5 Change processes

in which my writing on change processes, theories and skills is summarised, and some conclusions about the design and facilitation of change processes are drawn; the emphasis is again on processes which are robust in the hands of relative novices, and on the skills they require to use these processes successfully

The bulk of my recent writing has been in two areas. [1] One, the topic of chapter 6, is action research. The other, dealt with immediately below, is community and organisational change. The two categories are for convenience; in practice they overlap. This chapter summarises a sample of my writing on change, under the headings:

- change models
- change skills and methods
- personal development
- interventions
- action learning and
- action science

1. I've omitted here some recent writing on applications of complexity theory to facilitation, change and research.

As in the previous chapter, I then draw some conclusions about processes for change, and how they can be made robust for use by beginning change agents.

Change models

The first document (paper 17) in this chapter consists of a change manual (henceforth *Manual*). In scope it is more of a book than a paper. In addition to providing an overview of the change process, it includes a number of papers on more specific processes and models. It was written to be usable by novices.

Paper 17 — Change manual

Bob Dick (2001) *Community and organisational change: a manual*. Chapel Hill, Qld.: Interchange.

The early parts of the manual provide an overall model of change, first described in a very broad-brush way, then in more detail. There are three main phases to this model:

- pre-planning, where relationships are formed and participation established
- planning, where diagnosis, goal-setting and action planning take place
- change, where the plans are flexibly implemented and monitored.

A set of principles which can be used as a checklist is included. Detailed processes for steps in the overall model are then described, and other resources are included.

The manual then contains 19 resource papers on processes, skills and models relevant for change management.

The structure of the manual is based on that of one developed participatively as part of a consultancy. That previous manual [2] was developed through a participative multi-stage process (for which the host organisation won an award):

1 The consultancy team negotiated their roles with the CEO, the human resources team (henceforth the HR team) and the directors and managers of each division.

  The HR team took responsibility for the overall design of the manual. We met with this team approximately weekly throughout the consultancy.

  A reference group, broadly representative of the organisation as a whole, was set up. We met approximately every three or four weeks with this group, seeking their feedback as the manual was developed.

2 We conducted a training half-day with the HR team, helping them to learn how to facilitate a focus group.

  Six focus groups were planned. The HR team put together six groups of people, each group broadly representative of the organisation, for the focus group sessions. A structured form of focus group (see "Structured focus groups", later) was used to allow larger groups than what is usually recommended.

  Volunteers from the HR team facilitated the focus groups. (Part of our brief was to help organisation members improve their change skills.) Members of the consultancy team were present to provide coaching or other help as required. (Very little help was needed.)

2. My colleagues in this consultancy were Kerry Cronan, Ira Smith and Dick Hicks. We worked as colleagues for the participative aspects of the consultancy. I provided or wrote all of the material for the change manual, though taking other people's views into account.

3 I developed a first draft of the manual, taking into account our brief, our contracting with senior officers, discussions with the HR team and reference group, and the results of the focus groups.

The draft was critiqued by my colleagues, the HR team and the reference group, and revised. HR team and reference group members were also encouraged to distribute the draft and ask employees to send us any comments and suggestions, which we almost always incorporated into the draft manual.

Particular attention was given to fitting in with other organisational procedures, and using language common in those procedures. Our intention was that the manual would integrate easily with other procedures.

4 Several volunteers tried out the processes in the manual on actual or previous projects. Some of these were small projects in the planning stage. Others were large projects which had been completed. In the latter instance, some of those involved in the project analysed how effective the project planning would have been if the manual had been used. In the light of this, the manual was further revised.

5 The publications section of the organisation converted our master document into a manual in livery and format that was consistent with organisation practice.

The manual was launched as a "living document". Each section included a feedback sheet, which users were encouraged to fill in after any session in which they made use of the manual processes or models.

I mention this to establish that the structure and language of the *Manual* included here was based on one designed from the start to be user-friendly and practical. The user-friendliness and practicability of the earlier manual were tested in the field and found appropriate.

Several features of the manual can be noted as a result of this process (the first two summarised as figure 5.1):

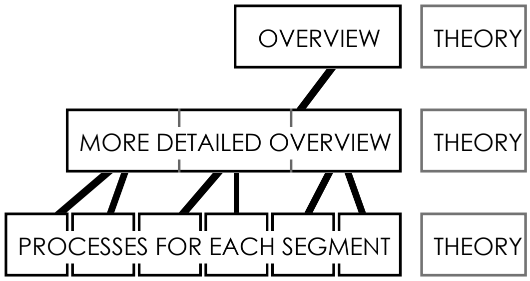

Figure 5.1 Manual structure

- The information is "tiered". A broad overview is first elaborated, and then illustrated with detailed processes.
- Appropriate theories or models are provided for most pieces of each tier. For instance, each principle is accompanied by a rationale.
- The model is related to a process (planning a journey) with which most readers can identify.
- The language is simple where possible, avoiding jargon.
- Flexibility is encouraged. For many key steps, two detailed processes are described so that there isn't one right way to take the step. The instructions for the principles say (paper 17 page 13):

  "The guiding principles have several purposes. They are intended to ...
  - *encourage you to mistrust the recipes*
  - *help you to look beyond the recipes to the reasons for each step*
  - *help you to develop an appropriate substitute process when the process described in this document isn't a good fit for your situation."*

- Skills as well as processes are addressed in some detail.

The detailed skills and processes mostly consist of previously-written papers, revised for the purpose and incorporated in the manual. As I will want to refer to some of these later, I include the full list in Box 5.1, extracted from the table of contents of the manual.

Box 5.1 Resource papers included in change manual.

The change tools:

1 Entry 39
2 Processes 43
3 Communication 49
4 Facilitation 57
5 Mechanisms for participation 65
6 Stakeholder analysis 71
7 Impact analysis 77
8 Culture 79
9 Search 83
10 Goal setting 89
11 Force field analysis 97
12 Situation analysis 101
13 Event track 107
14 Action planning by mindmap 119
15 The Snyder process 123
16 Action research 127
17 Beliefs without reason 131
18 Freedom within limits 141
19 Resources 145

I revisit some of the tools from this monograph later in this chapter.

Paper 18 is again more of a monograph or a small book than a paper. It too was intended for use by novices. Titled *Processes for community consultation* [3]

3. The label "community consultation" has fallen into some disfavour amongst its practitioners. If I were writing the document now I would be more likely to choose a title such as *Processes for public participation*.

(henceforth *Consultation*) it was written as part of a community consultation project for traffic planning.

Paper 18 — Community consultation

Bob Dick (1990) *Processes for community consultation*. A monograph-length resource document prepared for the use of facilitators and members of local area consultative committees associated with a community consultation project for road planning in Brisbane.

