The attached seminar paper project, by Tania Spofford, entitled Dialogic Organization Development: An approach for Nonprofits Seeking Sustainable Community Change, when completed, is to be submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the University of Wisconsin-Platteville in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Master of Science in Organizational Change Leadership degree, for which 3 credits shall be allowed is hereby:

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DIALOGIC ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT: AN APPROACH FOR NONPROFITS SEEKING SUSTAINABLE COMMUNITY CHANGE

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DIALOGIC ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT: AN APPROACH FOR NONPROFITS SEEKING SUSTAINABLE COMMUNITY CHANGE

A Seminar Paper

Presented to

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By

Tania L. Spofford

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DIALOGIC ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT: AN APPROACH FOR NONPROFITS SEEKING SUSTAINABLE COMMUNITY CHANGE

Tania L. Spofford

Under the Supervision of Dr. Derek Dachelet

Statement of the Problem

Classical diagnostic OD practices continue to dominate in the business world and academic curriculum. This dominance of diagnostic approaches is becoming problematic in that the approaches have an economic rather than a behavioral-science focus, placing them outside what is typically regarded as OD intervention. Furthermore, organizations that struggle to implement social-change initiatives on limited resources are often requested by funders to turn to results-driven, programmatic business models for guidance. However, it has been questioned whether traditional OD approaches are appropriate and effective for a contemporary, grass-roots type of organization working to transform communities.

Methods and Procedures

This paper utilizes a literature review as its method of research. It offers the nonprofit field a consolidated and comprehensive resource for those working with community social change and provides analysis into more recent methods for organization and community development. This research utilizes current literature to highlight the application of OD within nonprofit organizations, and how dialogic OD aligns with nonprofit work through relationship-building, engagement, and dialogue. It also highlights the difficulty in measuring transformational progress for dialogic approaches. The time range for the sources used for the literature study is from 2000 through 2017.

Summary of Results

The practices of dialogic OD are ideally suited for working creatively with the complexity, conflict, and upheaval of today's society. Rooted in the skills of everyday conversation, dialogic practice, on some level, is familiar to everyone. Dialogic OD can help to re-envision organizations, communities, and systems where all people live and work.

A changed human being is often the outcome nonprofit leaders are seeking. However, this product is exceedingly difficult to measure. Without measures of change, it cannot be proven what is being done changes people and in so doing evolves a community and changes the world. Future reviews of existing literature and emergent findings on developing common measures are needed.

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Organization development (OD) has been recognized as a form of change management consulting and a scholarly discipline since the 1940s with Kurt Lewin and his associates (Bushe & Marshak, 2015). OD resulted from various post-World War II thoughts and actions coming together, including action research, planned change, group dynamics, humanistic psychology, participative management, survey research methods and laboratory education (Bushe & Marshak, 2015). By the 1970s, OD certificate and graduate degree programs taught the foundational concepts. Consultants, change agents, and academic leaders experimented with different methods and ideas based on the culture and understanding of the social sciences of those times to develop the discipline of OD. Changes and additions to OD theory and practice continued through the 1980s and into the 2000s. In 2009, Gervase Bushe and Bob Marshak published an article naming and defining two strands of OD practice – diagnostic and dialogic OD – in the *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science* (Bushe & Marshak, 2009). Some of the newer dialogic OD practices – appreciative inquiry, open space, narrative approaches, future search – began from identifying what worked for accomplishing change without any real theory (Bushe & Marshak, 2009).

Nonprofit human services practices and organization development (OD) practices are both founded on planned change based on humanitarian and democratic philosophies regarding individuals as having an inherent value and dignity (Fox, 2013). Both fields draw from shared theoretical foundations including psychology, sociology, learning theory, systems and group dynamics. These shared ideologies present an opportunity to build effectiveness and efficiency of nonprofit organizations (NPOs) at a time when NPOs are under pressure to produce measurable outcomes with diminishing resources in increasingly competitive environments (Fox, 2013). This research is an effort to educate leaders less familiar with OD and dialogic strategies,

and to recognize that fund-seeking nonprofit leaders may prefer the sustainable benefits of using the organic, contextual nature of conversation, collaboration, and relationship-building as the foundation for creating a positive impact on community social issues.

Statement of the Problem

NPOs are grass-roots initiatives organized when people come together around a common passion or mission. Unfortunately, a shared purpose alone does not guarantee social change. NPO leaders who struggle to do the work with limited resources while still passionate about their cause will turn to results-driven, programmatic business models for guidance. Transforming an organization, community, or environment of any size is complex (Bushe, 2013). What ideas will get generated or what new actions people will want to take is unpredictable. There are so many variables influencing each other simultaneously that it is often difficult to know cause-effect relationships until after results are achieved (Bushe, 2013). For example, the rainforest is changing constantly and it is more than the sum of its parts. Animals and plants become extinct, weather patterns change, and people re-route water sources to support agriculture. The complexity of this environment makes it difficult to identify whether re-routing the water supply, changing weather patterns, something else not yet discovered, or a combination of things will directly cause an animal to become extinct, until after several years.

The Cynefin Framework (see Figure 1) is a tool that leaders can use to assess the issues they are facing, sorting them into five contexts defined by the nature of cause-effect relationships (Snowden & Boone, 2007). Using this framework can help leaders make better decisions and avoid potential problems if a leader applies an ineffective management style in a more complex environment. For example, a leader using a traditional command-and-control management style

in a complex domain requiring more emergent practices may not tolerate failure, which is essential to experimentation found in emergent practices.

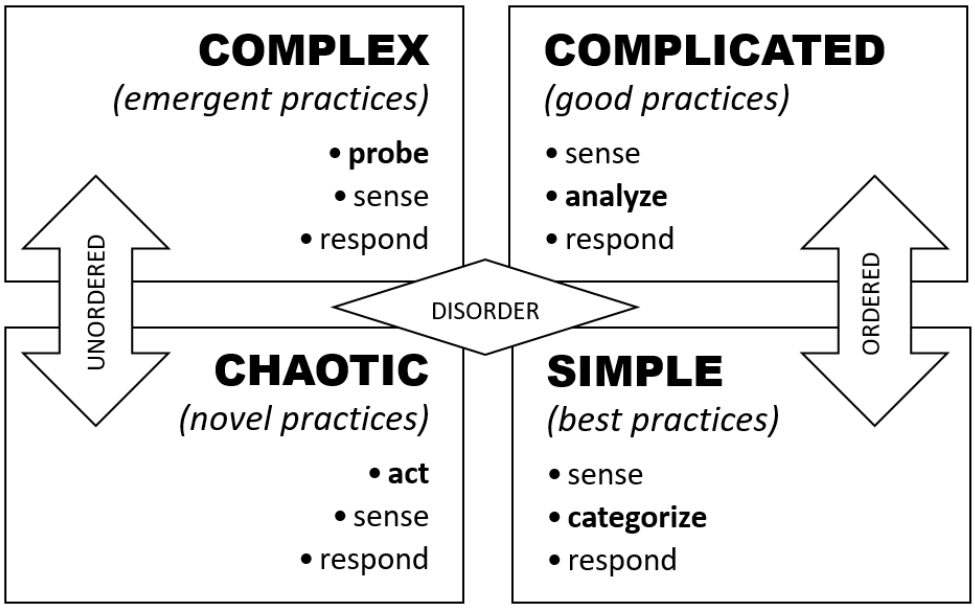

Figure 1. The Cynefin Framework (Snowden & Boone, 2007)

