

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 453 423

CE 081 846

TITLE Organization Development. Symposium 16. [AHRD Conference, 2001].

PUB DATE 2001-00-00

NOTE 29p.; In: Academy of Human Resource Development (AHRD) Conference Proceedings (Tulsa, Oklahoma, February 28-March 4, 2001). Volumes 1 and 2; see CE 081 829.

PUB TYPE Collected Works - General .(020) -- Speeches/Meeting Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.

DESCRIPTORS Action Research; *Administration; Adult Education; Definitions; Foundations of Education; Human Capital; Human Resources; *Labor Force Development; Management Systems; Organizational Climate; *Organizational Development; *Organizational Effectiveness; Performance Factors; *Performance Technology; Sex Differences

IDENTIFIERS Dependent Variables; *Management Styles

ABSTRACT

This symposium on organization development (OD) consists of three presentations. "A Study of Gender Management Preferences as Related to Predicted Organizational Management Paradigms for the Twenty-First Century" (Cathy Bolton McCullough) reports a study that found that access to diverse management preferences and the manner in which the combination of these diverse preferences is successful can assist human resource professionals in guiding organizations to adapt management styles and expectations to best meet the predicted twenty-first century rules of business. "Considering OD Theories from the Theoretical Foundations of Human Resource Development (HRD) and Performance Improvement" (Thomas J. Chermack, Susan A. Lynham) proposes that core OD theory be addressed from the theoretical foundations of HRD and the perspective of performance improvement, two views that when combined provide a powerful and useful means for identifying and selecting theories of OD for performance improvement. "OD: An Examination of Definitions and Dependent Variables" (T. Marshall Egan) explores 27 definitions of OD published from 1969 to the present. Associated dependent variables are examined. All three papers include substantial bibliographies. (YLB)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

2001 AHRD Conference

Organization Development

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

*Chermack/Egan/
McCullough*

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

1

Symposium 16

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

- This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
- Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

- Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

Tulsa, Oklahoma

February 28 - March 4, 2001

A Study of Gender Management Preferences as Related to Predicted Organizational Management Paradigms for the Twenty-First Century

Cathy Bolton McCullough
Oklahoma Department of Career & Technology Education

The purpose of this study was to provide insight into gender management preferences as related to the predicted organizational management paradigms for the Twenty-First Century. Access to diverse management preferences (if any), and the manner in which the combination of these diverse preferences is successful, can assist human resource professionals in guiding organizations to adapt management styles and expectations to best meet the predicted Twenty-First Century rules of business.

Keywords: Management Preferences; Management Paradigms; Organizational Development

The field of human resource development focuses on the human components that lead to business success. Rosener (1995) stated that in the future of business, companies will be distinguished from one another by their use of human resources. Rosener further stated that the proper use of human resources is no longer strictly a matter of social justice. It is a bottom line issue.

To successfully meet the predicted 21st Century management paradigms may require human resource professionals to capture the essence of the changing business environment and transition organizations to positively adapt to new management paradigms with minimal chaos. Understanding how men and women prefer to manage, and under what conditions they work well together, has direct implications on how organizations move through a change process. This study addresses the problem: what are the management differences between male and female managers relative to the predicted organizational management paradigms for the 21st Century? While some may make a leap in judgment that the predicted employee management models of the 21st Century workplace are based on traits most commonly seen in women, this study chooses to take a sample from one population (the banking industry) to discover if management preferences differ by gender, and what the results might mean relative to the predicted new rules of management for the 21st Century.

Theoretical Framework

The core elements of an organization's culture could positively be impacted by a greater understanding of gender preferences relative to management style. Beliefs drive behaviors, and behaviors drive results. When interested in results, it is both practical and appropriate to approach culture via its most obvious dimension: how people act (Fisher & Alford, 2000).

As HRD specialists, introducing a workforce to the aspects of gender management preferences that function well together could make a potentially stronger organizational culture: one that thrives on innovation, input, challenge, and quality. Stereotypic beliefs regarding gender management preferences may be diminished, and the strengths of gender management styles might possibly be brought to a higher level of appreciation.

With pressures being placed on organizational leaders of 21st Century organizations to empower employees, to employ a systems thinking perspective in problem-solving, to heighten customer service initiatives, to be more flexible in production and in managing people, and to provide increased training opportunities for employees, this study may shed light on how well the genders might adapt to managing their workforces, and if the characteristics of one or both genders are beneficial for further adaptation and study relevant to successful management practices for 21st Century organizations. To this point, this study provides insight into one component of human resource capability.

Access to diverse management preferences, and the manner in which the combination of these diverse preferences is successful, can assist human resource professionals in guiding organizational change initiatives relative to 21st Century workforce expectations. It may be beneficial to review the predicted organizational

Copyright © 2001 Cathy Bolton McCullough

principles of the 21st Century workplace in order to set the stage for understanding why acceptance of new and diverse management preferences might be necessary and worthy of study.

Table 1 synthesizes Broersma's (1995) view of the old and new rules of business. For businesses to adapt to the 'new rules' may well require new forms of management. This insight directly impacts the essence of human resource development. It provides human resource professionals with the incredible challenge of introducing new ways to think strategically and to apply tools and techniques for capturing knowledge for the good of the whole organization. Understanding the management preferences of men and women can provide additional insights into the preferences from both groups that may be most useful for building stronger organizations in the 21st Century.

Table 1. The Predicted Business Paradigms Governing 21st Century Organizations

Issues	Old Rules	New Rules
Organizational Structures Empowered Workers	Vertical Perform discrete tasks	Horizontal Cross-functional, self managed teams work together; share leadership
Systems Thinking Ego-Systems Management	Emphasizes bureaucracy No protection of environment	Emphasizes systems Natural environment is a partner
Quality Focus	Review quality of finished product	Quality control is at all stages of production
Customer Service	Only customer service representatives know customers	Everyone knows who the key customers are
Flexibility	Produces standardized products/services	Quickly develop and deliver products and services, often customizing
Rewards Organizational Learning	Pay on length of service Technical training; basic knowledge only	Pay based on knowledge Training is an investment

Klubnik (1995) cited the skills needed to compliment the predicted business management paradigm for the 21st Century business culture. She suggested that the characteristics consist of observation, listening, whimsy, sensitivity, system-driven skills, and peer-to-peer skills. She pointed out that if these characteristics are coupled with what highly productive employees say motivates them (respect for diversity, desire for empowerment, the sharing of goals, professional training, and open communication), along with the ever-present emergence of the new rules of business, we can begin to visualize the components of individuals who motivate others effectively.

According to Champy (1995) reengineering proved to be successful, yet companies still fell far short of their potential. Champy concluded that his revolutionary work omitted an ever-important variable: people. Reengineering 'work,' or operational processes, without reengineering 'people' (such as management) led to less than satisfactory results.

The greater the depth of understanding and appreciation for varying types of management preferences, the greater degree to which human resource professionals can positively impact productivity, retention, and morale of organizational workforces. This study attempts to understand management preferences of men and women, and desires to draw conclusions applicable to the predicted 21st Century management change initiatives. This is a study to ascertain the business management preferences of two groups of individuals: men and women.

This study addresses the problem: what are the differences between male and female managers relative to the issues facing business in the 21st Century? Because gender differences in management preferences could differ by industry, job, and geographic location, this study focused on one population: managers working in banks located in the state of Oklahoma.

Purpose and Research Question

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which males and females differed in their management preferences. The research question for the study was, 'What are the male and female management preferences of bank managers in Oklahoma relative to the anticipated business management principles of the future?' This study provided information on how the preferences differed, if at all, for this population.

Methodology

This was a descriptive study that assessed male and female management preferences and the possible impact of these preferences on management in the workplace of the 21st Century. The study focused on the preferred management preferences of men and women in leadership positions within banks that were members of the Oklahoma Bankers Association.

The independent variable in this research study was the gender of the managers surveyed. Dependent variables were conflict solving, initiative, inquiry, advocacy, decision-making, and critique. Demographic information gathered were gender, age, salary range, type of organization, size of organization, number of individuals supervised, educational background, race, number of years employed with their current organization, and title.

Population and Sample

The population for this study was women and men from banks that were members of the Oklahoma Bankers Association. The job titles for the population included senior vice president, executive vice president, vice president, assistant vice president, vice chair, and/or the chief operating officer of banks in Oklahoma.

To perform a t-test, a minimum response rate of 25-30 was necessary. Therefore, it was decided that a minimum of 125 surveys mailed to each gender was needed to ensure an adequate return rate. In order to draw a sample from this population, men in the study were individually assigned odd numbers and women were individually assigned even numbers. All odd numbers were drawn first (men), then even numbers were drawn (women). A total of 125 men and 125 women were randomly drawn. These individuals became the sample population for this study.

Data Analysis

Blake, Mouton, and Williams' (1981) Managerial Grid (updated by Blake & McCaense in 1991) was adapted and used to assess the management preferences of the sample population. The assessment was mailed to each participant with a cover letter explaining the research study.

The Managerial Grid was chosen for this study because of its relevance to an individual's concern with people and/or production (output) over six dimensions: Conflict solving (determines whether conflict might be destructive or constructive, depending on how individuals respond to the differing points of view), initiative (measures the degree to which individuals might be inclined to take action, shift directions, or stop an action), inquiry (the gaining of facts and data from coworkers), advocacy (measures the degree to which individuals may or may not be willing to take a stand on an issue), decision making (measures the degree to which production and/or people impact the way in which decisions are made), and critique (measures the individual's willingness to step aside and view alternative possibilities to improve performance). The instrument was also deemed to have face validity for this study by David Schrader, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Speech Communication at Oklahoma State University, and Jim Rhea, Ph.D., President of Greenwood Performance Systems. In addition, the Managerial Grid has been used to assess leadership styles in the academic world (Blake, Mouton, & Williams, 1981), the political world (Blake & Mouton, 1985), and the organizational world (Broadwell, 1995). Regarding the use and application of the Managerial Grid, Lester (1991) quoted a colleague as stating, "If all Blake had offered was a framework, that would have been the end of it. But...he devised the first, most complete and most sophisticated learnship package for those who wished to study organizational development" (p. 96). Lester also stated that with the flattening of organizational structures and with the reduced number of middle managers, the application for the Managerial Grid could be endless. The Managerial Grid has also been used as the model for validating other self-report measures of conflict management styles (Van de Vliert & Kabanoff, 1990).

