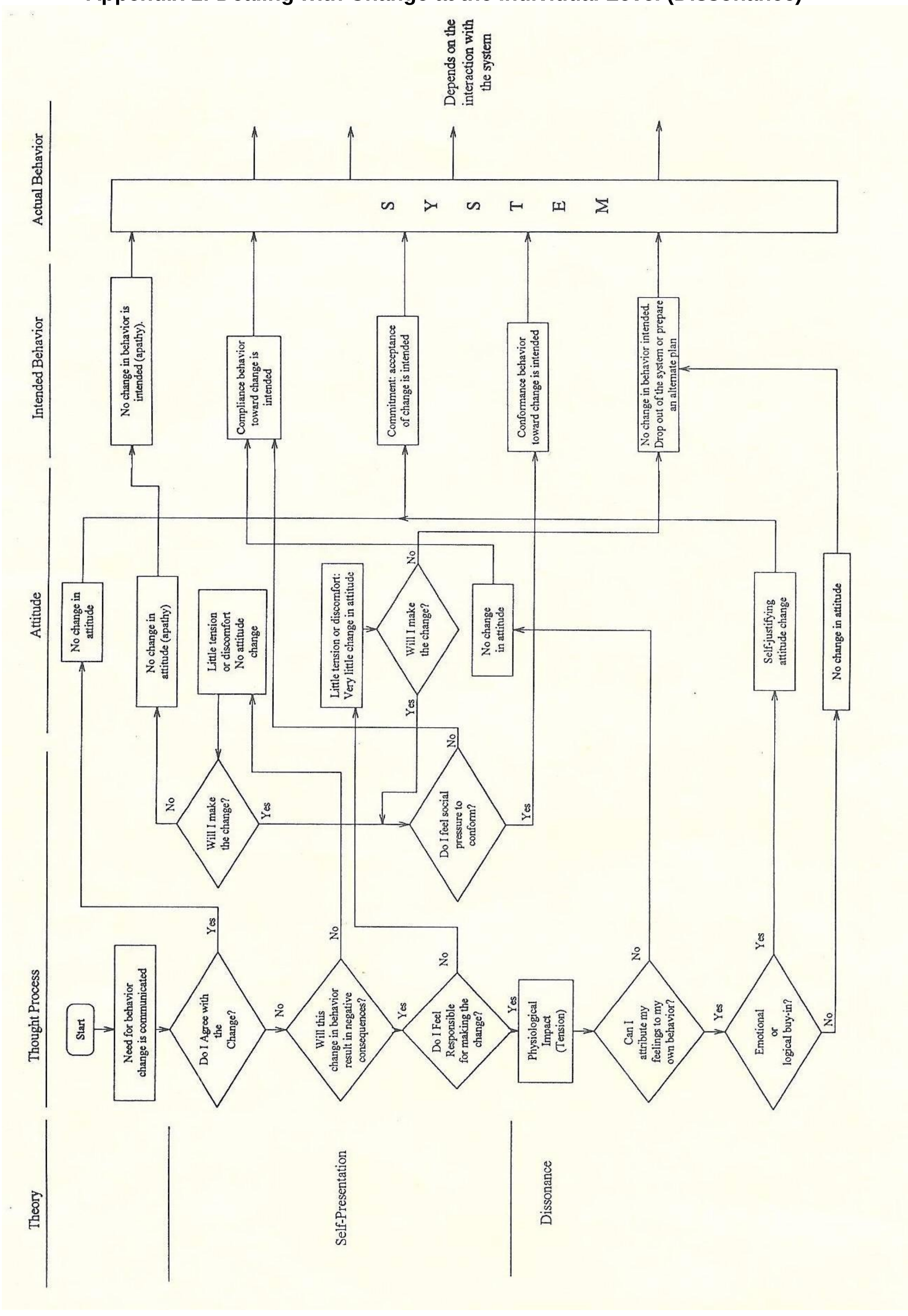
Table 7: Integrating Theories for Learning within the Organization