Emergence is nature's way of changing—a way in which increasingly complex order arises from disorder (Holman, 2013). This happens in emergencies after the natural, emotional responses occur. People see what is needed and use their unique assets for new order to arise. In the process of emergence, familiar and comfortable notions about how change works are torn apart, bringing together unlikely connections. By using dialogic practices, one can break through ingrained behavior and develop new relationships for shared purposes. Organizations, communities and social systems are re-imagined and re-created to better serve the population (Holman, 2013).

Traditional or diagnostic OD describes change as a linear, rational, and contained process where concrete and tangible items are referenced (Oswick, 2013). The diagnostic OD mindset is one that involves viewing organizations and communities as systems that work best when all operational system elements are in alignment (Bushe & Marshak, 2015). The current state of the

organization is evaluated and diagnosed against ideal business and operational models by leaders and consultants. Change strategies emphasize valid data, informed choice and commitment, and are a result of a planned and managed process of unfreezing, movement, and refreezing (Bushe & Marshak, 2015). This emphasis on gathering data, defining the problems, and providing logical solutions (Oswick, 2013) contrasts with dialogic OD, which recognizes change as a socially constructed process with multiple interpretations and dialogue for collaboration and understanding (Bryant & Cox, 2013). Dialogic OD engages people in conversations that address issues, evolve systems, and provide personal connection to solving systemic problems (Holman, 2013). This stimulates the emergence of multiple options for new actions which are necessary to address complex issues, and ensures the effective actions get recognized and incorporated into the community (Bushe, 2013).

Traditional, diagnostic OD continues to dominate in the business world and academic curriculum (Oswick, 2013). However, OD practitioners have questioned whether traditional OD approaches are appropriate and effective for contemporary organizations (Bryant & Cox, 2013; Hornstein, 2001; Palmer & Dunford, 2008). The dominance of diagnostic approaches is problematic, primarily due to changes in work practices having an economic focus rather than a behavioral science focus, which places them outside of what is typically regarded as OD intervention (Oswick, 2013). First, organizational leaders engage in the process of restructuring, as in downsizing and outsourcing, to primarily cut cost. Second, although job redesign activities are prevalent they typically are driven by the need to implement new technology or enhance efficiency rather than out of concern for the psychological and social needs of employees – more traditional OD-based activities (Oswick, 2013).

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this research is to demonstrate that dialogic OD can be more effective for grant-funded nonprofit leaders, particularly for those who utilize the sustainable benefits of the organic, contextual nature of conversation, collaboration, and relationship-building as the foundation for creating a positive impact on community social issues. Nonprofit leaders face the challenges of limited resources available for the long-term, sustainable changes they seek in addressing complex community issues. Frequently, nonprofit leaders competing for funding are awarded grants if they can promise to deliver faster, better solutions – often with unsustainable results. According to the Nonprofit Finance Fund (2015):

> 65% of survey respondents said that foundation reporting requirements were commensurate with the grant amount. As we consider the long-term viability of the social sector, we will need to build the systems and follow the practices that will bolster the resilience and adaptability of organizations, and not simply address short-term survival.

For this reason, an additional purpose for this research is to educate financial community investors and funding system leaders less familiar with dialogic OD strategies. For more than 50 years, experiments in organizations, communities, and social systems—like healthcare and education—have shaped dialogic methods for engaging people throughout a system in ways that lead to unexpected results (Holman, 2013). These practices (see Appendix A) include Open Space Technology, Future Search and Appreciative Inquiry, which will be described in further detail.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this research resides within the ability to describe the theories of organizational change and the differences between dialogic and diagnostic organization

development methods. The dominant belief is that better programs, funding, expertise, training and master plans are the way to social change and community transformation (Block, 2009). This approach is about fixing a set of problems or symptoms and is action-oriented and results-minded with measurable outcomes. It is this mindset that often prevents community change. This is a path to improvement but not transformation. Dialogic OD allows for a shift in thinking about the roles traditional strategy and problem-solving take. Taking a dialogic approach to community change involves NPOs moving from a directed, transactional, service-and-provider relationship with the community as client, to a transformational relationship of collaborators, co-producers, and partners growing intentional networks of relationships, changing the conversation (Block, 2009). When issues are complex with stakes and emotions high, dialogic OD can help engage differing perspectives (Holman, 2013). Dialogic OD can help to re-envision organizations, communities, and systems where all people live and work.

The significance of this study also resides in the ability to identify alternative indicators of transformational progress for financial investors to evaluate the quality and effectiveness of dialogic change initiatives. This provides financial investors with a deeper understanding of dialogic approaches when competing, more familiar diagnostic methods are presented as investing options for addressing social issues.

Research Methodology

This paper utilizes a literature review as its method of research. It will provide a specific contribution to the field of nonprofit organization and community development by offering a consolidated and comprehensive resource for the public, community foundations, other funding sources, and those working for community social change. It will provide further analysis into newer perspectives and more recent methods for organization and community development. This

research will utilize current literature to highlight the application of OD within nonprofit organizations, and how dialogic OD aligns with nonprofit work through relationship-building, engagement, and dialogue. It will also highlight the difficulty in measuring transformational progress for the work of NPOs (Rendle, 2014). The time range for the sources used for the literature study is from 2000 through 2017.

Literature Review

Organization Development Theories and Approaches

One of the most difficult and complex issues to overcome in organization development strategies is the dominance of transactional thinking by organizational leaders (Seidman & McCauley, 2011). In transactional thinking, business processes are analyzed and converted into a series of specific steps that can be consistently and easily measured. This leads the organization's staff to focus overwhelmingly on tactical goals, providing detailed lists and strong financial incentives to achieve the desired results. For a leader in this type of organization, all that will typically matter is making the financial goals. For example, transactional leaders become so driven and highly skilled at making numerical goals that frequently they are found filling in for staff as needed to achieve those goals. These intense transactional pressures lead to a narrowing of perspective and skills. This focus reduces the ability of the organization's leaders to adapt to changes in the market or to develop new products or systems.