The statistical procedures used to evaluate the responses were t-tests, chi-square and univariate analysis of variance. To assess any significant differences in male and female management preferences, a t-test was conducted.

A t-test was used because this type of statistical analysis shows the differences between two groups (i.e., male and female) on one dependent variable (i.e., management preference). The Managerial Grid employs seven management preferences. Therefore, seven t-tests were performed.

In addition, a chi-square analysis was used to assess differences in frequencies between men's and women's preferred management style. This statistical technique was used because it is appropriate for categorical data. Therefore, this analysis was performed on each of the seven management styles (i.e., 1,9; 9,9; etc.) by dimension (i.e., conflict solving, initiative, etc.).

Data Collection

The randomly selected 125 men and 125 women each received a cover letter explaining the survey, along with the Managerial Grid. The subtitles from the questionnaire were removed to avoid bias on the part of the participants. Also included was a Personal Data Sheet (demographic information).

Each questionnaire was coded to allow tracking of responses. Once the deadlines were reached and respondents were tracked, all codes were destroyed to assure confidentiality. The assessment was mailed to each participant with the request that it be completed and returned within five days. Each assessment included a stamped, self-addressed return envelope.

To examine non-respondent bias, six non-respondents (three men and three women) were contacted by phone and asked to complete the questionnaire. The completed surveys of non-respondents were compared to the original respondents' questionnaires to examine how closely the non-respondents' management preferences were to the respondents' preferences.

Limitations

Findings and conclusions in this study were limited by:

1. The population of managers.
2. The survey instrument (i.e., the wording of certain questions on the survey may make it conducive for answers to fall into the 9,9 preference, and it was given as a self-assessment).
3. The time in which the instrument was administered.
4. The methodology employed by this research study.
5. The fact that the survey focused solely on gender (other characteristics, such as race, class, ethnicity, salary, and age may play a role in management preference as well).

Results and Findings

Thirty-one men and 28 women responded to the survey and were used in the analysis. To examine individual male and female differences in management preferences, a chi-square analysis was performed on each of the seven management preferences of the Managerial Grid (i.e., 1,9; 9,9; etc.). Table 2 illustrates the frequency of most preferred managerial preferences for individual male and female respondents. The chi-square for these data was 9.57 (df = 8), $p > .05$, indicating there was no gender difference for management preference. As can be seen in Table 2, no men were 1,9 (Country Club Management), and only one woman was of this preference. Eighteen men and 23 women were of the 9,9 (Team Management) preference, while four men and four women reported management preferences of 5,5 (Middle of the Road Management). Two men, but no women, reported a 1,1 (Impoverished Management) preference. Three men were of the 9+9 (Paternalistic Management) preference, and no women were of the 9+9 preference. Four men had tying scores for their dominant management preferences (5,5/9,9 and 1,9/9,9).

To assess gender differences in self-reported management preferences, rankings for each dimension were summed for each of the seven management preferences resulting in seven scores per participant. Male and female means were computed from these scores, and seven t-tests, one for each management preference by gender, were performed. No significant gender differences were found with regard to management preferences.

Table 2. Frequencies of Most Preferred Managerial Preferences for Individual Male and Female Groups

Management Preferences	Male	Female
1,9 (Country Club Management)	0	1
9,9 (Team Management)	18	23
5,5 (Middle of the Road Management)	4	4
1,1 (Impoverished Management)	2	0
9,1 (Authority-Compliance Management)	0	0
9+9 (Paternalistic Management)	3	0
Opportunistic Management	0	0
Ties for Dominant Preferences		
5,5/9,9	3	0
9,9/1,9	1	0

In addition, a chi square analysis indicated no gender differences in managerial preference across the dimensions. However, the data revealed differences in various cells for the dimensions studied as cited in Table 3.

Table 3. Gender Differences in Managerial Preference for Each Dimension

Dimension/Sex	Managerial Preference						
	1,9	9,9	5,5	1,1	9,1	9+9	Opportunism
Conflict Solving							
Males	3	12	12	1	2	2	0
Females	4	12	9	1	0	2	0
Initiative							
Males	12	4	3	1	3	7	1
Females	9	8	2	0	3	6	0
Inquiry							
Males	1	14	4	1	1	6	4
Females	0	19	4	0	1	2	2
Advocacy							
Males	1	17	3	1	0	8	1
Females	1	20	5	0	0	1	1
Decision Making							
Males	0	24	1	2	1	3	0
Females	0	23	2	0	1	2	0
Critique							
Males	3	4	19	1	1	1	2
Females	3	9	15	0	1	0	0

(Bold indicates responses deserving observation for each dimension)

Conclusions and Recommendations

If, as Rosener (1995) stated, businesses of the future will be distinguished from one another by their use of human resources, then the study of this population has proven interesting. It might be intriguing to discuss the possibilities as to why the results of this study revealed no significant gender differences with regard to management preference. Since both genders overwhelmingly reported an overall management preference for the 9,9 style, it might also be interesting to discuss that when a diversion from the 9,9 preference occurred, it occurred for *both* genders.

Moir and Jessel's (1991) observations that women desire leadership to encompass encouragement, support, trust, delegation, and independence are supported at best in the Managerial Grid's 9,9 (Team Management) preference. Indeed, it was Blake's (personal communication, October 30, 1996) contention that the 9,9 preference should be every manager's goal. Since 9,9 was the overall dominant management preference in this study for

women, these leadership qualities are supported. However, the research results from this study also included men in this observation (since their dominant and most preferred management style was also the 9,9 preference).

Tingley (1993) and Burke and McKenn (1996) commented that both genders appeared lost as to how to treat one another in the workplace. This study exhibited findings contrary to these observations by Tingley and Burke and McKenn because both genders exhibited the same management preference of 9,9. In addition, when the deviations for individual management dimensions occurred, they occurred for both genders. On the contrary, these same deviations may exhibit evidence that indeed the two genders are at a loss on how to treat each other in certain circumstances. Within given dimensions, the deviations themselves may be caused on the part of both genders by feelings of confusion and inadequacy on how to deal with the opposite gender. This study found both genders melding any distinctions they each might have into the 9,9 management preference (Team Management), and defaulting to other management preferences where conflict solving, initiative, and critique were concerned.

Although the overall management preference for both genders was 9,9 (Team Management), there were deviations from the 9,9 preference when viewing the six managerial dimensions individually. A brief assessment of each dimension may help summarize this study's observations.

Conflict Solving

While the majority of the respondents reported the 9,9 preference for this dimension, many of the respondents diverted to the 5,5 (Middle of the Road Management) preference for this dimension. Because the genders varied in their preferences within this particular dimension, Tannen's (1990) observations that each gender exhibits different behaviors in conflictual situations may have credence. Other examinations of gender differences in dealing with conflict might also be supported (i.e., Gherardi, 1995; Tingley, 1993; Kipnis & Herron, 1994). In addition, conflict solving may depend on factors other than gender, such as age, hierarchical position, organizational culture, etc. (Chusmir and Mills, 1989). Gayle, Preiss and Allen's (1994) observations of two conflict management strategies, competition for men and compromise for women, could also shed light on the reasons for some deviation within this dimension.

Initiative

With regard to the dimension of initiative, neither gender overwhelmingly preferred the 9,9 preference, although eight women fell into this preference. The male respondents exhibited a preference within this dimension for the 1,9 (Country Club Management) and the 9+9 (Paternalistic Management) preferences, as did many women. Due to the extremely scattered preferences within this dimension, this finding might exhibit an internal disparity among individuals and/or their organizations. The organizational atmosphere may be amiable and consistent, but relatively status quo.

Inquiry and Critique

These dimensions center heavily on internal communication flow. The similarities between both genders on the dimension of inquiry may challenge some previous thinking on the perceptions that each gender has of the other and how these perceptions negatively dictate levels of inquiry (i.e., Tingley, 1993; Gherardi, 1995).

With regard to critique, *both* genders diverted from the 9,9 preference to the 5,5 preference. Both genders, then, may believe in the concept of positive reinforcement and may avoid negative feedback. Both genders may tend to approach negative feedback to subordinates in vague terms. Once again, since both genders exhibited a discomfort with direct and open constructive feedback, a variable other than gender may be responsible. This finding may have been expected for women (as seen in the observations of Tannen, 1990). However, the finding that men have been observed in previous studies to exhibit directness (i.e., Tingley, 1993; Gayle, Preiss, & Allen, 1994) is a contradiction to the finding in this study. However, it is also possible that the men in this population are using feedback as a control mechanism (by withholding information), thereby creating a sense of competition in the workplace.

Advocacy

Both genders reported a 9,9 preference for this dimension. Both genders therefore exhibited support for open and honest communication with subordinates regarding organizational commitment and direction. Both genders, then, were assertive and self-assured while also being open to opposing viewpoints. Based on several

observations (i.e., Jamieson, 1995; Moir & Jessel, 1991), we might have expected this of women but not of men. Hite's (1993) notation that men applied the concept of competition versus sharing of information to interpersonal relationships may be challenged by this study. But because the reactions of both genders corresponded within this dimension of bank managers, Nieva and Gutek's (1981) observation that women leaders functioned similarly to male leaders in the same environment may have credence.

Decision Making

Both genders were strongly supportive of the 9,9 preference for this dimension. Perhaps the organizational structure of the banks in this study was more conducive to producing a team managed atmosphere. This assumption would support Dodd-McCue and Wright's (1996) findings that the crucial element to loyal and affiliated employees was the attitudinal commitment of the employees (more so than gender). Perhaps decision makers in these banks were organizing the internal operations and structures to heighten the attitudinal commitment of employees (which would include the supervisors in this study). This research also lent support to Helgeson's (1990) study of circular management, which she contends is a female preference. The 9,9 preference emphasizing team management and the affiliation of trust and respect, however, were shown to exist for *both* genders in this study, carrying Helgeson's notations into another dimension.