Early chapters provide the context for the particular study. Then follow a number of chapters on the particular consultative model used. Finally, there are often-detailed descriptions of particular processes for community consultation. The emphasis throughout is on ways of gaining the genuine involvement of people.

The general tenor of the document is captured in the quotes given prominence in the regular sidebars; for example (paper 18: 121)

> *"Your task is to design a meeting which will obtain the best possible involvement, and the most satisfying outcome for as many of the stakeholders as possible."*

The history of the document illustrates well the manner in which, for me, practice often precedes description or theory. Most of the concepts about citizen participation were developed over many years in other community consultation projects where I was able to do much of the facilitation myself.

For example through the 1980s and thereabouts I was involved in about a dozen different participative planning exercises in provincial centres in south-eastern Queensland. Preparing this document for road and transport planning provided an opportunity to document much of the learning that emerged from the earlier work.

On a related topic, paper 19 offers a set of choices for facilitators of citizen participation. It is a consultation checklist (hereafter *Checklist*) identifying some of the decisions facilitators may find it useful to consider.

Paper 19 — Consultation checklist

Bob Dick (2001) Community consultation checklist, fifth revision. Interchange: mimeo.

This brief paper offers to facilitators of citizen participation a number of choices, each with a number of options. Some rationale for the choices is also provided.

Similarly to *Consultation* (paper 18)the checklist is based on my prior experience of facilitating such processes. I believe it offers within its 16 pages a clearer identification of the key choices in participation than other documents I'm familiar with.

"Joyful productivity" (paper 20) addresses structural and cultural change. It began as a conference paper on organisational culture and developed into a description of how structure and culture might be chosen.

Paper 20 — Joyful productivity

Bob Dick (2002) *Joyful productivity: creating joyful and productive cultures*, version 1.06. Chapel Hill, Qld: Interchange.

Bureaucratic structures that have worked well for many centuries now are becoming ineffective. In response, organisations are moving to more team-based structures which devolve more responsibility downward through the organisation.

The new structures amount to a cultural change. Ways of introducing cultural change are briefly described.

In the light of my experience since this paper was written I would now approach one part of it differently. The paper states that I would usually in cultural change seek to build support at senior management levels and then work with the enthusiasts at the workface. This had been my practice, as well as the practice of many of my colleagues. In a recent consultancy I had only limited access to these levels apart from the organisation's CEO. However, I had ready access to middle management. For the most part they were keen to learn and to do things differently. So that was where some internal colleagues and I worked.

As a result I decided that it is possible to work from middle management outwards. Theories and processes don't always fit the reality that a consultant or facilitator has to contend with. Flexibility has once again been shown to be important. In this instance practice has again taken precedence over theory.

Coincidentally, in a subsequent consultancy another colleague (Ross Colliver) drew my attention to a paper by Quy Nguyen Huy (2001). Quy argues that middle managers are often entrepreneurial and more willing to change than their superiors. Since then I've also come across an earlier article by Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1982) offering a similar view. These largely anecdotal accounts are complemented and supported by some recent empirical work. Johanna Mair and her colleagues (for instance, Mair and Rata, 2004) report similar conclusions.

Three themes provide the conceptual foundation for the paper:

- We are a small tribe species. We function best in small cohesive groups — a reality which bureaucractic structures have ignored.

- Organisational structure is above all a way of managing interdependencies between people; bureaucratic and team structures do this in very different ways.
- Structural change almost unavoidably is cultural change, with all the difficulties which that implies.

I would now describe these themes as strategic concepts — ideas which change the way people perceive and make sense of their experience.

Paper 21, History of bureaucracy (henceforth *Bureaucracy*) takes many of the same ideas and collapses them to a brief handout. (The original, reformatted to six pages for this thesis, was four pages.)

Paper 21 — History of bureaucracy

Bob Dick (2003) A brief history of organisations. Interchange, unpublished mimeo.

This brief paper is used as a handout to support structural change work. In six pages it draws attention to the collapse of bureaucracy, identifies our current structures as hybrids, and explains how workteams can achieve greater satisfaction and productivity in ways which are good for the organisation.

The paper is not intended to be free-standing though some people have said it was sufficiently clear and self-contained to be useful. I use it as a brief handout to accompany consultancy work I am doing in organisations. It supports the work done by providing a rationale for that work.

Its purpose is to support structural and cultural change in organisations. It does so by drawing attention to an experience that will make sense to many readers —

an experience that the bureaucratic structures which worked well in the past are now less effective.

I next consider four monographs. All written in collaboration with Tim Dalmau, they address cultural change. The first two of them are now out of print. I include them here in the documents included with this thesis as paper 22, *Diagnostic model*, and paper 23, *Politics, conflict and culture* (henceforth *Politics*), reformatted from old master documents. The other two are monographs.

Paper 22 — Diagnostic model

Tim Dalmau and Bob Dick (1991) *A diagnostic model for selecting interventions for community and organisational change*, second edition. Chapel Hill: Interchange. Reformatted from original monograph.

This monograph presents a three-dimensional model of change, with emphasis on cultural change. The three dimensions are:

- the *cultural depth* of change — that is, whether practices and procedures are addressed, or direction and purpose, or identity and unity
- the *focus* of the change — whether task and technology, or role and structure, or climate
- the *scope* of the change — whether indivual, or team, and up to organisation and beyond.

By answering a number of questions about the problem to be addressed by the change, a clearer identification of an appropriate intervention can be made.

Paper 23 — Politics, conflict and culture

Tim Dalmau and Bob Dick (1990) *Politics, conflict and culture: concepts for cultural change*. Chapel Hill: Interchange.

This monograph first related our life-cycle model of cultural change to other models which had begun to appear in the literature. Then followed three models of relevance to cultural change:

- The second watershed, a model of social evolution
- The culture grid, which characterises cultures (national and organisational) on the two dimensions of cooperation/competition and individualist/collectivist.
- The conflict grid, a modification of the Thomas-Kilmann (1974) conflict grid.

Finally, interventions for cultural change are described.

Monograph — Profane to sacred

Tim Dalmau and Bob Dick (1990) *From the profane to the sacred: small groups as vehicles for cultural change*, revised edition. Chapel Hill: Interchange.

This monograph develops an argument that small groups are one of the vehicles by which organisational culture is maintained. It therefore is appropriate that they can also be used as vehicles for bringing about cultural change. Five specific strategies for cultural change, using small groups, are described.

Monograph — To tame a unicorn

Bob Dick and Tim Dalmau (1994) *To tame a unicorn ... recipes for cultural change*, third edition. Chapel Hill: Interchange.