Integrating the Individual Talents with the Social System in a Learning Organization Using Model Two Social Virtues	**Argyris & Schön Learning Norms In a Model Two Learning Environment**	**Follett inspired Rules of Conduct (I Thou – relationships matter)**
Respect for Others Attribute to other people a high capacity for self-reflection and self-examination without becoming so upset (self worth threatened) that they lose their effectiveness and their sense of self-responsibility and choice. Keep testing this attribution.		Relationships matter! We will respect the talents of all. Assume that everyone is correct during the early stages of the opposition to encourage learning.
Integrity Advocate your principles, values, and beliefs in a way that invites inquiry into them and encourages other people to do the same.	1. Participants must clearly advocate their ideas.	Use the mutual understanding of each other's questions to *integrate* both positions into a new & different answer that satisfies both opinions.
Help & Support Increase the other's capacity to confront their own ideas, to create a window into their own mind, and to face the un-surfaced assumptions, biases, and fears that have formed their actions toward other people.	2. Participants must provide data, facts, or reasons for their ideas	We will not compete with one another. We will cooperate and develop relationships. .
Strength Advocate your position and combine it with inquiry and self-reflection. Feeling vulnerable while encouraging inquiry is a sign of strength.	3. Participants must explain why their data, facts or reasons warrant their advocated idea	When there are differences: • Assume both sides are "right". • Inquire: What must these people who differ with me & oppose me see as the right question if their position is rational and correct?
Honesty Encourage yourself and other people to make public tests of their ability to say what they know yet fear to say. Minimize what would otherwise be subject to distortion and cover-up of the distortion.	4. Participants must invite inquiry from their collaborators about the quality of their advocacy, data, and explanation.	We will take the time to learn from each other, not compromise another's views.

Table 8: Summary of Theories in Use and Methods for Individual, Team and Organization Relative to Situations

Focus	Situation	Theory in Use	Methods/Tools
Individual	*Why can't the others see what I see?*	Projection of Profile	SDI to understand my own profile and profile of others
	My Belief is the correct Belief	Inference from Base Data/Experience	Ladder of Inference to examine assumptions and evidence
	I don't know if I can handle the new job and requirements	Cognitive Dissonance See Appendix 1	Understand the system structure and reconcile beliefs and attitudes
Between Individuals	*Why do we seem to argue over the small issues?*	Profile differences can cause unwarranted conflict	Use SDI to understand profile differences under normal and conflict conditions
	Why do so many people jump to conclusions without considering the data?	Conjunction fallacy; Attribution error	Use of the Ladder of Inference to understand the circumstances and situations of other people. Use of SDI Portrait of Strengths to understand difference in values.
	How can I improve my listening skills	Listening to people shows respect	LQR Listen for content Question for clarification Restate and rephrase your understanding of what you heard.
Between the individual and the system and change	*We have too many opinions of what is wrong with our organizations*	World view of individuals may not be clearly understood	Use the stated Values of the organization and survey: • Importance to Purpose (1-5 Rating) • How well practiced (1-5) Ask for evidence and suggestions for improvement
	We have stated values that encourage learning. Our unstated values tell you to play it safe and be careful as to what is shared.	Model One confused with Model Two Values	Use of Argyris ideas on evidence and suggestions for improvement relative to stated values. Use this to uncover the unstated in a safe learning environment
	How do we create will and align wills to pursue some necessary changes?	People generally will react to a positive vision of the future.	Develop your strategic story to generate buy-in. Use Rogers' attributes of adoption in your 3 step message. Consider the SDI MVS scores for the group adopting the change and frame your message accordingly. Use "Getting buy-in 3 step process."