The research findings and the observations cited in the literature weave the common thread that men and women operate from different assumptions. It may be that banks, as surveyed in this study, are managing to bring the strengths of both genders together. Thus, men and women in these environments have possibly discovered organizational challenges to be greater than gender challenges.

Implications for Human Resource Development

The field of human resource development centers on the human elements that lead to successful business organizations. Studying whether there are differences between the genders in management preferences and understanding those differences could be essential in helping businesses adapt to better meet the predicted 21st Century business paradigm.

In addition, human resource professionals may need to reemphasize the sense of urgency to apply new ideas for management and leadership from a systems thinking perspective. According to Hamel and Prahalad (1994), senior management in today's U.S. businesses spend less than 3% of their energy on building business perspectives for the future. In most cases, Hamel and Prahalad noted that less than 1% of internal energy was spent on future-thinking initiatives, much less on new ways of utilizing human resources.

Boyett (1995) found that 90% of organizations wanted to reduce expenses; less than one-half were successful. He also recognized that more than one-half of these organizations wanted to improve cash flow; less than 25% succeeded. Many of these same companies also sought improvements in customer service, product quality, innovation, and implementation of new technologies; less than 10% succeeded. We perhaps have evidence, then, of that fact that organizations continue to incorporate change strategies, but the implementation of those strategies is difficult to weave into desired organizational results. Understanding component pieces (such as gender potential management preferences) of why these change efforts do not succeed may enlighten human resource specialists as they plan implementation strategies. Perhaps developing a greater understanding of gender management preferences, and the environments in which they compliment and work together synergistically, is a component piece toward positive organizational development for the 21st Century. Looking at gender preferences may allow workforces to begin working together for a common good, versus focusing on the negative aspects of differences and preferences. It may also allow for greater appreciation of diversity from the viewpoint that both genders bring positive influences to workforce management.

The power of research is that it helps us challenge our assumptions. This study sheds light not only on individual differences in management preferences, but also on how an entire population differed from basic gender assumptions with regard to management preferences. This study also reviewed deviations and similarities across six dimensions in an attempt to ascertain gender management preferences under given conditions. Attributing characteristics to one gender without having a clear view of the preferences for each gender on specific management dimensions could be futile. With this and other information gleaned from future studies, the summary of information provided might bring a greater appreciation and acceptance for a diversity of preferences relevant to organizational survival in the 21st Century.

References

- Blake, R., & McCauley, A. (1991). Leadership dilemmas-grid solutions. Houston: Gulf Publishing Company.
- Blake, R., & Mouton, J. S. (1985). Presidential (grid) styles. Training and Development Journal, 39, 31-34.
- Blake, R., Mouton, J. S., & Williams, M. S. (1981). The academic administrator grid. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Boyett, J. H. (1995). Beyond workplace 2000. New York: Penguin Group.
- Broadwell, M. M. (1995). The Supervisor and on-the-job training. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Broadwell, M. M. (1995). Why command and control won't go away. Training, 32, 62-68.
- Broersma, T. (1995, January). In search of the future. Training and Development, 49, 38-43.
- Burke, R. J. & McKeen, C. A. (1996). Do women at the top make a difference? Gender proportions and the experiences of managerial and professional women. Human Relations, 49 (8), 1093-1104.
- Champy, J. (1995). Reengineering management. New York: HarperBusiness.
- Chusmir, L. H. & Mills, J. (1989). Gender differences in conflict resolution styles of managers: at work and at home. Sex Roles, 20 (3-4), 149-163.
- Dodd-McCue, D., & Wright, G. B. (1996). Men, women, and attitudinal commitment: the effects of workplace experiences and socialization. Human Relations, 49, (8), 1065-1091.
- Fisher, Caroline J. & Alford, R. J. (Summer 2000). Consulting on culture: a new bottom line. Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 52 (3), 206-217.
- Gayle, B. M., Preiss, R. W., & Allen, M. (1994). Gender differences and the use of conflict strategies. In L. H. Turner & H. M. Sterk (Eds.), Differences that make a difference (p. 80). Westport, CT: Bergin & Garvey.
- Gherardi, S. (1995). Gender, symbolism and organizational cultures. London: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Hamel, G., & Prahalad, C. K. (1994). Competing for the future. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Helgeson, S. (1990). The female advantage. New York: Doubleday.
- Hite, S., (1993). Women as revolutionary agents of change. Madison: The University of Wisconsin Press.
- Jamieson, K. H. (1995). Beyond the double bind. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Kipnis, A. & Herron, E. (1994). Gender war, gender peace. New York: William Morrow and Company, Inc.
- Klubnik, J. P. (1995). Rewarding and recognizing employees. Chicago: Irwin Publishing Co.
- Lester, T. (1991, March). Taking guard on the grid. Management Today, 93-96.
- Moir, A., & Jessel, D. (1991). Brain sex. New York: Carol Publishing Group.
- Nieva, V. F., & Gutek, B. A. (1981). Women and work: A psychological perspective. New York: Praeger.
- Rosener, J. (1995). American's competitive secret. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Tannen, D. (1990). You just don't understand. New York: Ballantine Books.
- Tingley, J. C. (1993). Genderflex. New York: American Management Association.
- Van de Vliert, E., & Kabanoff, B. (1990). Toward theory-based measures of conflict management. Academy of Management Journal, 33 (1), 199-209.

Considering OD Theories from the Theoretical Foundations of HRD and Performance Improvement

Thomas J. Chermack
Texas A&M University

Susan A. Lynham
Texas A&M University

The field of Organization Development (OD) draws from numerous areas to inform its theory base. This article proposes that core OD theory be addressed from the theoretical foundations of Human Resource Development (HRD) and the perspective of performance improvement. When combined, these views provide a powerful and useful means for identifying and selecting theories of OD for performance improvement.

Keywords: Selecting OD theory, Foundations of HRD, performance improvement

Currently, the knowledge and theory from which practitioners and scholars in Organization Development (OD) may draw is immense and multidisciplinary (Rothwell, Sullivan & McLean, 1995; Cummings & Worley, 2001; French & Bell, 1999). Because the theoretical landscape of OD is so vast, choosing OD theories can be an overwhelming task. In addition, there are many approaches and views regarding the nature of OD theory (Rothwell, Sullivan & McLean, 1995; Cummings & Worley, 2001; French & Bell, 1999).

Using the theoretical foundations of Human Resource Development (HRD) would provide Organization Development (OD) professionals with a useful means of examining and selecting sound theory for OD practice. Housed within HRD, (McLagan, 1989) OD, and therefore OD theory, can be considered and informed by the theoretical foundations of HRD. For the purposes of this paper the theoretical foundations of HRD will be taken to include economics, psychology, and systems theory (Holton, 1999, Passmore, 1999, Swanson, 1997, Torocco, 1997). These three theoretical foundations of HRD (Psychology, Economics and Systems theory) emphasize an integrated approach to HRD, with performance improvement as a necessary, but not necessarily sufficient outcome of HRD research and practice (Holton, 1999, Passmore, 1997; Swanson, 1995, 1997, 1998, 1999). This integrated theoretical perspective, when coupled with the emphasis on performance improvement, can provide a useful means for identifying and selecting OD theories.

An emphasis on performance improvement is critical to the credibility and development of the field of OD because, as Swanson (1999) notes, there is increasing pressure in organizations to meet the demand for high performance. This increasing pressure on performance outcomes requires that areas of practice such as HRD and OD develop principles and models based on performance in order to prevent trial-and-error practice (Swanson, 1999).

The alternative to having foundational theories is a discipline in which practitioners are free to include any theories they may choose. This can be problematic when practitioners attempt to replicate results. Micklethwait & Woolridge (1996) describe the current state of random reengineering as an example of how damaging atheoretical ventures can be. Swanson (1998) suggests that to focus on long-term results, develop the ability to replicate them, and acquire a deep understanding of a discipline, requires a logical and coherent set of foundational theories.

Problem Statement and Research Questions

Without foundational theory or theories and a means for selecting them, HRD practitioners are less likely to be able to replicate results, or develop a deep understanding of results achieved through OD interventions (Swanson, 1999). It is the purpose of this paper to provide a heuristic informed by the theoretical foundations of HRD and performance improvement that provides a mechanism for HRD and OD practitioners to select OD theories for improved practice and research. The following questions serve as the basis for the task of this paper:

- 1) From an HRD theoretical foundations and performance improvement perspective, what would constitute core OD theory?

Copyright © 2001 Thomas J. Chermack and Susan A. Lynham

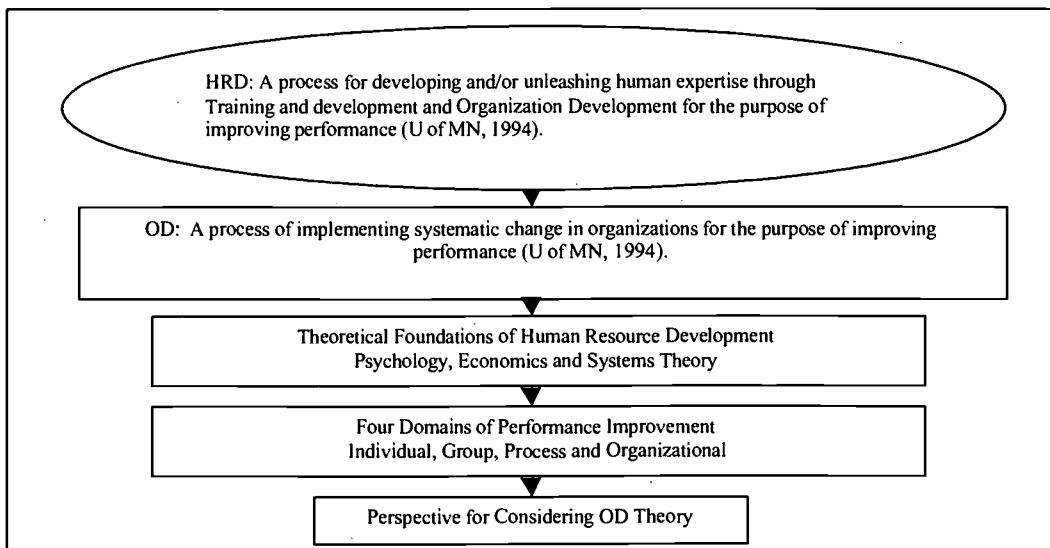
2) Given 1, what are some theoretically informed OD for performance improvement theories?