This, the latest and most extensive of the four cultural change monographs, presents a number of detailed descriptions of processes for cultural change. The early chapters address relevant conceptual issues, moving from broader generalisations to some models relevant to cultural intervention. The detailed descriptions are then provided. They address, in turn, the use of story, politico-cultural processes, history-based processes, vision-based processes, and dreaming trails.

Taken together the four monographs span the range from high-level conceptual models through to step-by-step descriptions of actual interventions. The monographs therefore demonstrate the same tiered nature of the information and an integration of theory and practice as mentioned previously.

I think it is also apparent how complex cultural change is. Consider, then, that cultural change is a component of much other community and organisational change. You will recall that “culture” was one of the four components of the preplanning phase of the change model of paper 17.

The emphasis in this section of the chapter has been on overall change models — a generic model, and separate documents which address community consultation and cultural change. Some of those documents address methods and skills, as does the next section.

Change skills and methods

In this section I consider some of the skills and concepts which can provide a foundation for effective facilitation and consultancy. I begin with paper 24, *Dialectical processes*. This paper provides a model which can act as a framework for process design.

Paper 24 — Dialectical processes

Bob Dick (2002) *Building agreement from disagreement: the anatomy of dialectical processes*. Chapel Hill, Qld.: Interchange.

Delphi [4] is a process commonly conducted by mail with an anonymous panel. It is used to pool the judgments of a number of experts, most often for the purpose of forecasting. Here it is analysed conceptually to identify the different functions it serves within that purpose, and how its purpose may be better achieved. Distinguishing between adversarial, consensual and dialectical processes, I identify delphi as an important example of a dialectical process.

I then analyse panel composition, the nature of the relationships, and the cyclic process used. With the understanding that emerges from this analysis I describe a face to face version of delphi.

4. See also Gordon (2003).

This paper documents the development in my own understanding of types of process, and their design.

Here in particular I wish to draw attention to the nature of three different styles of process. I contrast dialectical processes [5] with those that are adversarial or consensual. I argue that while adversarial and consensual processes are in common use, dialectical processes are counter-cultural. Though for many purposes they are more effective, they may be opposed or resisted unless used with care.

I view this categorisation of different process types as a strategic concept: a concept that can change people's perception. It is a simple categorisation which helps facilitators think differently about process design and facilitation.

Note also that the paper builds a logical case for the design of delphi, both conventional and face to face. In my view, the paper *Dialectical processes* demonstrates that a thoughtful logical analysis of a process can lead to improved understanding of the functioning of the process. That, in turn, can support process improvement.

For comparison, consider Harold Sackman's savage critique of delphi (Sackman, 1975). He treated it as a research technique rather than as a forecasting technique. He critiqued it against criteria which were appropriate for quantitative research. Rather than leading to improvement of delphi, his critique largely drove the process underground for many years.

Two of the papers in the previous section include other documents within them which belong in this section. The *Manual*, paper 17, includes two skills-oriented "change tools":

5. These have also been addressed in paper 23, *Politics*, though with less depth of analysis.

- Change tool 3, *Communication*
- Change tool 4, *Facilitation*.

(Paper 17, change tool 3) — Communication

Bob Dick (2001) Communication. In *Community and organisational change: a manual*. Chapel Hill, Qld.: Interchange, 49-56.

The paper identifies three families of communication skills: giving information, getting information, and managing the interaction. It provides the foundation skills and processes for each of these in a form which can be memorised and put into practice.

You will notice that *Communication* doesn't provide word by word formulae for communicating. [6] This is in marked contrast to some of the practical communication literature, especially some of the early literature. [7] The omission is deliberate. I have observed that users of formulae can appear non-genuine to those who hear them. Most people are now familiar with some of the assertion formulae, and several have reported to me that they resent it when they notice someone using the formulae.

Information is once again tiered. Communication skills are a fine grain component of the processes described in the monograph. In turn they are first divided into the three categories of giving information, getting information, and managing the interaction. Some basic processes for each are then provided.

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6. The examples given are not presented as something to be rote learned or as one right way to communicate but rather as examples.
7. An extreme example is Manuel Smith's 1975 book *When I say no I feel guilty*. New York: Bantam.

"Facilitation" is a further example of a more detailed description offered as part of a larger tiered document.

(Paper 17, change tool 4) — Facilitation

Bob Dick (2001) Facilitation. In *Community and organisational change: a manual*. Chapel Hill, Qld.: Interchange, 57-63.

This "change tool" in the change manual uses the Fido model as a conceptual basis for some suggestions about facilitating, especially facilitating meetings.

(Facilitation is dealt with in much more detail in the book *Helping groups to be effective*. See the next entry.)

The "FIDO" model around which the paper is organised gives people an easy-to-remember mnemonic which can guide facilitation. Some comments about it are in order. For convenience I reproduce it below as Figure 5.2 (from paper 17, p 59).

In Figure 5.2 and in the *Manual* FIDO is presented as a finished model. In practice I prefer to develop it, in all its detail, in conversation with participants. My approach is to ask questions, and build the model out of the responses of the participants. In comparison a text description is a pale copy:

Bob: Why do we have meetings?

Participant: To make decisions?

Bob: (*writing up "Decisions" on butcher paper or whiteboard*) And the purpose of those decisions is ...?

Participant: To bring about some action.

Feelings which are
- positive towards self, others, goals and process
- and not strongly negative towards anything

allow the exchange of

Information, which if
- specific, adequate, accurate and relevant
- and understood and accepted by all

helps to make more effective

Decisions. If these
- have the commitment of those affected,
- specify who will do what by when, and
- include monitoring and coordination

then the desired

Outcomes are more likely to be achieved.

Figure 5.2 The FIDO model

Bob: (*to participants as a whole*) Does that fit in with your experience — that many meetings are intended to bring about some action, some outcomes?

(*Participants indicate agreement, verbally or non-verbally.*)

Bob: (*writes up "Outcomes" underneath "Decisions" and draws an arrow from "Decisions" to "Outcomes"*) So we often have meetings to produce some outcome. We do that by making decisions.

How do we make decisions? (*draws an arrow above "Decisions" and pointing to it*) What is the raw material out of which we make decisions? [...]

Of course the actual conversation can't be predicted in detail. In such an exercise the words used (apart from the feelings, information, decisions and outcomes of the mnemonic "FIDO") are those of the participants. So that the text version of the model (as shown in Figure 5.1) fits in with participants' experience, I have refined it over the years so that it does mostly accord with the responses that participants give. [8]

Note, too, that the FIDO model is itself tiered. The mnemonic is easy to recall. When people use it they can fill in much of the detail from their own experience.