Appendix 1: Dealing with Change at the Individual Level (Dissonance)



Appendix A: Team Decision Matrix

Method	When to Use This Method	Advantages	Disadvantages
One person makes the decision (no input)	- when time is critically short - routine decisions - one person has all necessary knowledge	- fastest	- no learning - support is usually limited
One person makes the decision with input from others	- when time is short - routine decisions	- quick - some sharing of knowledge	- little learning - support may be limited
Voting or majority rules	- large number of people involved	- allows input from everyone - does not take too much time	- usually alienates part of the team
Consensus	- decision affects many people - learning is an important aspect of the activity - emphasis is on long term improvement	- learning is maximized - 100% support by the team	- it takes time - mature team skills are required

Summary

This paper has covered some ideas related to change at the individual and organizational levels. The following ideas were discussed:

1. How individuals are motivated, learn and react to change.
2. Importance of Relationship Awareness theory to understanding ourselves and others.
3. The role of conflict and how unwarranted conflict comes from profile differences.
4. How personality intelligence in helps to make the learning environment conducive to allowing contributions to the *pool of shared meaning*.
5. Dr. Kurt Lewin's model for change; Unfreeze-Transition-Refreeze.
6. The role of structure in helping people change and the theory of cognitive dissonance.
7. Using Dr. Everett Roger's principle of adoption to help individuals and organization adopt change.
8. The role of some key elements of what Dr. Chris Argyris referred to as a "learning organization." Here is a summary of what was discussed:
    - Single and Double Loop Learning
    - Attributes of the Model One and Model Two Organization
    - Social Virtues of the Model One and Two Organizations
    - Important learning norms for a Model Two learning environment
    - The important role of discussion and dialogue in learning
    - Using the Ladder of Inference to ensure that we have a common understanding based in evidence whenever possible.
    - Use of the Right Hand-Left Hand column to check what we are withholding from the important conversations.
9. Preparing the Difficult Conversation and understanding profile differences in people can lead to a win-win situation and eliminate the blame game.
10. Dr. Argyris's method of interviewing stakeholders for evidence and suggestions for improvement relative to stated values.

Exercise: Cash Register Case Study

Plan

What team dynamics allow team members to learn from each other?
Your Prediction (includes why… your personal evidence this is your belief):

What team dynamics are barriers to learning from each other?
Your Prediction (includes why… your personal evidence this is your belief):

Data Collection Plan

1. Use the Cash Register Case with existing groups to learn from existing team dynamics.
2. Each individual will learn all the facts of the story at the same time.
   NO NOTES!
3. Each individual will be tested on recollection and comprehension of the story.
4. The group will read the story together.
5. Individuals will record answers in the Individual Column.
   Hint: If it is not true, it is false.
6. After ALL team members are finished with the test, the team will review the test and record team answers in the Team Column.
7. The Facilitator will provide the correct answers once each team is finished.

Data to be collected and shared from each team:

a. Individual Scores
   i. Lowest number CORRECT ____________
   ii. Highest number CORRECT ____________
b. Team Score – Number CORRECT ____________

Team	Individual Results Lowest Correct Highest Correct	Team Results # Correct
A		
B		
C		

Cash Register Story Statements

		Individual	Team
1	A man appeared after the owner had turned off his store lights.	T F	T F
2	The robber was a man.	T F	T F
3	The man did not demand money	T F	T F
4	The man who opened the cash register was the owner.	T F	T F
5	The store owner scooped up the contents of the cash register and ran away.	T F	T F
6	Someone opened a cash register.	T F	T F
7	After the man who demanded the money scooped up the contents of the cash register, he ran away.	T F	T F
8	While the cash register contained money, the story does not state how much.	T F	T F
9	The robber demanded money of the owner.	T F	T F
10	The story concerns a series of events in which only three persons are referred to: the owner of the store, a man who demanded money, and a member of the police force.	T F	T F
11	The following events in the story are true: someone demanded money, a cash register was opened, its contents were scooped up and a man dashed out of the store.	T F	T F

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- Endnotes

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[ii] Langley, G., Nolan, K., Nolan, T., Norman C., Provost, L., *The Improvement Guide: A Practical Approach to Enhancing Organizational Performance* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 2996). Reference the Change Concepts on p. 295.

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