Methodology

The methodology used was a conceptual review, analysis, and synthesis of related scholarly literature. This approach is meant to be used to establish the current state of the body of knowledge about OD for performance improvement theory. In considering OD for performance improvement theory from the perspective of the theoretical foundations of HRD and performance improvement, little material was found that had previously considered this perspective.

The purpose of this paper is to provide a useful means for selecting and identifying OD theories for performance improvement. This approach considers OD theory from two perspectives: first, from that of HRD, and second, that of performance improvement. This approach is graphically represented in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Graphic Model of a Perspective for Considering OD Theory



Viewing OD theory from the theoretical foundations of HRD, and also from a performance improvement perspective can be shown in a matrix as indicated in Table 1.

Table 1. The OD Theory Selection Matrix (shell)

PERFORMANCE DOMAINS	FOUNDATIONAL THEORIES		
	PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORY	SYSTEMS THEORY	ECONOMIC THEORY
INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE			
GROUP/SOCIAL PERFORMANCE			
PROCESS PERFORMANCE			
ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE			

In order for this heuristic to be useful, it is necessary to define the cells within the matrix. First, a definition of key terms, namely, the theoretical foundations of HRD (psychology, systems and economic) and the domains of performance (individual, group, process, and organization) are provided. And second, an integrated definition of each of the theoretical foundations of HRD at each domain of performance improvement is considered. For the purposes of this paper, the definitions presented below will be used to guide and inform the process of selecting core theories of OD for performance improvement.

Definition of Key Terms : Theoretical Foundations of HRD

Following are some key definitions pertaining to the matrix in Table 1, namely, HRD, OD, and each of the theoretical foundations of HRD. The theoretical foundations of HRD are defined from three perspectives, namely, a standard definition of each theoretical foundation, a definition of each theoretical foundation from the perspective of OD for performance improvement, and a purposive definition of each of the theoretical foundations.

For the purposes of this paper, HRD and OD are defined as follows:

- HRD is a process of developing and/or unleashing human expertise through training and development and organization development for the purpose of improving performance (U of MN, 1994).
- OD is a process of implementing systematic change in organizations for the purpose of improving performance (U of MN, 1994).

Defining Psychological Theory

- *Standard Definition.* “The scientific study of behavior and the mind” (Writen, 1998, p. 13).
- *Definition of Psychological Theory from the perspective of OD for Performance Improvement.* A description and explanation of behavior and mental processes of humans and their effect on humans and human system performance (Passmore, 1997).
- *Purposive Definition.* The purpose of psychology theory in the context of OD for performance improvement is to provide useful and relevant knowledge and methods for understanding and affecting human behavior and mental processes in human performance systems (Passmore, 1997; Marsick, 1999; Lynham, 2000a).

Defining Economic Theory

- *Standard definition.* “The science of analysing the process by which markets equilibrate supply and demand and generate prices.” (Randall, 1987, p. 92).
- *Definition of Economic Theory from the perspective of OD for Performance Improvement.* A description and explanation of how the allocation of scarce resources among a variety of human wants affects individual, group, process and whole system performance (Randall, 1987; Torroco, 1998).
- *Purposive Definition.* The purpose of Economic theory in the context of OD for performance improvement is to provide useful and relevant knowledge and methods for understanding and managing the effects of the need to allocate scarce resources across individual, group, process and whole system performance (Randall, 1987; Torroco, 1998; Marsick, 1999; Lynham, 2000).

Defining Systems Theory

- *Standard Definition.* “A general science of wholeness” (Von Bertalanffy, 1969, p. 37), or, “Knowledge concerned with systems, wholes and organizations” (Ruona, 1998, p. 888).
- *Definition of Systems Theory from the perspective of OD for Performance Improvement.* A general description and explanation of the interrelationships among inputs, processes, outputs and feedback in systems, in wholes and organizations (Von Bertalanffy, 1969; Ruona, 1998).
- *Purposive Definition.* The purpose of systems theory in the context of OD for performance improvement is to provide useful and relevant knowledge and methods for understanding and affecting the interrelationships among inputs, processes, outputs and feedback in performance systems (Von Bertalanffy, 1969; Ruona, 1998; Marsick, 1999; Lynham, 2000).

Definition of Key Terms: Domains of Performance Improvement

Because this paper emphasises a performance improvement perspective, the choice of related OD theories is further considered from four domains of performance, namely; the individual, group/social, process and organizational domains (Holton, 1999). The domain definitions are followed by a description of the purpose of each domain.

The Individual Domain of Performance. “Technologies and processes designed to optimise the performance of the individual within the context of the organization” (Lynham, 2000a, p. 21). The purpose of this domain of performance is to separate and identify technologies and processes critical to leveraging individual performance in a performance system.

The Group/Social Domain of Performance. “An internal subsystem for which performance goals have been set that are derived from and contribute to the mission of the overall system” (Holton, 1999, p. 31). The purpose of this domain of performance is to separate and identify internal subsystems with set goals that contribute to the overall mission in a performance system.

The Process Domain of Performance. “A series of steps designed to produce a product or service” (Rummler and Brache, 1995, p. 45). The purpose of this domain of performance is to separate and identify the processes and steps that cut across subsystems and produce products and/or services for identifying leverage areas for performance improvement in a performance whole.

The Organizational Domain of Performance. “The performance systems mission and the goals derived from it, that specify the expected outcomes of the performance system” (Holton, 1999, p. 29). The purpose of this domain of performance is to separate and identify the mission, goals and relationship with the external environment to identify leverage areas for performance improvement of the overall performance system.

Synthesis of Definitions: Theoretical Foundations and Performance Domains

Table 2 contains the integration of the definitions of the theoretical foundations of HRD and the domains of performance improvement. This integration is necessary because it provides the criteria for selecting OD theories.

Application of the Theory Selection Matrix

By combining the theoretical foundations of HRD with the performance domain perspective, a unique, 12-cell matrix of OD theory is provided (See matrix in Table 3). The matrix further sets up criteria for selecting OD theories in each cell. For example, psychological theory at the individual domain must satisfy both, the definition and purpose of the individual performance domain, and the definition and purpose of psychological theory informed from the perspective of HRD and performance improvement.

The OD theories selected below meet the definitional criteria indicated in Table 2. It is not suggested that these theories make up the core of theory in OD, rather that they are an example of the matrix in action. Following Table 3 is a brief discussion of each theory and how it informs OD professionals about practice for improving performance.

Table 2. Integration of the Theoretical Foundations with the Performance Domains

PERFORMANCE DOMAINS	THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS		
	PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORY	SYSTEMS THEORY	ECONOMIC THEORY
INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE	<p>Psychological Theory at the Individual Domain</p> <p>Definition of psychological theory at the individual domain: A description and explanation of how the behaviors and mental processes of humans affect technologies and processes designed to optimise individual performance in the organizational context.</p> <p>Purpose of psychological theory at the individual domain: To provide useful and relevant knowledge and methods for understanding and affecting human behavior and mental processes and how they affect technologies and processes critical to leveraging individual performance in a performance system.</p>	<p>Systems Theory at the Individual Domain</p> <p>Definition of systems theory at the individual domain: A general description and explanation of how the interrelationships among inputs, processes, outputs and feedback, affect technologies and processes designed to optimise individual performance in the organizational context.</p> <p>Purpose of systems theory at the individual domain: To provide useful and relevant knowledge and methods for understanding and affecting the interrelationships among inputs, processes, outputs and feedback and how the interrelationships affect processes critical to leveraging individual performance in a performance system.</p>	<p>Economic Theory at the Individual Domain</p> <p>Definition of economic theory at the individual domain: A description and explanation of how the allocation of scarce resources among a variety of human wants affects technologies and processes designed to optimise individual performance in the organizational context.</p> <p>Purpose of economic theory at the individual domain: To provide useful and relevant knowledge and methods for understanding and managing how the allocation of scarce resources affects technologies and processes critical to leveraging individual performance in the organizational context.</p>

GROUP/SOCIAL PERFORMANCE	<p>Psychological Theory at the Group/Social Domain Definition of Psychological Theory at the Group/Social Domain: A description and explanation of how the behaviors and mental processes of humans affect internal subsystems for which performance goals have been set that derive from and contribute to the mission of the overall system. Purpose of Psychological Theory at the Group/Social Domain: To provide useful and relevant knowledge and methods about how human behaviors and mental processes affect internal subsystems with established goals that contribute to the overall mission in a performance system.</p>	<p>Systems Theory at the Group/Social Domain Definition of Systems Theory at the Group/Social Domain: A description and explanation of how the interrelationships among inputs, processes, outputs and feedback affect internal subsystems with set goals derived from and that contribute to the mission of the overall system. Purpose of Systems Theory at the Group/Social Domain: To provide useful and relevant knowledge and methods for understanding and affecting how the interrelationships among inputs, processes, outputs and feedback affect internal subsystems with set goals that contribute to the overall mission in a performance system.</p>	<p>Economic Theory at the Group/Social Domain Definition of Economic theory at the group/social domain: A description and explanation of how the allocation of scarce resources among a variety of human wants affects internal subsystems with set goals that are derived from and contribute to the overall system. Purpose of economic theory at the group/social domain: To provide useful and relevant knowledge and methods for understanding and managing how the allocation of scarce resources affects internal subsystems with set performance goals that are derived from and contribute to the mission of the overall system.</p>
PROCESS PERFORMANCE	<p>Psychological Theory at the Process Domain Definition of psychological theory at the process domain: A description and explanation of how human behavior and mental processes affect any series of steps designed to produce a product or service. Purpose of psychological theory at the process domain: To provide useful and relevant knowledge and methods for understanding and managing how human behavior and mental processes affect steps or processes that cut across subsystems and produce products or services in a performance whole.</p>	<p>Systems Theory at the Process Domain Definition of systems theory at the process domain: A description and explanation of the how the interrelationships among inputs, processes, outputs and feedback affects any series of steps designed to produce a product or service. Purpose of systems theory at the process domain: To provide useful and relevant knowledge and methods for understanding and affecting how the interrelationships among inputs, processes, outputs and feedback affect the processes and steps that cut across subsystems to produce a product or service in a performance whole.</p>	<p>Economic Theory at the Process Domain of Performance Definition: A description and explanation of how the allocation of scarce resources among a variety of human wants affects any series of steps designed to produce a product or service Purpose: To provide useful and relevant knowledge and methods for understanding and managing how the allocation of scarce resources affects processes and steps that cut across subsystems and produce products or services in a performance whole.</p>
ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE	<p>Psychological Theory at the Organization Domain Definition of psychological theory at the organization domain: A description and explanation of how human behavior and mental processes affect the performance system's mission and goals that specify expected outcomes. Purpose of psychological theory at the organization domain: To provide useful and relevant knowledge and methods for understanding and affecting how human behavior and mental processes affect the organization's mission, goals and relationship with the external environment.</p>	<p>Systems Theory at the Organization Domain Definition of systems theory at the organization domain: A description and explanation of how the interrelationships among inputs, processes, outputs and feedback affect the performance system's mission, goals that specify expected outcomes. Purpose of systems theory at the organization domain: To provide useful and relevant knowledge and methods for understanding and affecting how the interrelationships among inputs, processes, outputs and feedback affect the organization's mission, goals and relationship with the external environment.</p>	<p>Economic Theory at the Organization Domain Definition of economic theory at the organization domain: A description and explanation of how the allocation of scarce resources among a variety of human wants affects the performance system's mission and goals that specify expected outcomes. Purpose of economic theory at the organization domain: To provide useful and relevant knowledge and methods for understanding and managing how the allocation of scarce resources among a variety of human wants affects the organization's mission, goals and relationship with the external environment.</p>