In short, the model ...

- is consistent with participants' experience and at best is constructed from that experience
- is tiered, with the mnemonic "FIDO" providing the framework which people can expand from their experience
- provides a conceptual basis for suggestions which convert easily to actions.

However, actual facilitation is much more fluid than the formal model can capture.

Facilitation is one of the key skills for those who manage learning, change and applied research. It is appropriate, therefore, that the book *Helping groups to be effective* (hereafter *Helping groups*) is the largest single work included here.

Book — *Helping groups to be effective*

Bob Dick (1991) *Helping groups to be effective: skills, processes and concepts for group facilitation*, second edition. Chapel Hill, Qld.: Interchange.

This book, written primarily for novice facilitators, is intended primarily as a handbook which people can refer to when they have a particular need. It covers

8. That is true of most of the conceptual models I use. Typically I develop them in practice before I write about them. As far as possible, the terminology is what participants use when the models are built through conversation.

> the communication skills on which good facilitation depends. It offers some easily learned principles such as "make the process visible to participants" which work well in practice. It addresses issues such as "dealing with difficult groups" that trouble beginning facilitators. It includes applications such as problem-solving and planning.
>
> A particular feature of the book is that for most processes covered, there is a conceptual rationale, a broad brush description, and as an example a detailed step-by-step description.

The motivation behind the book was very much to provide something which novices would find useful. As the preface says [p vii]:

> This is a second edition of a book which took some time to evolve. Edition zero, so to speak, took the form of a 57-page handout for a fourth year class studying techniques for social and organisational change. I ran it off on a spirit duplicator (since pensioned off) in my office at University. This was well received, so I kept promising a revision, which appeared eventually in late 1984. In 1986 there was a minor revision of that version. 1987 saw a further minor revision, and the first "official" Interchange publication.

In other words the book developed (and grew) while it was being used as a resource by people learning and using facilitation skills. The course in which it was most used is the fourth year course described in chapter 4 of this explication. You will recall that the course was participatively designed. The book therefore reflects the interests and skills chosen by people learning to be facilitators and change agents.

I also provide the book as a resource to participants in public and in-house courses I run for more experienced facilitators. The later versions incorporate feedback from users of earlier versions. To a large extent, therefore, the contents are in response to participants in university classes and public and in-company workshops. For convenience Box 5.2 reproduces the part and chapter headings of *Helping groups to be effective*.

Box 5.2
Chapters in *Helping groups to be effective*

Chapter 1: Introduction
Part 1: Task and Individual
Chapter 2: The process of problem solving
Chapter 3: The dynamics of individual behaviour
Part 2: Preparatory activities
Chapter 4: Team building activities
Chapter 5: Goal setting activities
Chapter 6: Climate setting activities
Part 3: Robust processes
Chapter 7: Microprocesses
Chapter 8: Macroprocesses
Chapter 9: The design of robust processes
Part 4: Metaprocess consultation
Chapter 10: Communication skills for group facilitation
Chapter 11: The fundamentals of facilitation
Chapter 12: The facilitation process
Part 5: Specific techniques
Chapter 13: Interventions in detail
Chapter 14: Difficult groups and individuals

It is evident even in the chapter headings that ...

- the orientation is practical, with many chapters focussed towards common applications of facilitation
- other chapters discuss the skills required for those applications
- conceptual models are provided (in Part 1 of the book) to support the application chapters.

Although it is less apparent in the chapter headings the information is again tiered, as I mentioned earlier.

Helping groups could be described as a generic examination of facilitation. The next few documents addressed here take conflict management as their focus. The first of them is *The management of conflict* (paper 25, henceforth *Conflict*). This is followed by a two-part journal article Conflict resolution skills (paper 26, henceforth *Conflict skills*) and the brief monograph, *Frameworks for conflict resolution* (henceforth *Frameworks*).

Paper 25 — Management of conflict

Bob Dick (1987) *The management of conflict: a systematic approach to team building and mediated and unmediated conflict resolution*. Chapel Hill: Interchange (mimeo). A 1987 revision of an earlier document, used primarily as a workshop handout.

This paper describes a process for conflict management which builds upon simple and learnable processes for role negotiation and team-building. The foundation skills of communication are also addressed, as are preventive measures to reduce the likelihood that conflict will arise.

Paper 26 — Conflict resolution skills

Bob Dick (1983) Conflict resolution skills and techniques in management development. Part 1. *Journal of Management Development*, 2(3), 42-54. Part 2. *Journal of Management Development*, 2(4), 15-31.

This two-part invited paper takes the concepts and processes of the previous document and applies them to conflict management for managers.

Monograph — Frameworks for conflict management

Bob Dick (1990) *Frameworks for effective third party conflict management*. Chapel Hill: Interchange.

This very brief (37 page) monograph summarises the frameworks around which papers 26 and 27 are built. It organises those frameworks into an umbrella framework of nested cycles.

The early versions of *Conflict* were intended for people who in most instances had little exposure to the relevant skills and processes. There was reason to believe that many people regarded conflict management as difficult, requiring sophisticated skills. I encountered such an attitude even amongst reasonably experienced consultants. From the beginning, therefore, it was written to demystify conflict management — to define it as something which is within the reach of most people.

It achieved this aim through a number of measures:

- provision of a simple conceptual rationale for most of the processes
- including the foundation communication skills for the processes
- building the more difficult processes on processes which were simpler and more robust.

Conflict skills (paper 26) applies a similar philosophy to describing conflict management techniques and processes for managers.

The *Frameworks* monograph, on the other hand, was intended to be used as an aide memoire for participants at conflict management workshops. It was not planned to be a free-standing document. However, it adds something important to the larger and earlier *Conflict* document from which it was derived. It organises the frameworks of *Conflict* into a single framework of nested cycles. "Cycles" are not even mentioned in this context in *Conflict*.

I believe the use of cycles adds considerably to the usefulness of the document. So let me explore it in more detail. In the document the conflict management process is described as consisting of five nested cycles. From outer cycle to inner cycle they are:

The overall process	A sequence of phases: preparation, initial transition, the session itself, end transition, follow-up
Resolution selection	A framework which provides criteria for choosing between consensus ("win/win") and negotiation ("partial win/partial win")
Information selection	A framework which provides criteria for deciding which information can usefully be exchanged
Information exchange	The heart of the session, this is a process which ensures that each person understands what the other has said
Statement shaping	A set of questions which can be used to "shape" a person's statement into a form where it is less threatening and easier to understand.

A novice can guide a conflict management session by focussing on any one cycle at a time. *Frameworks* recommends treating Information exchange as a home base, moving outward or inward from there as the situation requires it. At any moment the conceptual load for the facilitator is thereby reduced.