Theory E versus Theory O

Michael Beer is a professor of administration at Harvard Business School, having taught and researched in the area of organizational change. Beer, along with Nitin Nohria, has identified two theories with respect to organizational change: Theory E—economic value changes, and Theory O—organization capability changes (Beer, 2001; Beer & Nohria, 2000).

Economic-driven strategies (Theory E) focus on direction coming from top leaders of the organization looking for immediate results (Hayes, 2014). Interventions include re-engineering, reorganization, restructuring, and financial incentives. Leaders in support of this theory believe focusing on results is the best way to achieve them, while focusing on anything else is a distraction (Beer, 2001; Beer & Nohria, 2000). A negative impact to this approach is that while immediate improvements in financial performance and shareholder value can be seen, research has shown that a results-driven change strategy does not lead to sustained economic value (Beer, 2001).

At the core of organization development interventions are relationships—relationships of individuals, teams, and the community. Leaders not in favor of Theory E believe this approach will damage employer-employee relations, not only lowering trust and commitment, but leading to a loss of key people (Beer, 2001; Beer & Nohria, 2000). These leaders believe in organization-focused strategies (Theory O) which call for meaningful purpose, a strong culture, bottom-up rather that top-down change, and engagement rather than financial incentives. The belief is that organizational effectiveness will lead to sustainable high performance through coordination and teamwork, commitment and trust, technical and leadership competence, open communications, creativity, and the ability to accept constructive conflict and engage in learning (Beer, 2001).

An organization's capacity to adapt to the complexity of issues it faces is determined by its ability to learn new skills and behaviors. Learning organizations are identified as those that consciously create structures to enhance and maximize knowledge (Avci, 2014). These organizations interact in ways that interpret and give meaning to data and information throughout their process of developing knowledge.

Learning new skills and behaviors isn't limited to those working on the front line. The development of organizational capabilities cannot occur without managers leading the change while learning from the process—learning about inconsistencies between intent and an individual's capabilities, as well as the capabilities of the organization's systems to deliver that intent (Beer, 2001). The behavior of the leader will affect the development of the organization. If a leader believes protecting or controlling knowledge is more valuable than sharing, one can prevent others from learning (Avci, 2014). In contrast, a leader can also reduce negative consequences that would prevent an organization from developing a learning culture. For example, leaders can create an environment enabling people the freedom from being threatened when one makes a mistake. A culture that supports learning is created when leaders have the courage and humility to take responsibility rather than blaming other people or external factors for errors and problems (Collins, 2001). A learning culture lays the groundwork for sustainable organizational success.

Although research supports the effectiveness of organizational-focused strategies, the downside to Theory O is that a mission-focused strategy will not necessarily lead to immediate, significant improvements in economic shareholder value (Beer, 2001). Unfavorable business and economic factors will overshadow improvements in organizational capability, and funders have been encouraging nonprofits to become more self-sufficient financially, promoting earned income as a means to financial stability (Foster & Bradach, 2005). However, commercial ventures can distract nonprofit managers from their social missions, and sometimes the pursuit of profit directly conflicts with the mission.

An example of this is an environmental organization that had a unique database of important environmental statistics. The information helped the NPOs causes, but was expensive

to maintain. Therefore, the organization's leaders decided to start charging users for access. Soon after that, the number of users fell and dissemination of the information was severely cut. What resulted was the organization reducing its environmental impact in an effort to generate revenue (Foster & Bradach, 2005).

Maintaining a balance between transaction (economic-focused) and transformation (mission-focused) is essential to organizational success. Organizational leaders need to find a way to be transformational while optimizing daily transactions. Transformational leadership is about motivating others to make changes to optimize one's own performance (Seidman, 2011). There is significant evidence that thinking and acting in a transformational way, as opposed to a transactional way, is more effective over the long term while also improving transactional performance (Pink, 2009).

One such organization working to maintain this balance is United Way. United Way Worldwide engages people in more than 1,800 communities across more than 40 countries and territories worldwide (United Way Worldwide, 2017). About a decade ago, United Way leaders realized the old business model of funding local organizations was underwriting good causes but not creating lasting community change. Local United Way leaders began a transformation from being solely fundraising charities focused on annual campaign goals to being nonprofit organizations focused on the mission of leading collaborative change within their communities. It is what United Way leaders call collective impact, or the way they mobilize people in communities around an issue (Stewart, 2014). Collective impact is described as bringing diverse partners together to focus attention on achieving results, enlisting everyone in the solution, and aligning resources to reach the identified outcome (United Way Worldwide, 2017). Local United Way leaders work with partners to frame community-wide conversations to identify collective

concerns and aspirations, elevating the critical issues. For United Way, collective impact work is about bringing people from businesses, institutions, and associations together to be part of the solution, whether that is through financial support, advocacy, or volunteering (Stewart, 2014). Collaboration, community engagement, and data are significant to this work. However, diverse stakeholders can struggle to identify priorities and strategies to implement together (Stewart, 2014). Often continued dialogue is what leads to results.

In Milwaukee, Wisconsin, people of the community have come together around the issue of teen pregnancy and have reduced the rate of teen births for girls 15-17 years old by 65% since 2006 (United Way of Greater Milwaukee, 2017). The people of United Way of Greater Milwaukee and Waukesha County engaged leaders of the business community around this issue and were also the catalyst in building partnerships between schools, community organizations, the Milwaukee Health Department, and media leaders. This collaboration resulted in the Healthy Girls project teaching young people how to cope with the social pressure to engage in sexual activity. The project helps them to understand consequences of teen pregnancy (Stewart, 2014, p. 77). A website was also developed through a partnership between United Way, the Medical College of Wisconsin, and Children's Hospital of Wisconsin. This website, Baby Can Wait (http://www.unitedwaymilwaukee.org/display/router.aspx), includes youth-focused, age-appropriate content on preventing pregnancy and promoting healthy relationships. It is also medically accurate (Stewart, 2014, p. 77). This community collaboration also led to the revision of the human growth and development curriculum in the public schools and was led by Milwaukee Public Schools, United Way, and community leaders (Stewart, 2014, p. 77). The people of United Way of Greater Milwaukee and Waukesha County provide and leverage funding to impact this area through the Teen Pregnancy Prevention Collaborative Fund and the

Healthy Youth Initiative. The focused, cumulative efforts of everyone at the table are leading to measurable results (Stewart, 2013, p. 76).