T-C-P Theory

Tichy's T-C-P Theory offers a 9-cell matrix for ensuring alignment among organizational components. The focus of T-C-P theory is one of evaluating and integrating the organization from three internal perspectives: technical, cultural, and political. The three internal perspectives are aligned and then evaluated against the economic, political, and cultural forces in the external environment. Tichy's T-C-P theory informs HRD professionals about the nature

of alignment in internal processes and how given “steps” in a process are linked not only to each other, but also to the internal economic, political, and cultural forces.

Bridges Transition Theory

Bridges (1980) defines three zones of transition, namely, ending, neutral and new beginning. According to Bridges, each phase must be completed before and individual can successfully begin the next. Bridges theory informs HRD professionals about how individuals cope with change. Understanding how individuals cope with change may explain why, after change interventions, individual performance often decreases before it improves (Cummings & Worley, 2001).

Table 3: The OD Theory Selection Matrix

PERFORMANCE DOMAINS	FOUNDATIONAL THEORIES		
	Psychological Theory	Systems Theory	Economic Theory
Individual Performance	Bridges Transition Theory (1994)	General System Theory (Von Bertalanffy, 1969)	Swanson’s P-L-S Theory (1996)
Group/Social Performance	Johari Theory of Communication (Luft, 1961)	Group Process Consultation Theory (Cummings & Worley, 2001)	Team Building (French & Bell, 1999)
Process Performance	Intergroup Reactions Theory (French & Bell, 1999)	Tichy’s T-C-P Theory of Alignment (Tichy, 1983)	Process Improvement (Rummler & Brache, 1995)
Organizational Performance	Performance Management Theory (Cummings & Worley, 2001)	General System Theory (Von Bertalanffy, 1969)	Human Capital Theory (Becker, 1993)

Human Capital Theory

Becker (1993) suggests that employee education, training and health care, among other expenditures, be considered investments. De Geus (1997) states that “the ability to learn faster than your competitors may be the only competitive advantage” (p. 21). Human Capital Theory informs OD professionals that economic organizational performance involves much more than sound processes and goals. Organizational performance requires that organization members are seen as a major source of potential competitive advantage and recognized as the foundation of the business itself (De Geus, 1995).

Swanson’s P-L-S Theory

Swanson’s P-L-S Evaluation system focuses on three domains of evaluation; performance, learning and satisfaction and focuses on the impact of the individual on the organization (1996). Swanson’s P-L-S system measures changes in individual performance first in terms of economic impact, followed by changes in knowledge and expertise, and finally satisfaction measurements are considered. The P-L-S system informs OD practitioners that there are many ways to measure individual improvement. The focus on the economic performance contributions of the individual is presented as a necessary, but not necessarily sufficient outcome.

General System Theory

Because General System Theory is defined as a “a general science of wholeness” (Von Bertalanffy, 1969, p. 37), it can be used to explain the organizational level of inputs, processes, outputs and feedback with the external environment. Often thought of as a unifying theory (Jacobs, 1989), general system theory informs OD professionals about the nature of the relationship between the organization and external political, cultural, economic and climate changes. Insights gained from the perspective on general system theory can be extended to all four domains of performance improvement (Rummler & Brache, 1995).

Performance Management Theory

Performance management is an integrated process of defining, assessing, and reinforcing employee work behaviors and outcomes as they pertain to the organization (Cummings & Worley, 2001). “Organizations with a well-developed performance management process tend to outperform organizations without this element of organization design” (Cummings & Worley, 2001, p. 371). Divided into three pieces, goal setting, performance appraisal, and reward systems, performance management specifies, assesses, and provides reinforcement for the desired outcomes.

Performance management theory informs OD practitioners about the impact of individual work behaviors and practices on the strategic objectives of the organization.

Johari Theory of Communication

Luft (1961) developed a 4-cell matrix to explain communication with hidden levels within groups. Cell one is comprised of issues that are perceived by both the individual and others, cell two describes issues that the individual is aware of, but conceals from others, cell three contains personal issues that are unknown to the individual, but are communicated clearly to the others, and finally, cell four, which consists of issues that are hidden from both the individual and others. An understanding of the Johari theory can inform OD professionals about the dynamics of group communication as it is influenced by the communication abilities and methods of the individual.

Group Process Consultation Theory

Schein defines group process consultation as “a set of activities on the part of the consultant that helps the client to perceive, understand, and act upon the process events that occur in the client’s environment” (1987, p. 34). Group process consultation deals primarily with five processes; communications, group member roles, group problem-solving and decision-making, the development and growth of group norms, and the use of leadership (Cummings and Worley, 2001). Group process consultation is a general model for helping group relations and is systemic in nature as it depicts the group as a pivotal unit within the organizational whole (Schrage, 1990).

Team Building

Team building refers to a range of activities that help groups to improve how they accomplish tasks and make decisions. Team building helps problem-solving groups maximize the use of resources and contributions that eventually impact the economic performance of the organization (Cummings & Worley, 2001). According to French & Bell, team building can focus on task accomplishment, relationships, processes, role analysis, and role negotiation (1999). Team building activities attempt to improve and increase the effectiveness of teams within the organization, which can translate directly to the economic benefit of the whole (Schrage, 1990).

Process Improvement and Redesign

“Process is the least understood and least managed domain of performance” (Rummler & Brache, 1995, p. 21). Process improvement and redesign involves four phases, namely, performance improvement planning, project definition, process analysis and design, and implementation. Failure to improve and manage process performance is failure to improve organizational economic performance (Rummler & Brache, 1995). An understanding of process improvement and redesign allows OD professionals to affect the way work is accomplished in an organization.

Intergroup Relations Theory

There are several strategies for reducing intergroup conflict. Intergroup team building, third party peace-making interventions, organization mirror interventions, and partnering are all common methods for alleviating intergroup tension (French & Bell, 1999). Understanding the dynamics of intergroup conflict enables OD professionals to deal effectively with group system conflict. As organizations shift toward heavier use of the group as the primary unit for conducting problem solving, the process of intergroup management will become critical (Rummler & Brache, 1995).

Significance of the Study

There are a number of potential benefits in considering the identification and selection of OD theories from the theoretical foundations of HRD and performance improvement. First, this integrated HRD/PI perspective provides a means for selecting OD theories for improved practice that are consistent with the theoretical foundations of HRD. Second, the theoretical foundations of HRD provide a theoretical anchor for selecting core theories. This integrated HRD/PI view can be used to provide HRD practitioners and scholars with a theoretically informed means for identifying and selecting theories of OD for performance improvement. Finally, the theoretical alignment of OD theory to that of the theoretical foundations of HRD can assist in the development and credibility of both HRD research and practice.

Contributions to New Knowledge in HRD

This paper provides a view of theory in OD that is consistent with the theoretical foundations of HRD. The view of OD from the theoretical foundations of HRD and performance improvement has produced a frame for selecting OD theories that have a logical theoretical base.

In the spirit of value-added OD, practitioners need to have a theoretically informed means for selecting OD theories for improved practice. The Theory Selection Matrix presented in this paper provides such an informed framework.

Conclusions and Recommendations for Further Consideration

Currently, theory in OD stretches across multiple disciplines. The variety of theories for OD professionals to choose from is overwhelming and without logical theoretical foundations, OD practitioners will not be able to replicate results or develop a deeper understanding of the discipline (Swanson, 1999). This paper has highlighted OD for performance improvement theories from the theoretical foundations of HRD and performance improvement thereby providing a view of OD that is consistent with that of HRD. A useful next step in the application of the Theory Selection Matrix would be to determine what makes for good OD for performance theory.