Paper 27, Functions of team building (henceforth *Functions*) begins with a conceptual analysis of the purposes of teams. It then uses similar frameworks to those in the papers discussed immediately above to describe how those functions may be achieved.

Paper 27 — Functions of team building

Bob Dick (1996) The 7 functions of team building. An unpublished conference paper.

The paper lists seven functions which team building can usefully accomplish:

- identification of individual with individual
- identification of individual with system
- coordination between individual and individual
- coordination of team with system
- removal of the perception of interpersonal threat
- legitimising and enabling the expression of individual preferences
- development of the necessary process skills.

Ways of achieving these functions are then developed.

I have included this paper to illustrate the way in which conceptual analysis can strengthen more practical and process-oriented material. Through conceptual analysis I identify seven different functions which are important to the development of effective teamwork. For each I then describe ways in which it can be achieved in practice. The effect is to support process descriptions by providing a rationale for using them.

In working with a particular team a facilitator might first analyse how well each function is presently achieved by the team. Appropriate process interventions can then be designed to address those functions which most require attention.

Personal applications

Change models can be applied at many levels from the individual outwards. With a few exceptions my facilitation and writing has been at levels beyond the individual. This section addresses some of the exceptions.

Of course, most change also requires individual change. For that matter, much individual change operates also beyond the individual level. At the very least, except when we are talking about self-change there is an important relationship to consider — between the facilitator and the individual who is seeking to change.

Before considering some of the documents I have written, I want to make the point that similar change models can be used at all levels. The change model of the *Manual* (paper 17) can for the most part be used for individual change too. In fact, NLP practitioners talk about a "change model". [9] Shown in Figure 5.3, it translates easily into the "planning" component of the change model in the *Manual*.

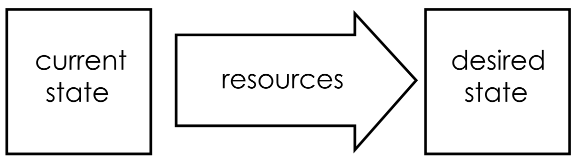

Fig. 5.3 The NLP change model

The documents I consider in this section I use primarily to support team and system change processes. For example, the monograph *Jung for sceptics* (henceforth "*Jung*") provides conceptual support for the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

9. I have been unable to trace a source for this, not least because most NLP books don't have an index. I learned it from Terry McClendon when I attended a 3-week program in NLP. However I understand it is in common use amongst NLP practitioners.

or MBTI (Myers and McCaulley, 1985), which I use mostly in relationship building work.

Although I had found the MBTI powerful in some settings I also encountered much scepticism. As this was my own initial reaction to it I set out in this monograph to provide an alternative approach to it which would give less reason for scepticism. It was also my wish to deal explicitly with applications of the MBTI.

Monograph — Jung for sceptics

Bob Dick (1994) *Jung for sceptics: Jung's psychological types as decision-making preferences*, second version. Chapel Hill: Interchange.

The MBTI is treated as a measure of decision-making preferences rather than as a set of inescapable personality categories. Applications to problem solving, team building and stress management are also described.

I have had some feedback from readers who have responded favourably to the monograph. The aspects of it that they most frequently mention are that it

- is mostly clearly written
- treats a person's type not as an inescapable "box" but as a home base from which a person can venture into other behaviours
- offers practical applications of the material.

The next paper also includes a rationale as well as practical exercises. It is *Beliefs without reason* (henceforth *Beliefs*), part of the *Manual* included earlier as paper 17.

(Paper 17, change tool 17) — Beliefs without reason

Bob Dick (2001) Beliefs without reason. In *Community and organisational change: a manual*. Chapel Hill, Qld.: Interchange, 131-140.

This "change tool" in the change manual provides an analysis of beliefs which are not rationally based. Intended for change agents and consultants it also offers some strategies overcoming opposition based on such beliefs .

As Elliot Aronson (1976: 299-300) says

> As long as I know why I believe x, I am relatively free to change my mind; but if all I know is that x is true — and that's all there is to it — I am far more likely to cling to that belief, even in the face of disconfirming evidence.

The intent of the paper is to reframe "resistance" — that others are being difficult — as a reaction to something the *speaker* is saying or doing. I have come to recognise its core idea that "you can't easily change beliefs without reason by rational argument" as a strategic concept. [10]

The next document is a workbook, paper 28, *Managing upwards*. At first it was part of a larger workbook *Learning to communicate* (not included here). I have in recent years used it as a free-standing exercise in some workshops.

Paper 28 — Managing upwards

Bob Dick (2003) *Managing upwards: a workbook*. Chapel Hill, Qld.: Interchange, mimeo.

10. As defined earlier, a strategic concept is one which enables people to think differently about some situation. I discuss strategic concepts later.

This workbook takes participants through a number of steps in which they analyse a relationship with a "boss". They then identify some change they would like in that relationship. They plan a way in which the change might be achievable, and satisfactory to their boss and themselves.

This workbook can be used by participants to guide themselves through the process. Alternatively a trainer or facilitator can guide participants through the same sequence of events.

Usually I develop workbooks after I have already facilitated the processes myself a number of times. After documenting my own approach, I can then continue to refine the workbook in the light of subsequent experience.

The "managing upward" process and workbook were developed in response to requests from participants at workshops on communication skills. In contrast the following workbook (paper 29: Plan your own development) was by invitation.

Paper 29 — Plan your own development

Bob Dick (1990) Planning your own development. In B. Smith, ed., *Management development in Australia*. Sydney: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich [pp 260- 266].

This is a workbook developed from Edgar Schein's conceptual model of career anchors (Schein, 1990).

I first learned this model from Edgar Schein when we were both part of the facilitation team at a management development workshop in 1981. He developed the model from empirical work with people in his Master of

Management classes and then subsequently after their graduation (Schein, 1978, 1990). His key finding was that people often didn't really know what they wanted from a job until they had made their choice and experienced the consequences of that choice.

The workbook functions by inviting participants to imagine a choice as vividly as they can and then to analyse their feelings in response to that choice. Participants then identify other analagous choices already taken. The intention is to use visualisation to create a choice as close to real as possible under the circumstances. The visualisation is expected to increase the relevance and impact for participants. The analagous choices serve as a reality check.

The workbook has been used in university, corporate and community settings. So has the following workbook, paper 30: "Life planning". In fact, on occasion I've used the two workbooks within the same workshop.

Paper 30 — Life planning

Bob Dick (1983) *Life and career planning: a workbook exercise*. Brisbane: Department of Psychology, University of Queensland.