Transformational leaders are passionate about their work, love what they do, and usually have an unspoken commitment to a greater social good (Seidman, 2011). Being passionate about the social good they are creating is a transformational attitude that others focused on only financial success do not possess. This causes transformational leaders to be more committed and efficient than others at driving toward social goals. In other words, transformational leaders can inspire a vision to align with short-term performance-improvement goals (Seidman, 2011).

Diagnostic Versus Dialogic Organization Development (OD)

Traditional or diagnostic OD emphasizes gathering valid data, revealing clearly defined problems and providing logical solutions (interventions). Diagnostic OD is described as a rational, linear, contained process where everyone involved knows one's place and the goals are relatively concrete and tangible (Oswick, 2013). The diagnostic OD mindset is one that involves viewing organizations as systems that work best when all operational system elements are in alignment (Bushe & Marshak, 2015). The current state of the organization is evaluated and diagnosed against ideal business and operational models by leaders and consultants. Change strategies emphasize valid data, informed choice and commitment, and are a result of a planned and managed process of unfreezing, movement, and refreezing (Bushe & Marshak, 2015).

Over the past couple of decades, social constructivist perspectives on change management have gained considerable traction, and have signaled a general movement from a more concrete, tangible form of change activity toward a more abstract, intangible one (Marshak & Grant, 2008; Oswick, 2013; Shaw, 2002; Woodman, 2008). This movement has been focused on the changing nature of relationships and on developing and refining dialogic approaches to

intervention (Bryant & Cox, 2013). Classical forms of OD focus on problems and causes in a retrospective way. This newer, dialogic OD is more projective in nature with a focus on the future from the perspective of the present.

Dialogic OD emphasizes change as a socially constructed process where multiple interpretations and dialogue for intervening and understanding are recognized (Bryant & Cox, 2013). This parallels the linguistic turn the social sciences have taken since the 1980s as conversation and language have become central concepts in understanding and creating social reality (Marshak & Grant, 2011). Whether shifting attention from problem-based orientations to more positive ones, changing the topics of dialogue, or bringing different voices into the room, change is produced in and through conversations. The most powerful may be that which occurs at the level of everyday conversation, because this communication is the primary vehicle available to managers for effecting change. The conversations change managers and recipients have with each other create vision, possibility, and opportunity. These conversations for and about the change initiatives engage and mobilize people as well as reveal problems or breakdowns in the transformational process (Ford & Ford, 2008).

Another difference between diagnostic and dialogic OD is the shift of organizational power and control from top-down to bottom-up among employees and managers. Traditionally, the process and management of change has been led by managers and consultants with employees and subordinates as the recipients of the change initiative. Dialogic OD is less about the downward processes of instigating and implementing planned change and has more to do with facilitating and accommodating upward processes of changes (Oswick, 2013). Dialogic OD is not employee participation or employee involvement directed by management, but control over the process of change being handed over to the employees. These bottom-up forms of OD

represent a challenge to traditional models of hierarchical power and have not taken a strong hold in organizations. Managers like to be in control and handing over control can be psychologically threatening. However, bottom-up approaches are beginning to emerge and should be viewed as a form of power-sharing rather than a relinquishing of power. Examples include upward dissent and constructive deviance (Oswick, 2013).

Upward dissent is the expression of disagreement with and to management and supervisors (Kassing, 2002). Employees will direct their dissent to coworkers, friends or family outside the organization when their assessment of the organization indicates the likelihood of being perceived as adversarial is great (Kassing, 2002). However, those who are able to dissent to management have higher quality relationships with their supervisors and identify more highly with their organization than employees who do not (Kassing, 2002).

Deviance is described as behavioral departures from what is considered normal for a typical reference group (Warren, 2003). Constructive deviance is behavior outside the norm that benefits the organization or larger society, like a whistle-blower coming forward just prior to certain organizational failure or societal disaster. An example of this is a pharmaceutical researcher expressing concerns about the dangerous side effects of a new drug before it is sold to the public, thereby avoiding serious consequences for the organization and society (Warren, 2003).

All change begins with disturbing the status quo. It may be a positive experience or a dreaded one. Any disruption can lead to change. Emergence is nature's way of changing—a way in which increasingly complex order arises from disorder. This happens in emergencies after the natural, emotional responses occur. People see what is needed and use their unique assets for new order to arise. This pattern of change flows as follows: (1) Disruption interferes with the

status quo, (2) the system differentiates, surfacing innovations and distinctions among its parts, and (3) as different parts interact, a new, more complex coherence arises (Holman, 2013). Something fundamental changes about who one is, what one does, and how people interact with one another as more people engage in the natural order of emergence. In the process of emergence, familiar and comfortable notions about how change works is torn apart, bringing together unlikely connections. Organizations, communities and social systems are re-imagined and re-created to better serve the population (Holman, 2013).

Dialogic practices help develop a positive relationship with disruption because they offer a way to help meet it head-on. Through dialogic OD, change managers become hosts for welcoming who and what needs to interact to make a positive difference. The role of the dialogic practitioner is not to intervene, but instead to create a space of hospitality where people can work through whatever arises. Three key actions create this space, also known as a container, for engaging with conflict and complexity: (1) asking possibility-oriented questions, (2) inviting diversity, and (3) being welcoming (Holman, 2013).

One can define the disruption in dialogic OD as generative images: ideas, phrases, objects, pictures, manifestos, stories, or new words with two abilities: (1) to reveal new alternatives for decisions and actions and (2) to effect change through people's desire to try something new (Bushe, 2013). Generative images tend to be ambiguous and sometimes combine what seem like opposites. The most powerful ones change the core narratives in the community—disrupting the pattern of the status quo by altering the way one thinks and by motivating new decisions and actions (Bushe, 2013).

Application of OD Within Nonprofit Organizations

At the core of organization development strategies is the emphasis on the importance of a shared purpose, a strong culture, bottom-up change, and engagement in the process as the motivator for change rather than financial incentives (Hayes, 2014). To a certain extent, OD is an established field of inquiry that is more inward-looking (Oswick, 2013). Organizing takes place in a variety of settings, not only within organizations. Considering OD not only as the development of organizations, but the development of organizing, the OD strategies become ways for improving and enhancing organizing processes rather than the organization. This moves the application of OD initiatives to non-organizational settings and community development. Nonprofit organizations frequently use organization development strategies to deliver on their mission to influence change in a community.