References

- Becker, G. S. (1993). Human capital: A theoretical and empirical analysis with special reference to education. (3rd ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Bridges, W. (1980). Transitions: Strategies for coping with the difficult, painful, and confusing times in your life. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc.
- De Geus, A. (1997). The living company. Boston: Harvard University Press.
- Cummings, T. G., & Worley, C. G. (2001). Organization development and change. (6th ed.). Cincinnati: South-Western College Publishing.
- French, W. L., & Bell, C. H. (1999). Organization development: Behavioral science interventions for organization improvement. (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Gradous, D. (1984). Systems theory applied to hrd. ASTD Press: Alexandria, VA.
- Holton, E. F. III (1998). Psychology and the discipline of HRD: Contributions and limitations. Academy of Human Resource Development 1998 Conference Proceedings. Baton Rouge, LA: Academy of Human Resource Development.
- Holton, E. F. III (1999). Performance domains and their boundaries. In R. J. Torracco (Ed.), Performance improvement: Theory and practice (pp. 26-46). San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.
- Jacobs, R. L. (1989). Systems theory applied to human resource development. In D. Gradous (Ed.), Systems theory applied to human resource development. (p. 27-60). Alexandria, VA: American Society for Training and Development.
- Luft, J. (1961). The johari window. Human Relations Training News, 5. (p. 6-7).
- Lynham, S. A. (2000). The development of a theory of responsible leadership for performance. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.
- Marsick, V. J., & Watkins, K. E. (1999). Facilitating learning organizations: Making learning count. Brookfield: Gower Publishing Limited.
- McLagan, P. (1989). Models for HRD practice. Alexandria, VA: American Society for Training and Development.
- Micklethwait, J., & Woolridge, A. (1997). The witch doctors: What the management gurus are saying, why it matters, and how to make sense of it. New York: Times Books.
- Passmore, D. L. (1997). Ways of seeing: Disciplinary bases of research in HRD. In R. Swanson & E. Holton (Eds.), Human resource development research handbook. (p. 114-137). San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.
- Randall, W. L. (1987). Resource economics: An economic approach to natural resource and environmental policy. (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Rothwell, W. J., Sullivan, R., & McLean, G. N. (1995). Practicing organization development: A guide for consultants. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass/Pfeiffer.
- Rummler, G. A., & Brache, A. P. (1995). Improving performance: How to manage the white space on the organization chart. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc.
- Ruona, W. E. A. & Swanson, R. A. (1999). Foundations of human resource development. In H. C. Hall (Ed.), Human Resource Development. Columbia, MO: University Council of Vocational Education.
- Schein, E. (1985). Organizational culture and leadership. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schrage, M. (1990). No more teams! Mastering the dynamics of creative collaboration. New York: Doubleday.
- Senge, P. (1990). The fifth discipline. New York: Doubleday.
- Swanson, R. A. (1995). Human resource development: Performance is key. Human Resource Development Quarterly, 6(2), 207-213.
- Swanson, R. A. (1996). Performance-learning-satisfaction evaluation system. University of Minnesota, St. Paul, MN
- Swanson, R. A. (1998). The discipline of human resource development. Academy of Human Resource Development 1998 Conference Proceedings. Baton Rouge, LA: Academy of Human Resource Development.
- Swanson, R. A. (1999). The foundation of performance improvement and implications for practice. In R. J. Torracco (Ed.), Performance improvement: Theory and practice (pp. 1-25). San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.
- Tichy, N. (1983). Managing strategic change: Technical, political, and cultural dynamics. New York: John Wiley.
- Torraco, R. J. (1997). Theory building research methods. In R. Swanson & E. Holton III (Eds.), Human Resource Development Handbook. (p. 114-137). San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.
- Torraco, R. J. (1998). Economics: Human capital theory and human resource development. Academy of Human Resource Development 1998 Conference Proceedings. Baton Rouge, LA: Academy of Human Resource Development.
- Von Bertalanffy, L. (1969). General system theory: Foundations, development, applications. New York: George Braziller, Inc.
- Written, W. (1998). Themes and variations. (4th ed.). New York: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co.

Organization Development: An Examination of Definitions and Dependent Variables

T. Marshall Egan
University of Minnesota

Organization Development (OD) has been engaging in an ongoing search for further purpose and definition. Several authors have forwarded definitions of OD and the associated outcomes or dependent variables. Although OD definitions have been discussed in previous research, few authors have attempted to analyze the definitions in terms of outcomes. This article explores twenty-seven definitions of OD published from 1969 to the present. Associated dependent variables are examined.

Keywords: Organization Development, Performance Improvement, Action Research

Organization development (OD) has been engaging in a search for purpose and definition. Many OD scholars and practitioners have developed definitions of OD and countless more have used common definitions to explain theories, rationale and approaches. According to Burke (1994), the term organization development was first coined in 1969. Several definitions can be found from that year (Beckhard, 1969; Bennis, 1969; Blake & Mouton, 1969; Golembiewski, 1969; Lippit, 1969). Each word organization and development have been analyzed and reflected upon by OD scholars (Golembiewski, 1992a, 1992b). There have been many statements in the OD literature to suggest that the field is uncertain of its direction and identity (Church, Waclawski & Seigel, 1996), including the assertion that "nobody agrees exactly what doing OD means" (Church et al. 1996).

The on-going exploration of the term organization development is important to any scholar, practitioner or participant interested in the field (Cummings & Worley, 1997). Historically, OD authors have provided commentary on the everyday workplace environment as well as the theoretical and practitioner based concepts that support the field. This article begins with an introduction of twenty-seven OD definitions and their related dependent variables and summarizes the outcomes OD aims to achieve.

Purpose of the Paper

The purpose of this article is to investigate definitions of organization development. The focus of the article is on two questions: 1) What are the ways in which organization development is defined? 2) What are the characteristics and relationships between dependent variables or outcomes that are identified in organization development definitions? Definitions found in published works from 1969 to the present will be provided and discussed. The dependent variables for each definition will be identified and explored.

History and Challenges in Defining OD

In reflecting on the history of OD, Hornstein (1997) indicated that there is some confusion regarding the actual genesis of OD. Most authors have associated the publications in Addison-Wesley's OD series featuring the work of Beckard (1969), Bennis (1969) and Schein (1969) as the starting point for the literature specifically directed at the theory and practice of OD (French & Bell, 1999; Cummings & Worley, 1997). There is, however, much discussion regarding OD's beginnings.

It would be audacious to insist that this publication (Addison-Wesley's OD series, 1969) marks the field's official beginning. Perhaps its inception actually occurred at the OD Network's first meeting. Or, maybe OD really got started during the summer of 1967... when the National Training Laboratories (NTL) first offered the Program for Specialists in Organization Development (PSOD). (Hornstein, 1997, p. 43)

There were also developments that preceded the writings and practice of the 1960s including the work of McGregor, Shepard, Blake and Mouton, London's work at Tavistock, and Trist and Bamforth's work in weaving sheds and coal mines (French & Bell, 1999). The "Classical School of Thought" emerged in the late Nineteenth Century (Rothwell, Sullivan, & McLean, 1995). These approaches were developed out of Social Darwinism and

Copyright © 2001 T. Marshall Egan

the work of Frederick Taylor, Frank and Lillian Gilbreth and Henry L. Gantt (Rothwell et al. 1995). Other roots of OD include economics and human capital theory, participatory management theory, psychology, psychotherapy, social psychology and survey methods.

The most frequently read texts on OD examine the recorded past and the definitions that have been forwarded throughout the years. The most commonly cited first definitions of OD appear to be from the aforementioned Addison-Wesley OD series. These definitions assist us in understanding our past and the identity of OD and its practitioners. Further examination may also help OD practitioners and scholars to chart our futures.

Some OD practitioners and scholars have not framed their practices or research using OD language. Discussions regarding consultation, the practitioner and organizational learning have appeared in the Addison-Wesley OD Series and in other OD related publications without specific mention of the term organization development. Perhaps Argyris and Schön (1996) represent one of the best current examples. Discussions regarding the "learning organization" are widespread and certainly have been influenced, if not entirely instigated by, the work of Argyris and Schön. Despite both authors having been documented as major participants in influencing the field of OD (French & Bell, 1999) and that their work was published as a continuation of the founding Addison-Wesley OD Series, neither the first or second versions of Organizational Learning refers to OD nor does the word organization development appear in the index of either of their groundbreaking books.

Organization development courses and commonly utilized textbooks (Cummings & Worley, 1993) use the term organizational learning, but a member of an organization investing in the "organizational learning" framework may be unlikely to make a connection to the term organization development. Although the disconnectedness in terms may have little impact on practice, it undoubtedly has an impact on the identity of the field of OD. Persons unaware of the connections between OD and organizational learning are unable to access the knowledge developed through decades of practice, research and theory building. This overlap of efforts using different terms may contribute to the blurring of focus on arguably the most important factor in further establishing OD, which centers on identification of outcomes or dependent variables.

Taking a closer look at OD definitions reveals that the aims of OD practitioners vary (Cummings & Worley, 1997). The variation is to be expected based on the OD practitioner's biases, education, exposure to theory and experiences. Although some would take the position that an exploration of OD definitions and their dependent variables is futile based on the relative youth of the field or the individualized perspective of each practitioner, it seems plausible that there would exist themes in the experiences, practices, processes, definitions and outcomes of OD practitioners to date. By examining previously forwarded definitions of OD, scholars and practitioners may be better able to gauge the relative awareness, similarities and differences in the field.

Some may argue that the signature of OD practitioners, as compared to other internal and external organizational consultants, is the emphasis on values. OD is a field that is based on values and ethics (Rothwell et al. 1995). It is clear that those who have developed their approaches to OD from a values perspective are also focused on general or specific outcomes associated with their contributions to clients, organizations and society. Therefore, outcomes are important to the focus of OD and its practitioners. A significant challenge to exploring the dependent variables that define OD and influence the work of OD practitioners is the naturalistic environment in which much of OD work takes place. It is clear that an examination of the dependent variables in OD cannot be so rigid as to attempt to explore an artificially controlled practice.

Examining Definitions of OD

Authors have commented on the difficulty of assembling OD literature (Pate 1976; Varney, 1990). For the purposes of this study, a review was conducted using several periodical search engines at a major university in the United States that identified journals and books with the title or specific reference to the term organization development. In an effort to extend the possibility for a broad review of the literature, the assembly of the following definitions involved consultation with six leaders in organization development. Each of the six leaders consulted has published and presented widely, led academic and professional OD organizations, and are active OD consultants in the United States and internationally. OD leaders were asked to review a list of definitions that highlighted dependent variables. Each was asked to comment on the thoroughness of the list and to recommend additions or changes. A limitation to the study is that the identified definitions were found almost exclusively in publications from the United States. The following twenty-seven definitions are a product of this review of the academic literature and expert review. Definitions developed by OD organizations or associations have not been included.