This workbook was first developed for university use. Its purpose was to help class members relate their studies to their intended work and life. It combines an analysis of present strengths, anticipation of likely changes in the world of the future, and individual future planning.

Participants discuss issues of importance to them. The bulk of the work in the workbook is therefore done individually or in self-chosen pairs. The individual work allows people to develop ideas which they can choose to disclose or keep to themselves. The pairs provide support. In most instances the self-disclosure in pairs quickly builds rapport and relationship.

It has been my experience that the combination of individual work and work in pairs gives a robust process for such material.

Interventions

In this section I describe briefly two examples of visioning interventions, both using search. Other versions are known in the literature as “future search” (Weisbord and Janoff, 1995) or “search conference” (Emery and Purser, 1996). The first paper, the monograph *Search*, is a workbook which can guide participants through a one-day search process.

Monograph — Search

Bob Dick)with the help of ideas from Frank Denham, Robyn Cross and Eve Robinson) (2001) *Search: a participative community planning process including a participant workbook*, version 7. Chapel Hill, Qld: Interchange.

Written workbook-style, this gives a detailed design for a one-day visioning exercise for organisational or community applications. The initial part of the document also provides a rationale of some of the reasons for the particular approach. Users are encouraged to modify it to suit their own situation. The rationale is intended to make it easier for them to do so.

The conceptual development of this approach owes more to the Emery’s version, [11] which I experienced as a participant in the early 1970s. However it is substantially briefer than that version and has been used with larger numbers of participants. I found that often a single day is as much as community members are willing to devote to a community planning exercise.

In common with much of the other practical literature I've developed, it incorporates revisions in response to the various groups I've used it with.[12] In particular it was regularly refined during a series of community planning exercises in south east Queensland during the 1980s.

The use of a detailed workbook allows me to facilitate large numbers in many small groups. In effect the groups become self-managing with the workbook serving almost as a facilitator. I then rove between the groups providing help where it is most needed.

The next document is a report of a search co-facilitated with Lloyd Vidler using a different variation of the Emery search process.

Paper 31 — Mapping: a search conference

Lloyd Vidler and Bob Dick (1985) *Mapping: Planning for the Future of the Division of Mission and Parish Services* [of the Queensland Synod of The Uniting Church]. Unpublished mimeo.

This document describes the search conference process, the results of that search conference, and some specific suggestions to the commissioning body.

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11. I know from my dicussions with the Emery's, in particular Merrelyn, that they do not approve of it. They argue that it isn't possible to conduct a useful search in one day with large numbers. I respond that I've conducted searches in one day with large numbers.
12. Frank Denham, Robyn Cross and Eve Robinson, credited on the title page, modified a workbook for their own use and reported the results to me. I incorporated in my own version the changes which I thought were improvements.

The document was a report written by Lloyd and me for the client group. I've included it here because it provides a specific example of a visioning exercise and its results.

Methods of action inquiry

The following section serves as a bridge between this chapter and the next. It could as easily have been included at the start of the next chapter. Below you'll find some documents on action learning and action science. Both are related to action research, the topic of the next chapter. The papers on both have intervention and change as major aims.

Paper 32, "Action learning", was developed by a consortium of four consultants (I was one of them) to support a major change program in a Queensland Government department.

Paper 32 — Action learning

Bob Dick (2002) Action learning. An extract from Cropper, Bill, Dick, Bob, Donaldson, Brian, and Patty, Chris, *Learning from action*. Brisbane: Department of Families.

The extract consists of first drafts of two chapters of a training manual. I wrote the drafts for these chapters, incorporating minor pieces from Bill Cropper and Brian Donaldson.

The complete training manual (not reproduced here) was accompanied by appropriate training workshops through which users could develop the requisite understanding and skills to use the material.

Four of us facilitated workshops to introduce the manual to the people who would be using it with regional groups throughout Queensland. Our aim was that the participants of these workshops would acquire the understanding and skills to be able to use the manual in practice.

You will notice that many of the concepts in the manual are developed through experiential exercises. Another characteristic of the manual is the inclusion of frequent reflection exercises. Reflection allowed participants to review and draw understanding from the exercises they had taken part in.

The next document, Paper 33, is a report on an actual intervention program in another Queensland government department.

Paper 33 — Leadership capability

Bob Dick (in press) Improving leadership capability with action learning. Prepared for Stewart Hase and Lester Davis, eds., *Forget the map. Get a compass*. Australian Institute of Management / McGraw-Hill Australia. [13]

This is a description of a leadership development program with middle managers of a relatively autonomous unit within a Queenland government department. (The names of the unit and its participants have been changed. The account is otherwise factual and was approved by the CEO of the unit and some other managers.)

As I mentioned in the commentary about paper 20, I began this consultancy believing that cultural change requires top-down involvement. As I was unable to gain sufficient access to senior management the work was done instead with middle managers. They were involved directly in planning the program. In

13. I understand that AIM have decided not to proceed with the book. If the authors do not seek out another publisher I may therefore submit the chapter to a journal.

conjunction with an internal consultant I provided coaching for the middle managers who took turns to facilitate their weekly meetings as a middle management team. I also helped set up each of the action learning teams, encouraging them to become self-sufficient as soon as possible.

The action learning teams worked on projects which had to be done, which were important, and which were judged to be good vehicles for leadership development. This offered several advantages, two in particular:

- The important projects were done well because participants were encouraged by the process to be more reflective, and because the learning which resulted was motivating for the participants.
- Participants learned important skills which were relevant for a cultural shift to more participative and team-based ways of working. Further, the learning occurred in a work setting. The difficulties of achieving learning transfer (Holton and Baldwin, 2003) were thereby reduced.

The style of action learning I used resembled British practice in some respects and US practice in others.

British practice in general is to have self-managed learning sets (as the project teams are often called) in which each participant brings a different project to the group. This was Reg Revans' [14] own preference (Revans, 1980). It's common in the US, on the other hand, to have facilitated learning sets which work as project teams with a collective project.

I prefer self-managed learning sets. Like Verna Willis (2004) I think most sets are capable of self-management. I also think (see paper 21) that these are the cultural shifts that many current organisations require and that increased ownership leads to deeper learning. I adopted a project based approach, as in the US, partly because there were important projects requiring attention. As this had

14. Reg Revans was the founder of action learning.

benefits for the organisation we judged that this would increase support from participants and from senior management.

In an action learning approach, skills are developed in the workplace through the project work. When requested by participants I also provided workshops for skills development. The workshops helped to provide a common language and skills base for the program participants.

It is interesting to compare the learning in this program to the way in which much university learning takes place — in lectures, accompanied increasingly by powerpoint slides. The next paper (paper 34, University learning) is a somewhat tongue-in-cheek invited address to a university audience. (I didn't use powerpoint slides.)