Nonprofit Organizational Model

Most business models take a hierarchical approach to organization design with the CEO at the top and department heads falling in line underneath. C. Terrill Thompson (2011) created the Nonprofit Organizational Model to better analyze the unique nonprofit system. Rather than a hierarchical approach, this model places the organization's mission and programs at the center (Thomson, 2011). Mission is at the top center of the model. It is why the organization exists and what is used in recruitment and motivation of staff, volunteers, board members, and donors. Programs are also central to a nonprofit and are closely aligned with the mission, hence the reason programming is positioned in the center directly below mission (Thompson, 2011).

Staff and volunteers are involved with NPOs because of both the programming and mission. The aspects supporting mission and programs, as well as each other, are identified in a surrounding circle and connected back to the center—infrastructure, marketing and image,

community relationships, leadership, technology, and funding. These aspects are embedded within a nonprofit organization's culture, affecting and being affected by the external environment (Thompson, 2011). Infrastructure defines how the organization is ordered. It also defines the staff's roles, responsibilities, and authority. Marketing and image include both formal and informal aspects of advertising, image, and message. Leadership is more than the board and executive leaders, it also includes volunteers and paid staff. Community relationships refer to partnerships and accountability—how organizational leaders answer to funders, partners, and other community members. In today's technological world, it is impossible for an organization to operate without utilizing technology, even though the nonprofit sector often lags for-profit businesses technologically. Finally, funding is a central element of a nonprofit organization and is often a limiting factor in its ability to expand programming and further its mission. Diverse funding streams are essential to the health of a nonprofit organization (Thompson, 2011).

Throughout the model is organizational culture and cultural competence. Culture includes informal communication, personal relationships, traditions, and shared informal, and often unspoken, values and beliefs. Organizational culture is typically the core of an organization development project. Outside of the organization and its culture is the environment. This is everything that impacts the organization that is not part of the organization (Thompson, 2011).

Thompson's Nonprofit Organizational Model can be used in strategic planning as a checklist to ensure that all the important aspects of a nonprofit organization are included during an assessment. When assessing, it is important to review every area within the model and then identify the areas of greatest importance to focus on. In most organizations, a few areas will surface as the most important to address, however they are frequently symptoms of deeper issues. For example, lack of funding is one of the most common concerns for nonprofit

organizations. The symptom-level response would be to identify more funding sources—potential grants, new donors, etc. However, a deficit in funding is almost always the symptom of a different issue or combination of issues that would be uncovered through applying organization development approaches (Thompson, 2011).

Using Dialogic OD in Nonprofit Work

As mentioned previously, a shared purpose alone does not guarantee social change. Organizations that struggle to do the work with limited resources while still passionate about their cause often turn to results-driven, programmatic business models for guidance. The dominant belief is that better programs, funding, expertise, training and master plans are the way to social change and community transformation (Block, 2009). This approach is about fixing a set of problems or symptoms and is action-oriented and results-minded with measurable outcomes. It is this mindset that often prevents community change. This is a path to improvement but not transformation. Dialogic OD allows for a shift in thinking about the roles traditional strategy and problem-solving take. Taking a dialogic approach to community change involves NPOs moving from a directed, transactional, service-and-provider relationship with the community as client, to a transformational relationship of collaborators, co-producers, and partners growing intentional networks of relationships, changing the conversation (Block, 2009).

Transforming communities is grounded in altering the nature of relatedness, context and resulting conversations. Traditional problem-solving techniques are postponed until context, relatedness and language have shifted (Block, 2009). Talk is a form of action, although traditional approaches to action plans call for a strategy, a list of next steps and knowing who will be responsible. The importance of using conversations to socially construct a new reality and frame experiences is the action plan in dialogic OD approaches (Marshak & Grant, 2011).

This is in opposition to conversations simply used to convey objective information. All conversations can be used to create new possibilities. Dialogic OD practitioners pay attention to how narratives are reinforced in community conversations and then seek to intentionally introduce new narratives to alter those conversations. This could be done by changing the types of questions asked or introducing interventions that will create new discussions (Marshak & Grant, 2011).

Common Types of Dialogic OD Methods

Change is happening all the time. Transformation results when there are significant shifts in language, conversations, and communication patterns encouraging or allowing new possibilities. The complexity of issues and unpredictability of what will happen when a diverse group of people is involved means that applying pre-existing knowledge to identify and implement change is unlikely to be successful. This is the difference between technical and adaptive challenges (Bushe & Marshak, 2015). Technical challenges can be defined and respond to operational fixes. Adaptive challenges are complex and confusing, generally producing differing opinions on how to define a problem, and at times whether the problem even exists. Dialogic OD practitioners involve participants in becoming more aware of the stories and patterns of dialogue and communication that are embedded in the culture, creating and re-creating the way things are (Bushe & Marshak, 2015).

Open Space Technology

Open Space Technology (OST) was developed by Harrison Owen in the 1990s. OST resides in four organizing ideas: meeting in the round, cycles of working issues, organizing around different interests, and the bulletin board—public posting of who is meeting where about what (Shaw, 2002). A question is proposed as the key task of an OST event. Participants join the

event based on their interest in the question announced. Once there, they have the opportunity to articulate to the group issues and topics of concern related to the theme of the event. Participants self-elect to lead a small working group of others responding or wanting to further explore the topic. Several topics are typically identified and logged on a large board indicating meeting times and places over the period of the event. Participants organize themselves around these topics, revisiting and reorganizing the board as interest and capacity to contribute evolves throughout the day. The output of each work group is recorded and pinned up, collated into collective output at the end of the event.

Joining work groups and self-selecting according to strengths, interests and capacity to contribute is a collective inquiry process. In OST, people self-organize to identify, lead and contribute to issues of concern to them in whatever way they want, resulting in proposals and agreements to take further action beyond the event. The descriptive principles of OST communicated at the beginning of the event help create the mindset of openness and flexibility: (1) whoever turns up are the right people, (2) wherever it happens is the right place, (3) whatever happens is the only thing that could have, (4) whenever it starts is the right time, and (5) when it's over it's over (Thakadipuram & Stevenson, 2013). For OST to work, it must focus on a widely recognized community (or business) issue that is of passionate concern to those who will be involved (Shaw, 2002). What seems to identify the OST event as successful is that action plans make sense to those who developed them and are motivated to pursue them.

Future Search

When conditions are right, humans have unlimited creativity. Behavior becomes habitual when conditions don't allow for creativity (Janoff, 2016). One of the goals of Future Search is to create the conditions where humans have the opportunity to think and act creatively (Janoff,

2016). Three key elements for creative conditions are time, space, and permission. When time is compressed, people rarely make new discoveries. They share what they already know and hear what they are comfortable hearing. When space lacks light and fresh air, people lose energy. If they are expected to deliver certain outcomes or are afraid of being judged, innovative ideas are held back. The ideal Future Search environment pushes against theses habits.