Table 1. Organization Development Definitions

Author	Date	Definitions (<i>dependent elements bolded</i>)*	Dependent Variables*
Beckhard	1969	Organization development is an effort (1) planned, (2) organization-wide, and (3) managed from the top, to (4) increase organizational effectiveness and health through (5) planned interventions in the organization's "processes," using behavior-science knowledge.	Increase organization effectiveness and health
Bennis	1969	Organization development (OD) is a response to change, a complex educational strategy, intended to change the beliefs, attitudes, values, and structure of organizations so that they can better adapt to new technologies, markets, and challenges and the dizzying rate of change itself.	Adapt to new technologies, markets, challenges and change
Blake & Mouton	1969	Organization development emphasizes the "O" in every sense of the word. It means development of the entire organization or self-sustaining parts of an organization from top to bottom and throughout. True OD is theory based, team-focused and undertaken by means of self-help approaches which place a maximum reliance upon internal skills and leadership for development activities . It is top lead, line managed and staff supported. Development activities focus on the "system," those traditions, precedents, and past practices which have become the culture of the organization. Therefore, development must include individual, team and other organization units rather than concentrating on any one to the exclusion of others. OD is thus this comprehensive approach which integrates the management sciences, business logic, and behavioral systems of an organization into an organic, interdependent whole.	Development and development activities
French	1969	Organization development refers to a long-range effort to improve an organization's problem-solving capabilities and its ability to cope with changes in its external environment with the help of external or internal behavioral-scientists consultants, or change agents, as they are sometimes called.	Improve problem solving capabilities and ability to cope with environmental change
Golembiewski	1969	Organizational development implies a normative, re-education strategy intended to affect systems of beliefs, values and attitudes within the organization so that it can adapt better to the accelerated rate of change in technology, in our industrial environment and society in general . It also includes formal organizational restructuring which is frequently initiated, facilitated and reinforced by the normative and behavioral changes.	Adapt better to change in technology, the industrial environment and society
Lippit	1969	Organization development is the strengthening of those human processes in organizations which improve the functioning of the organic system so as to achieve its objectives . Organization renewal is the process of initiating, creating, and confronting needed changes so as to make it possible for organizations to become or remain viable, to adapt to new conditions, to solve problems, to learn from experiences, and to move toward greater organizational maturity .	Improve functioning, organizational renewal, viability, adaptation, learning, and maturity
Schmuck & Miles	1971	Organizational Development can be defined as a planned and sustained effort to apply behavior science for system improvement , using reflexive, self-analytic methods.	System improvement

* Collection of definitions, determination of dependent elements and dependent variables verified by six OD experts

Copyright © 2001 T. Marshall Egan

Table 1. Organization Development Definitions (continued)

Burke & Hornstein	1972	Organization development is a process of planned change--change of an organization's culture from one which avoids an examination of social process (especially decision making, planning, and communication) to one which institutionalizes and legitimizes this examination.	Institutionalization and legitimizing of the examination of social process
Hall	1977	Organizational development refers to a long-range effort to improve an organization's problem-solving capabilities and its ability to cope with changes in its external environment with the help of external or internal behavior-scientist consultants or change agents.	Improve problem-solving capabilities and ability to cope with changes in its external environment
French & Bell	1978	Organization development is a long-range effort to improve an organization's problem-solving and renewal processes , particularly through a more effective and collaborative management of organization culture-- with special emphasis on the culture of formal work teams--with the assistance of a change agent, or catalyst, and the use of the theory and technology of applied behavioral science, including action research.	Improve problem-solving and renewal processes
Beer	1980	Organization development is a system-wide process of data collection, diagnosis, action, planning, intervention, and evaluation aimed at (1) enhancing congruence between organizational structure, process, strategy, people, and culture ; (2) developing new and creative organizational solutions ; and (3) developing the organization's renewing capacity . It occurs through collaboration of organizational members working with a change agent using behavioral science theory, research, and technology.	Enhancing congruence; Developing creative organizational solutions and developing renewing capacity
Beer	1980	Organizational development is a process for diagnosing organizational problems by looking for incongruencies between environment, structures, processes and people.	Problem diagnosis
Burke	1982	Organization development is a planned process of change in an organization's culture through the utilization of behavioral science technology, research, and theory.	Cultural change
Davis	1983	Organization development consists of a series of theory based workshops, techniques, programs, systematic approaches and individual consulting interventions designed to assist people in organizations in their day-to-day organizational life and the complex processes this involves . All of this is backed up with beliefs, biases, and values held by the organization development practitioner.	Assist people in organizations
Nielsen	1984	Organization Development is the attempt to influence the members of an organization to expand their candidness with each other about their views of the organization and their experience in it, and to take greater responsibility for their own actions as organization members. The assumption behind OD is that when people pursue both of these objectives simultaneously, they are likely to discover new ways of working together that they experience as more effective for achieving their own and their shared (organizational) goals. And that when this does not happen, such activity helps them to understand why and to make meaningful choices about what to do in light of this understanding.	Expand candidness; increase accountability; achieve individual and organizational goals
Warrick	1984	Organization development is a planned, long-range systems and primarily behavioral science strategy for understanding, developing, and changing organizations to improve their present and future effectiveness and health .	Improve effectiveness and health

Table 1. Organization Development Definitions (continued)

Burke & Schmidt	1985	Organizational development is a process which attempts to increase organizational effectiveness by integrating individual desires for growth and development with organizational goals. Typically, this process is planned change effort which involves a total system over a period of time and these change efforts are related to the organization's mission.	Increase organizational effectiveness
Beer & Walton	1987	Organization Development comprises a set of actions undertaken to improve organizational effectiveness and employees' well-being.	Organizational effectiveness & Employee well-being
French, Bell & Zawacki	1989	Organizational development is a process of planned system change that attempts to make organizations better able to attain their short and long term objectives.	Obtain long and short term objectives
Vaill	1989	Organization development is an organizational process for understanding and improving any and all substantive processes an organization may develop for performing any task and pursuing any objective. A "process for improving process"--that is what OD has basically sought to be for approximately 25 years.	Improving processes
McLagan	1989	Organization Development: Assuring healthy inter- and intra-unit relationships and helping groups initiate and manage change. Organization development's primary emphasis is on relationships and processes between and among individuals and groups. Its primary intervention is influence on the relationship of individuals and groups to effect and impact on the organization as a system.	Initiate and manage change to effect and impact the organization
Porras & Robertson	1992	Organizational development is a set of behavioral science-based theories, values, strategies, and techniques aimed at the planned change of the organizational work setting for the purpose of enhancing individual development and improving organizational performance, through the alteration of organizational members' on-the-job behavior.	Enhancing individual development and organizational performance
Cummings & Worley	1993	Organization development is a systemwide application of behavioral science knowledge to the planned development and reinforcement of organizational strategies, structures, and processes for improving an organization's effectiveness.	Improving organizational effectiveness
Burke	1994	Organization development is a planned process of change in an organization's culture through the utilization of behavioral science technologies, research, and theory.	Culture change
Church, Wacławski & Siegal	1996	Organization development is a field based on values—promoting positive humanistically oriented large-system change in organizations—plain and simple. ...if they are not morally bound to the core values of the field then they simply are not doing O.D. ...OD is about humanistic change on a system-wide level. ...It is about improving the conditions of people's lives in organizations. ...O. D. is about helping people in organizations.	Humanistic change on a system-wide level; improving the conditions of people's lives
Dyer	1997	Organization Development is a process whereby actions are taken to release the creative and productive efforts of human beings at the same time achieving certain legitimate organizational goals such as being profitable, competitive, and sustainable.	Release creative & productive efforts; Profitability, competitiveness and sustainability
French & Bell	1999	Organization development is a long-term effort, led and supported by top management, to improve an organization's visioning, empowerment, learning, and problem-solving processes, through an ongoing, collaborative management of organization culture--with special emphasis on the culture of intact work teams and other team configurations--using the consultant-facilitator role and the theory and technology of applied behavioral science, including action research.	Improve visioning, empowerment, learning and problem-solving processes

Exploring The Dependent Variables of OD

In an effort to explore the dependent variables identified in the definitions presented above, seven experienced OD practitioners (no overlap of membership from the aforementioned expert review panel), with an average of over ten years of experience and all with advanced academic degrees, were asked to review the definitions and the dependent variables. The group of OD experts consisted of three men and four women, six European-American and one African-American. All were born in the United States. Participants were invited to come to a meeting room in a suburban office building in the Midwestern United States to meet for a two-hour focus group associated with OD.

Because many of the OD definitions have more than one dependent variable listed, each dependent variable represented from the 27 identified definitions was included. A single card was created for each of 60 dependent variables. Utilizing the process for creating affinity diagrams (Scholtes, Joiner, & Streibel, 1996), instructions given to participants were to examine the cards. The 60 cards were placed face up and in random order on a large table. Participants were gathered in front of the table on which the cards were positioned side-by-side so that participants could read the writing on each. The group of experts was given instructions from a single facilitator to feel free to move each the 60 cards into any formation or categories that seemed appropriate. Participants were asked not to talk during the activity until the sorting process had reached stagnation. There were no questions posed from participants. During the process, the facilitator did not intervene or talk to any of the participants.

The OD experts reviewed and sorted the 60 cards on which were listed the dependent variables from the definitions of OD. There was no time limit. After sorting the cards for approximately fifteen minutes, the OD experts stopped the sorting process. Without intervention from the facilitator, participants discussed the categories that were created and finalized their organization of the categories of dependent variables. Without prompting from the facilitator, participants asked for additional cards and decided to name each of the ten columns that were constructed as part of the card sort activity. Participants reached consensus in describing the categories as representative of ten key dependent variables in OD. The ten items included the following:

- Advance Organizational Renewal
- Engage Organization Culture Change
- Enhance Profitability and Competitiveness
- Ensure Health and Well-being of Organizations and Employees
- Facilitate Learning and Development
- Improve Problem Solving
- Increase Effectiveness
- Initiate and/or Manage Change
- Strengthen System and Process Improvement
- Support Adaptation to Change

According to the OD experts, examination of the results of this exercise provide an opportunity to consider some key features of existing dependent variables in organization development.