Paper 34 — University learning

Bob Dick (1997) *Universities are learning organisations, aren't they?* An invited talk given at Southern Cross University, 9 October 1997.

In this invited talk I ask audience members to identify the message [15] implicitly conveyed by various university practices as lectures, performance management or selection interviews, and enterprise bargaining.

Authors such as Edgar Schein (for instance 1992) and Terrence Deal and Allan Kennedy (1982) have pointed out that organisational culture is embodied in day to day behaviours and can be deduced from them. The behaviours also reinforce the culture each time they are enacted. Tim Dalmau and I make similar points in

15. This is a reference to Marshall McLuhan's well-known saying that "the medium is the message": McLuhan (1964).

papers included previously — papers 22 and 23 and the monographs discussed in chapter 4.

It's possible therefore to deduce much about the culture by paying attention to everyday observances. Mostly, though, people don't consciously notice how everyday behaviour expresses and maintains the culture. The culture stays part of the implicit organisation.

In this talk my purpose was to draw people's attention to the everyday matters which surrounded them and to ask, what do these things mean? In this way I hoped to increase their awareness of the gap between their espoused theory (the values they think they hold — Argyris, 1999) and the values embedded in their daily conduct. The unconscious can be made explicit through reflection.

Argyris's ideas are also the trigger for the next document. It is a book, *Values in action*.

Book — Values in action

Bob Dick and Tim Dalmau (1999) *Values in action — applying the ideas of Argyris and Schön*, second edition. Chapel Hill, Qld: Interchange.

This monograph is a partial revision, substantial in places, of the 1990 first edition. It is in three parts:

- *Elements of the model*. Tim and I wrote this overview of Argyris and Schön's ideas jointly. We each wrote half of it, revised each other's draft, and combined the two into the chapter.
- *Tools*. This part consists of descriptions of some tools which can be used to develop processes based on action science concepts. I wrote it, and provided it to Tim for comment. It is new in the second edition.
- Applications. Here twelve processes illustrate applications of the action science models and tools. As before, Tim and I wrote half of them each and then revised each other's drafts.

Together the three parts provide an accessible introduction to action science, illustrated with specific tools and processes.

I first encountered the concepts of action science in the book *Theory in action* (Argyris and Schön, 1974). I have been using them since. If I had to nominate the books which have had the most impact on my professional practice, *Theory in practice* would probably head the list.

From time to time I've recommended Argyris's ideas to others. More often than not they have reported that they find them hard to understand and harder to implement. Similar difficulties are illustrated in a paper by Tim Rogers (2004). In it he describes the difficulty of improving relationships in a multidisciplinary team. [16]

Tim Dalmau independently came in contact with these ideas at about the same time. Recognising their potential impact he attended a workshop in the US facilitated by Argyris. When Tim and I became aware of each other's interest we found we both wished to develop more accessible descriptions and applications. We facilitated some joint workshops, designed some processes together, and eventually decided there was a need for a simple introduction and some practical examples. The first edition of this book was the result.

Argyris's own writing is copiously illustrated with many actual transcripts of his interventions. These display the considerable skill and interpersonal courage that Argyris draws on. It is our experience that readers often find this daunting rather than helpful. Tim and I set out to write a book which would explain the concepts in simple language and illustrate them with robust processes.

16. Tim Rogers' own experience is a vivid illustration of the difficulties of using this material. Before he was able to conduct the research he embarked on a lengthy process of developing and refining his own skills. In addition he sought and obtained mentoring from several action science practitioners, especially Victor Friedman.

In doing this we have given attention to the following.

- There is a rationale provided, both in the first part of the book and in the introductions to most of the applications. As far as possible this is simply expressed. In part 1 of the book this rationale is frequently illustrated with simple diagrams and examples.
- The applications in part 3 of the book are structured, and often have careful instructions to anticipate and remove obstacles such as participants' negative reactions. As some of Argyris's interventions are counter-cultural this required special attention.
- To add to flexibilility the part on "Tools" was added to the second edition
- Wherever possible we have provided models which translate easily into action.

The "information chain" is an example of a simple and practical model. It makes explicit what is implicit in Argyris's transcripts. Here it is graphically:

actions → material consequences → beliefs → feelings → reactions

It assumes that action have material consequences, and also in turn other consequences in the form of beliefs and feelings. The less tangible beliefs and feelings trigger reactions. Analysing an interaction in these terms often allows a person to develop new perspectives on what is happening and what can be done about it.

The next two documents provide a more detailed version of one of the applications, and an accompanying conference paper.

Paper 35 — Discussing the undiscussable

Bob Dick and Tim Dalmau (1992) *Discussing the undiscussable: improving group effectiveness and openness*. Paper presented at the Second World Congress on Action Learning, University of Queensland, 1992.

Argyris's concept of the "undiscussable" provides the seed of a process for making the undiscussable more discussable. The paper provides a brief description and rationale for the workbook to follow.

Paper 36 — DTU workbook

Bob Dick and Tim Dalmau (1992) *Discussing the undiscussable workbook*. Experiential workshop presented at the Second World Congress on Action Learning, University of Queensland, 1992.

The workbook draws people's attention to the undiscussability of some issues. It then invites them to identify what changes in the group might make important undiscussables more discussable.

The workbook has a more extended set of instructions than are common. As Argyris has pointed out, there is not only a cover up of some issues. The cover up itself is also covered up. There is something of a taboo even in acknowledging that some issues are not discussable. The workshop therefore risks generating a negative reaction from participants and consequently failing. The instructions provide a safety net for participants and a rationale for the exercise.

The process itself allows participants to talk about the issues without specifically identifying them. In this way they can test what is safe before committing themselves to a risky disclosure.

Paper 37 provides a broader description of Argyris's work. It relates Argyris's concept of espoused theory to the world views that people hold.

Paper 37 — Practising what we preach

Bob Dick (1992) *Practising what we preach: identifying the gaps between espoused and actual values*. A brief paper prepared for the First International Values Symposium, Warilda Conference Centre, Brisbane, 20-21 July 1992.

The paper describes the concepts of espoused theory and theory-in-use. Ways of making use of them in practice are also addressed.

This conference paper was delivered at a conference at which the participants were familiar with various models of human values. It presented key action science ideas, especially those of espoused theory and theory-in-use, in the context of values and world views.

That concludes the documents on change processes. As in the previous chapter, I now draw out some patterns evident in these documents.