Future Search is a container into which a diverse, cross-section of people shares their experiences of the past, present, and hoped-for future. A true cross-section of the population is in the room: those with authority, resources, expertise, information, and need. There is more diversity and less hierarchy than usual in planning meetings. People will find themselves in conflict over differences. They have a choice, to continue discussing conflicts that cannot be resolved at that time or to focus on the future. Going into the unknown future is difficult and requires courage. In Future Search, no one does it alone. Before acting, the group explores all perceptions, thinking globally before acting locally. This enables each person to talk about the same world (Janoff, 2013).

Dialogue is the main tool, not problem solving. Self-management and responsibility for action are understood. This means stepping up and taking responsibility for action while helping each other accomplish tasks. Finally, the focus is on common ground and the future, not past problems and conflicts. Problems and conflicts are part of the history and essential information, but not action items. That means honoring differences rather than reconciling them, while identifying shared values and joint action steps for future collaboration (Janoff, 2016).

Appreciative Inquiry

Dialogic OD can use an inquiry and discovery process to understand the context of a situation. This can look very similar to a diagnostic process, however, in dialogic OD, the

engagement itself and what emerges is different. The intent is not to identify problems or what needs fixing. Rather the intent is to increase appreciation of the variety of perspectives and complexity of patterns of relating. What may emerge are multiple narratives possibly leading to greater insight into what can be changed (Bushe & Marshak, 2015).

Processes of inquiry can disrupt the status quo and create new awareness, new knowledge, and new narratives that can potentially lead to transformation (Bushe & Marshak, 2015). There are multiple types of inquiry that can be applied; however, it is important to be intentional about which inquiry type is needed at the time to best achieve the desired goal. Also important is framing these different types of inquiry—information, affirmative, critical, generative or strategic—from an appreciative perspective.

There are two points to understanding Appreciative Inquiry (AI) at a fundamental level. First, people move in the direction of what they study. Second, AI makes a conscious choice to study a group's positive core, the best of the organization or community. AI works through a method labeled the 4-D Cycle: Discovery, Dream, Design, and Destiny (Cooperrider, Whitey & Stavros, 2008).

First, as part of the Discovery process, participants engage in dialogue about what ideals to aspire to. As conversation ensues, consensus begins to emerge where individual appreciation becomes collective appreciation and evolves into a shared vision for the organization or community. What makes AI different from other OD methods at this phase is that every question is from a positive point of view. Second, after discovering what is valued as the best, the mind naturally begins to envision new possibilities. The Dream step uses the stories from Discovery to identify key themes. Third, participants Design the future where the exceptional becomes ordinary. It is more than a vision. It is an inspiring statement of intention grounded in realities of

what has worked well in the past combined with new ideas for the future. Fourth, Design moves the organization or community to its Destiny through innovation and action. Because the ideals are grounded in realities, the group is empowered to make things happen (Cooperrider et al., 2008). It is through this juxtaposition of visionary content paired with grounded examples, that AI shifts the status quo to transformation by means of collective action.

Communities of Practice

When people engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavor, it forms a community of practice (Wenger & Snyder, 2015). Individuals learn in relation to the people with whom they engage, and it is important to recognize a community of practice learns as a group because it is a group (Bushe & Marshak, 2015). People are more inclined to change behavior if they are committed and loyal to a group of people holding them accountable for carrying out new actions (Bushe & Marshak, 2015).

A community of practice may or may not have an agenda on a given week or it may not follow the agenda closely. People in communities of practice share their experiences and knowledge in free-flowing, creative ways that foster new approaches to problems. The community's intangible output is knowledge. Communities of practice help drive strategy, start new lines of business, solve problems quickly, transfer best practices, and develop professional skills (Wenger & Snyder, 2015).

The purpose of a community of practice is to develop members' capabilities to build and exchange knowledge. Members select themselves and passion, commitment, and identification with the group's expertise keep the group together. The community remains together as long as there is interest. The strength of a community of practice is self-perpetuating. As knowledge is generated between the members, it reinforces and renews the community.

Communities are fundamentally informal and self-organizing, and are vulnerable because they lack legitimacy and budgets of established groups. Therefore, to reach their full potential, they need to be integrated into an organization and supported in specific ways (Wenger & Snyder, 2015). One way to strengthen a community of practice is to provide it with sponsors and support teams. These sponsors and teams do not design the community nor rule over the activities or outcomes. Instead, they provide resources and coordination as necessary to navigate around obstacles.

Indicators of Transformational Progress

Change is a human process, not a mechanical or financial one, and data directs action. Numbers tend to validate our actions and decisions. However, numbers do little to help us read emotions or understand the behavior of others (Rendle, 2014). Effective change management, whether organizational or community-wide, requires a systemic approach that is a joint optimization of work and human systems that may require investments of time and money up front. Collecting data to prove transformation is taking place requires the focus on numbers and on people to be balanced (Hornstein, 2001).

Difficulties of Measurement

A changed human being is often the outcome nonprofit leaders are seeking. However, this product is exceedingly difficult to measure. Without measures of change, it cannot be proven what is being done changes people and in so doing changes the world (Rendle, 2014). It is as though activities are being done and resources are being spent without any purpose. Program leaders need to be able to move beyond counting to measuring progress.

Data is structured records of transactions to be used for some other purpose. It results from counting activities and resources. Information is using data to create a message meant to

change the way one perceives something, having an impact on judgement and behavior (Rendle, 2014). Achieving knowledge—taking data and information to provide a framework for evaluating and incorporating new information and experiences—requires intentional work to understand how the data should direct judgement and behavior (Rendle, 2014). Taking the altruistic approach of NPOs into consideration and viewing making a difference as the goal, there first needs to be a way to give leaders the tools to measure an outcome such as this, as well as to outline the steps to achieve the outcome. Without proper tools, leaders will continue to be evaluated on conventional activities as opposed to outcomes.

An outcome is the transformation believed to be made over a period of time. One of the most difficult issues in measuring outcomes is moving beyond the quantifiable numbers to the qualitative measures of information that reveal transformation is taking place. When the balance is shifted too far toward measuring significant changes in quantifiable outcomes, one can miss important parts of the project. This ultimately hinders the ability to understand the complexity of systemic change and comprehensive community initiatives led by NPOs (W.K. Kellogg Foundation evaluation, 2004).

New metrics require creativity and inventiveness to build new tools and new conversations that measure progress toward desired outcomes (Rendle, 2014). It is not a critical question of how much money is made or raised, but a critical question of how effectively the mission is delivered and how distinctive the impact is relative to available resources. It is not whether one can quantify results, but that leaders intentionally assemble evidence to track progress toward the identified outcomes (Rendle, 2014). This requires the desired result to be as fully and deeply described as possible. Once fully described, evidence can be collected and measurements can be identified.