Implications of the Ten Dependent Variable Categories

The ten dependent variables represent categories from the definitions that have contributed to the shaping of OD as a field of study and practice. Regardless of the method of inquiry, categories play an important role in the understanding of a phenomenon (Dey, 1999). For positivist or quantitative researchers, the units and categories make up the core elements of a theory (Dubin, 1976). Categories are important features which enhance our understanding and abilities to communicate about phenomena whether they provide structure for those undertaking biology, rocket science or cooking in the kitchen. Categories matter because they help us to organize, compare and interpret physical matter and human interaction. According to Medin and Barsalou (1987), categories serve four key purposes: classification, inference and prediction, generation, and productivity. To suggest that categories provide an opportunity for understanding does not mean that categories are static or that their construction is the only or best way to order the subject at hand. Instead, categories represent an association of distinctive features whose properties can be attributed through analysis. The dependent variable categories created by the research participants provide an opportunity to examine the aims of OD within a new framework.

Conclusion

OD is not the only field to have had discussions about definitions and identity. The field of Human Resource Development (HRD), a relative to OD, has been having periodic discussions regarding identity and definition as well (McLean, 2000). Discussions in HRD centered on the identification of relevant theories and related fields, the importance of performance, the impact of particular HRD orientations to practice, and the dilemmas created through an examination of the global context. Many of these conversations are similar to those occurring in the OD literature and among practitioners. It seems that many OD theorists who have discussed the evolution of organizations have properly identified the importance of ongoing clarification of mission, purpose and vision, which often relate to intended outcomes or dependent variables, such as those listed above. Efforts to further investigate and extend understanding regarding the definition and the dependent variables associated with OD are needed. The future success of OD and the focus of associated practice and literature are dependent upon continuing dialogue and investigation into practices and outcomes.

References

- Argyris, C., & Schön, D. (1996). Organizational learning II. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Beckhard, R. (1969). Organization development strategies and models. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Beer, M. (1980). Organization Change and Development: A systems view. Santa Monica, CA: Goodyear Publishing.
- Beer, M., & Walton, E. (1987). Organization change and development. Annual Review of Psychology, 38, 229-272.
- Bennis, W. (1969). Organization development: Its nature, origins, and prospects. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Blake, R., & Mouton, J. (1969). Building a dynamic corporation through grid organization development. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Burke, W. (1982). Organization development: Principles and practices. New York, NY: Little, Brown & Co.
- Burke, W. (1994). Organization development: A process of learning and changing. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Burke, W., & Hornstein, H. (1972). The social technology of organization development. Fairfax, VA: Learning Resources.
- Burke, W., & Schmidt, W. (1985). Management and organization development. Personnel Administration, March, 43-55.
- Church, A., Waclawski, J., & Seigel, W. (1996). Will the real OD practitioner please stand up? A call for change in the field. Organization Development Journal, 14(2), 5-14.
- Cummings, T., & Worley, C. (1993). Organization development and change, 5th ed. St. Paul, MN: West Publishing.
- Cummings, T., & Worley, C. (1997). Organization development and change, 6th ed. Cincinnati, OH: South Western.
- Davis, S. (1983, Fall). What OD means to me. Organization Development Journal, 17-18.
- Dey, I. (1999). Grounding grounded theory: guidelines for qualitative inquiry. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Dyer, W. (1983). The future of OD: People learning from their own experiences. Some windows on the future of OD/TRU. Organization Development Journal, 1(1), 26-27.
- Dubin R. (1976). Theory building in applied areas. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology (pp. 17-39). Skokie, IL: Rand McNally.
- French, W. (1969). Organization development: Objectives assumptions, and strategies. California Management Review, 12(2), 23-34.
- French, W., & Bell, C., Jr. (1978). Organization development: Behavioral science interventions for organization improvement. (2nd ed.) Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- French, W., & Bell, C., Jr. (1999). Organization development: Behavioral science interventions for organization improvement. (6th ed.) Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Golembiewski, R. T. (1969). Organization development in public agencies: Perspectives on theory and practice. Public Administration Review, July-August, 367-372.

- Golembiewski, R. T. (1992a). The "o" in organization development: Trying to make it plain, again. Organization Development Journal, 10(3), 11-16.
- Golembiewski, R. T. (1992b). The "d" in organization development: Deepening a sense of the obvious. Organization Development Journal, 10(4), 11-14.
- Hall, R. H. (1977). Organizations: Structure and process. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hornstein, H. A. (1997). OD: Progressing toward the past. Organization Development Journal, 15(2), 43-47.
- Lippitt, G. (1969). Organization renewal. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- McLagan, P. (1989). Models for HRD practice. Alexandria, VA: American Society for Training and Development.
- McLean, G. N. (2000) Indigenizing knowledge transfer. Unpublished manuscript.
- Medin, D. L., & Barsalou, L. W. (1987). "Categorization processes and categorical perception" In S. Harnad (Ed.), Categorical perception: The groundwork of cognition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Neilsen, E. (1984). Becoming an OD practitioner. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Porras, J. & Robertson, P. (1992). Organization development: theory, practice and research. In Rothwell, W., Sullivan, R., & McLean, G. (1995) Practicing organization development. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Pfeiffer.
- Schein, E. H. (1969). Process consultation. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Schmuck, R., & Miles, M. (1971). Organization development in schools. Palo Alto, CA: National Press Books.
- Scholtes, P. R., Joiner, B. L., & Streibel, B. J. (1996). The team handbook. Madison, WI: Joiner
- Vaill, P. (1989). Seven process frontiers for organization development. In W. Sikes, A. Drexler, & J. Gant (Eds.), The emerging practice of organization development. La Jolla, CA: NTL Institute.

**ACADEMY OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT
2001 CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS**

16-1

Manuscript Release Form

**THIS FORM MUST BE COMPLETED AND RETURNED WITH EACH MANUSCRIPT.
ONLY ONE AUTHOR IS REQUIRED TO SIGN THE FORM.**

Paper Title	A Study of Gender Management Preferences as Related to Predicted Organizational Management Paradigms for the Twenty-First Century		
Author Names	Cathy Bolton McCullough		
AHRD Reference #	31		

Please tell us where to communicate with you about this paper


Contact person	Cathy Bolton McCullough		
Address	Oklahoma Department of Career & Technology Education 1500 W. Seventh Ave. Stillwater, OK 74074		
Office Phone	(405) 743-5576	Office Fax	(405) 743-6821
E-mail	cathyb@okcareertech.org		

We are adding a topical index for the proceedings this year. Please list three key words that describe the primary topics of your paper. Examples might include teams, evaluation, diversity, performance measurement methods, etc. Choose words that will be of the greatest help to your colleagues when they search for research on a topic.

Key word 1	Management Preferences
Key word 2	Management Paradigms
Key word 3	Organizational Development

The Proceedings will be submitted to ERIC after the conference. The Academy requires your signature to include your paper in the Proceedings.

I agree to allow Oscar A. Aliaga, editor of the 2001 Academy of Human Resource Development Proceedings, to submit the proceedings with my paper included to the ERIC database. By signing this I am releasing the paper for all authors of the paper.

 Cathy Bolton McCullough (Signature)	Arthur	DATE: 1-3-01
--	--------	--------------

CE08184L
16-2

ACADEMY OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT 2001 CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

Manuscript Release Form

**THIS FORM MUST BE COMPLETED AND RETURNED WITH EACH MANUSCRIPT.
ONLY ONE AUTHOR IS REQUIRED TO SIGN THE FORM**

<u>Paper Title</u>	Considering Core OD Theories from the Theoretical Foundations of HRD and Performance Improvement
<u>Author Names</u>	Thomas J. Chermack
<u>AHRD Reference #</u>	151

Please tell us where to communicate with you about this paper


<u>Contact person</u>	Thomas J. Chermack		
<u>Address</u>	Louisiana State University School of Vocational Education Old Forestry Building, Room 142 Baton Rouge LA 70803 USA		
<u>Office Phone</u>	(225) 334-1874	<u>Office Fax</u>	(225) 334-1875
<u>E-mail</u>	tjcher@aol.com		

We are adding a topical index for the proceedings this year. Please list three key words that describe the primary topics of your paper. Examples might include teams, evaluation, diversity, performance measurement methods, etc. Choose words that will be of the greatest help to your colleagues when they search for research on a topic.

<u>Key word 1</u>	od theory
<u>Key word 2</u>	od in performance improvement
<u>Key word 3</u>	HRD Theory

The Proceedings will be submitted to ERIC after the conference. The Academy requires your signature to include your paper in the Proceedings.

I agree to allow Oscar A. Aliaga, editor of the 2001 Academy of Human Resource Development Proceedings, to submit the proceedings with my paper included to the ERIC database. By signing this I am releasing the paper for all authors of the paper.

 _____ Thomas J. Chermack Signature	_____ DATE 4/28/2001
--	-------------------------

ACADEMY OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT 2001 CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

16-3

Manuscript Release Form

**THIS FORM MUST BE COMPLETED AND RETURNED WITH EACH MANUSCRIPT.
ONLY ONE AUTHOR IS REQUIRED TO SIGN THE FORM**

Paper Title	Organization Development: An Examination of Definitions and Dependent Variables		
Author Names	T. Marshall Egan		
AHRD Reference #	152		
Please tell us where to communicate with you about this paper			
Contact person	T. Marshall Egan		
Address	3224 48 th Avenue South Minneapolis, MN 55406		
Office Phone	(612) 721-5224	Office Fax	same
E-mail	toby.egan@worldnet.att.net		

We are adding a topical index for the proceedings this year. Please list three key words that describe the primary topics of your paper. Example: might include teams, evaluation, diversity, performance measurement methods, etc. Choose words that will be of the greatest help to your colleagues when they search for research on a topic.

Key word 1	Organization Development
Key word 2	Performance Improvement
Key word 3	Action Research

The Proceedings will be submitted to ERIC after the conference. The Academy requires your signature to include your paper in the Proceedings.

I agree to allow Oscar A. Aliaga, editor of the 2001 Academy of Human Resource Development Proceedings, to submit the proceedings with my paper included to the ERIC database. By signing this I am releasing the paper for all authors of the paper.

 T. Marshall Egan	9 JANUARY 2001 DATE
---	------------------------