Effective change processes

It is to be expected that some of the features of change processes are similar to those for learning processes. And indeed they are. Context, legitimacy and engagement, transparency and monitoring are again evident. Of these, legitimacy and engagement, and monitoring, will be further developed below. In addition, the integration of theory and practice is important. So are relationships, the use of tiered information, and some possible sources of flexibility in detailed processes.

Legitimacy and engagement

The earliest stages of a workshop or intervention are important. They can have a disproportionate effect on the perceived legitimacy of any activity and the level of engagement that is achieved. Labelled "entry and contracting" it was sometimes relatively neglected in the early change literature. However, it did feature prominently in books by Peter Block (1981) and Michael Dougherty (1990).

My own experience is that, together with relationships, entry and contracting are among the most important contributors to the effectiveness of an intervention. For that reason, the change model that I often use (paper 17) has an initial phase before actual planning begins. In it, attention is given to setting up participative structures and creating an appropriate culture within the change program.

The initial phase is also when effective relationships and interpersonal processes are set in place.

Relationships

A prominent part of my own development as educator, facilitator and change agent has been a slow realisation of the importance of relationships. I now value the skills and attitude to build and maintain constructive relationships. You will notice that in *Mechanisms* (paper 05) the early stages of my university classes emphasise relationships.

Similarly, in workshops and interventions, relationships are a focus of the entry and contracting described under the previous heading of this chapter. In my own practice I use processes which, where possible, are highly participative. Achieving good participation depends on the development of a level of trust between myself and the other participants. Attention to relationships helps to build the necessary trust.

In these respects my development was assisted by participation in T-groups, as I mentioned in chapter 2. Writers who espoused a *Gestalt* approach to consulting also helped. I'm thinking here particularly of Hermann and Korenich (1977) and Nevis (1987). In some of his recent writing Schein (1999) has revisited his concept of process consultation, viewing it from the perspective of relationship. His emphasis on openness and reciprocity is warranted, according to my experience.

Theory-practice integration

A theory without practical detail may be hard to implement. The detail without theory may be used without understanding. Considerations such as these have persuaded me to provide theory and practice wherever possible. (I also try to model this in my own actions and explanations.)

The inclusion of both theory and practical detail brings two issues in its wake. One is the danger that people will be overwhelmed by the detail. The danger can be reduced to some extent by organising the information (theoretical or practical) in "tiers" — hierarchical structures. The other issue is that flexibility may be sacrificed. To some extent, choosing the form of detail wisely can assist here.

Tiered information

I think it is evident that the integration of theory and practice is a theme in many of the papers included here. My own interests in the intersection of theory and practice are no doubt part of the reason. Another part, though, arises from my wish that the participants in my consultancies enhance their ability to manage change as they participate. To do so, I believe, requires both understanding and skills.

My own understanding has developed over many years of experience. If I were not mindful of the limits to human information processing I think I would risk overwhelming participants with information. From my earlier thesis research I know how limited our short term memory is. I recall George Miller's (1956) reminder that we can manage only 7±2 pieces of information at any one time. An understanding of most complex community and organisational settings requires more information than that.

As Miller understood, the strategy which allows escape from this limitation is "chunking" — arranging the material in blocks to that the total number of blocks is within a person's span of apprehension. Experts learn to chunk appropriately, as Fernand Gobet (2005) reaffirms in the recent special edition of *Applied Cognitive Psychology* (Rikers and Paas, 2005). I can make it easier for novices to absorb information if I chunk it and arrange it in tiers.

Chunking is illustrated in many of the papers in this section beginning with the structure of paper 17, the *Change manual* — see figure 5.1 above. Tiers are most evident in models such as the FIDO model (for instance in *Change manual* and *Helping groups to be effective*). The mnemonic FIDO recalls the four elements of feelings, information, decisions and outcomes. These are linked together. Positive *feelings* make easier the exchange of *information*, from which *decisions* are made, leading eventually to *outcomes*. Each of these elements in turn has certain characteristics (which I won't further detail here).

I can further assist ease of learning by choosing words and phrases which are meaningful to participants. When participants and I together construct models I learn which words and phrases to use in the models.

Detail and flexibility

It seems that novices prefer detailed recipes. To my mind such recipes are both useful and dangerous. They are useful when they work. When they fail they may leave the novice with no alternatives. In the documents here I've tried to deal with this issue in a number of ways.

I've already mentioned the benefit of developing models inductively so that they are in appropriate language and relate to participants' experience. (This is less apparent in the written word than in my actual practice.) In addition I try to:

- use frameworks in which people can insert their own words rather than recipes which provide the words
- encourage people to treat my examples as just that — examples
- offer alternatives; for instance in the *Change manual* there are often two processes described for each major step in the change process
- take a pluralistic and eclectic approach, encouraging people to treat my models and processes as just one of many ways of achieving the desired outcomes.

Monitoring

During the planning phase in the *Change manual* (paper 17) change model, two plans are developed. One defines the actions to be taken to achieve the desired outcomes. The other defines the actions required to monitor the success of the action plan. Otherwise the plan may not survive its contact with a complex reality. [17]

This has the effect of building an action research cycle on to each action in the action plan, and takes us shortly to the next chapter.

17. As the 19th century Prussian general Helmuth von Moltke is reputed to have said, "No plan survives the first contact with the enemy". (Like many popular quotes this has several variations.)

Contributions to robustness

The *Change manual* can also be used to illustrate ways in which process robustness can be achieved. It is a suitable vehicle for doing so, for two main reasons. On the one hand it represents the results of 30 years experience in facilitating change and helping other people do the same. It also has the benefit of including material from a related document developed participatively within a particular organisation.

Some of the principles of robustness it illustrates are as follows.

- It pays attention to the context in which the change is to occur.
- There is also attention to unfreezing, especially in the section on "Dilemmas of change".
- The information in it is tiered, as explained earlier. At the most abstract level there are three phases: pre-planning, planning, and change. A graphic model is used to illustrate the process. In addition, more specific descriptions are related to the graphic model.
- Several means are used to convey the approach. There is a summary diagram, a story of travel as a metaphor, a set of principles, and an illustrative example.
- The principles are accompanied by a rationale for each. A theoretical rationale is also provided for many other process descriptions.
- The principles are explicitly offered as an alternative to detailed processes. This encourages users to regard the detailed processes as examples rather than as mandated ways of doing something.
- In addition there are usually two variations (or more) included for each major phase of the change process.
- These choices are sometimes accompanied by criteria to help people with the choice.

- As use of the processes require some level of skill, sections on the required skills (communication and facilitation) are included in the manual.
- There is ongoing monitoring during implementation.

Monitoring during implementation is achieved by linking together action and monitoring within a cycle. The cycle resembles that of action research, the topic of the next chapter.