Logic Models

A logic model (see Figure 2) is a diagrammatic representation that articulates goals and values in support of a given program or initiative, showing what the initiative is meant to do, with whom, and why. The model generally includes a target group, resources needed, activities or steps required to achieve the outcomes, short-term and long-term goals, outcomes, and finally the desired impact the initiative is intended to achieve (Rendle, 2014).

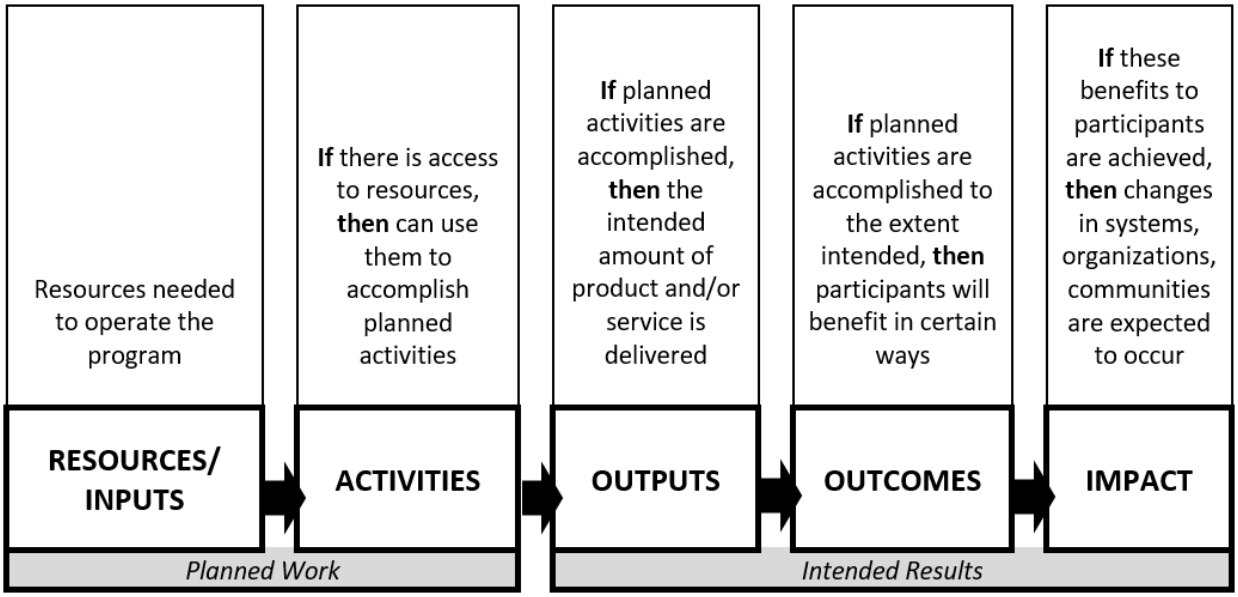

Figure 2. Development of a simple logic model (adapted from W. K Kellog Foundation, 2004)

To communicate a program visually, a logic model provides a common language and reference point for everyone involved in the initiative. This tool is useful for planning, implementing and evaluating, assisting stakeholders to agree on short-term and long-term objectives, activities, and the establishment of clear criteria for evaluation. The logic model also provides a framework for assessing overall effectiveness and resources used toward achieving the outcome, when the initiative ends (Milstein & Chapel, n.d.).

A good, quality logic model usually: links activities and effects in a logical way, is visually engaging (simple yet containing an appropriate degree of detail for the purpose),

provokes thought and questions, and includes influencers to desired outcomes. The more complete the model, the better the chances of achieving the outcomes. To tell a complete story, it is necessary to consider all forces of change (root causes, trends, and system dynamics) and to reveal assumptions about the root causes and feedback loops that contribute to problems and their solutions (Milstein & Chapel, n.d.).

Like programs, logic models change over time. As a program develops, the logic model adapts and can be considered as a view into a program at one point in time. A logic model is a working draft that can be refined as the program develops (W.K. Kellogg evaluation, 2004). Continuous conversations and dialogue help keep stakeholders engaged in the process. Creating open environments where different perspectives are valued will encourage reflection on which questions are not being addressed and why. This dialogue leads to learning and adapting the program to better achieve the desired outcomes. If progress is being made, then efforts will continue. If there is little evidence of progress, the logic model can be used as a tool to focus the conversation to ask what more must be learned or what else should be tried (Rendle, 2014).

Apgar Scores and Likert Scales

These measurement tools are two examples designed for use in conversations assessing progress toward unique and specific outcomes (Rendle, 2014). They are intended to help identify if one has moved closer to reaching a goal. These measures are less about success or failure and are more critical for learning and discerning conversations among leaders.

Simple and immediate measures can sometimes offer the needed focus to give more attention to something right away, or a quick assessment of whether one is headed in the right direction. An Apgar score is a simple two-point system using five indicators to produce a score of zero to 10. It can be easily adapted to any situation by identifying which key indicators relate

directly to the outcomes sought. A score of six or less would suggest the group should have a discussion on what activities to adjust (Rendle, 2014).

A Likert scale is a little different. It measures knowledge, abilities, attitudes or personality traits through a survey-style scaled response. It allows for capturing variation among criteria and reports on one's own perceptions and judgements. Therefore, it is subject to many distortions and bias. However, its invaluable at capturing direct feedback and revealing perceptions and judgments that allow for conversation and decision-making (Rendle, 2014).

Narrative Results Mapping

Almost every effort at producing change or helping others can be supported with a story of how the project succeeded. Nonprofit leaders often use stories to talk about their work. This is nonquantifiable evidence of success that is often not able to be verified and is most commonly told from the observer's position. The risk in this is that stories are commonly a collection of incorrect narratives shared for the wrong reasons (Rendle, 2014). Often these stories are told for persuasive purposes. The intention is to invite people to get involved in some way, to invite them to believe in the importance of the project, and often to solicit resources to keep the project going. The success stories collected may or may not be a direct result of the effort toward the intended outcome. Additionally, the story is typically about the people involved, not about the process or strategy used to try and make a difference, the real nugget of learning and results. (Rendle, 2014). This anecdotal evidence, therefore, is best used to establish need and engage people in the work. It is not for measuring progress or results of change. Funders can often be suspicious of anecdotal evidence because it does not measure effectiveness nor show future development toward effectiveness.

However, stories can have the capacity to sharpen focus and reveal things in different ways. This is the root of Results Mapping developed by Dr. Barry Kibel (Penna & Phillips, 2004). Results mapping is an evaluative tool using stories to capture the information found within the anecdotal evidence. Kibel assumed stories contained what was being done right if the story could be traced from the first interaction between the program and the participant. Each step from there could be reviewed for program effectiveness. A top story could be reviewed to identify specific client connections, discover patterns, and trace the steps for evidence of progress toward the outcome and for information that could improve efforts. Results mapping can be an effective tracking device. However, attention to the correct stories is important. Top stories used for measuring progress do not focus on the people, but instead focus on the process of the strategies being implemented. The question to be asked is whether there is evidence in the story that shows a strategy or action which can or cannot move people in ways the project is trying to influence. A review of connections between people and actions can confirm what works well and what is needed to be reviewed and changed in the approach being taken (Rendle, 2014).

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

Organization development (OD) is rooted in the behavioral approach of reorganizing systems to be more effective or out of concern for the psychological and social needs of participants (Oswick, 2013). Classic OD practices are more focused on diagnostic approaches emphasizing data-based change. These diagnostic OD practices continue to dominate in the business world and academic curriculum (Bryant & Cox, 2013; Oswick, 2013). This is becoming problematic in that diagnostic OD practices often have an economic rather than a behavioral-science focus, which places them outside what is typically regarded as OD intervention (Oswick, 2013). Furthermore, organizations that struggle to implement social and behavioral-change

initiatives on limited resources are often requested by funders to turn to results-driven, programmatic business models for guidance (Foster & Bradach, 2005). However, it has been questioned whether classical, diagnostic OD approaches are appropriate and effective for a contemporary, grass-roots type of organization working to transform communities (Bryant & Cox, 2013). These organizations, often not-for-profit, are focused on humanistic values instead of business interests.

Dialogic OD is ideally suited to help address the changing conditions of social systems (Bushe & Marshak, 2015). Rooted in the skills of everyday conversation, dialogic practices are well-known. Welcoming differing perspectives creates opportunities for individual expression and connection, and for reflecting together to find meaning and coherence (Holman, 2013). Participants feel more courageous and inspired with a greater sense of direction and hope. They gain the energy and will to work across diverse boundaries. Change does not come from a project as much as it comes from talking and thinking differently within the context of developing and implementing the project (Bushe, 2013; Bushe & Marshak, 2015). Dialogic OD offers a path to face challenges that previously felt hopeless to overcome. It breaks the traditional thinking about the change process being linear, orderly, top-down and taken one step at a time.

The results of dialogic OD practices are not controlled or easily predicted. They have the potential to be intense and overwhelming, but they allow people with diverse perspectives to engage with one another confident that a more evolved system can emerge (Holman, 2013). Participants feel more courageous and inspired to share differences, resulting in the formation of new and unlikely partnerships. Creative conditions allow for differences that can lead to breakthrough projects and solutions. A shared purpose leads to new, long-term relationships and a community is strengthened.

Dialogic OD events work to build the community and engage the community in discovering new possibilities for decisions and actions. Sometimes these events need to begin with community building to give people the chance to find like-minded others who self-organize around change proposals (Bushe, 2013). The change proposals are then supported with the necessary resources to implement. By working through this self-organizing emergent quality, dialogic OD offers a work-around to the typical obstacles that make controlled, orderly change difficult. It side-steps the problems of resistance to change and the unintended consequences of implementing controlled solutions in an uncontrollable environment (Holman, 2013).

A changed human being is often the outcome nonprofit leaders are seeking. However, this product is exceedingly difficult to measure (Rendle, 2014). Without measures of change, it cannot be proven what is being done changes people and in so doing evolves a community and changes the world. It is as though activities are being done and resources are being spent without any purpose (Rendle, 2014). It is difficult to measure unknown, unpredictable results and the return on investment that so many funders of nonprofits require. Program leaders need to be able to move beyond counting and find ways to measure progress. This research broached a few ways to look differently at measuring and suggested finding a balance between quantifiable and qualifiable measures (Hornstein, 2001; Penna & Phillips, 2004; Rendle, 2014). Future reviews of existing literature and emergent findings on developing common measures are needed. If one can identify how to do this in a way that satisfies the public, can dialogic OD practices gain the momentum needed to bridge relations, remove the obstacles and conflict over resources, and allow more people the opportunity to make new connections that can lead to innovative solutions for society's most pressing problems? The challenge is to work with seemingly diverse forms of

change—diagnostic and dialogic—and possibly integrate and blend the two to develop better measures of progress.

The practices of dialogic OD are ideally suited for working creatively with the complexity, conflict, and upheaval of today's society (Holman, 2013). Rooted in the skills of everyday conversation, dialogic practice, on some level, is familiar to everyone. When issues are complex with stakes and emotions high, dialogic OD can help engage differing perspectives. Dialogic OD can help to re-envision organizations, communities, and systems where all people live and work. The more dialogic OD can be practiced and taught, the more opportunities there are to change the world for the better.

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Appendix A
Examples of Dialogic Organization Development Methods

Name of Method	Founder
1. Art of Convening	(Neal & Neal)
2. Art of Hosting	(artofhosting.org)
3. Appreciative Inquiry	(Cooperrider)
4. Charrettes	(Lennertz)
5. Community Learning	(Fulton)
6. Complex Responsive Processes	(Stacey, Shaw)
7. Conference Model	(Axelrod)
8. Coordinated Management of Meaning	(Pearce & Cronen)
9. Cycle of Resolution	(Levine)
10. Dynamic Facilitation	(Rough)
11. Engaging Emergence	(Holman)
12. Future Search	(Weisbord)
13. Intergroup Dialogue	(Nagada, Gurin)
14. Moments of Impact	(Ertel & Solomon)
15. Narrative Mediation	(Winslade & Monk)
16. Open Space Technology	(Owen)
17. Organizational Learning Conversations	(Bushe)
18. Participative Design	(M. Emery)
19. PeerSpirit Circles	(Bladwin)
20. Polarity Management	(Johnson)
21. Preferred Futuring	(Lippit)
22. Reflexive Inquiry	(Oliver)
23. REAL model	(Wasserman & Gallegos)
24. Real Time Strategic Change	(Jacobs)
25. Re-Description	(Storch)
26. Search Conference	(Emery)
27. Six Conversations	(Block)
28. SOAR	(Stavros)
29. Social Labs	(Hassan)
30. Solution Focused Dialogue	(Jackson & McKergow)
31. Sustained Dialogue	(Saunders)
32. Syntegration	(Beer)
33. Systemic Sustainability	(Amadeo & Cox)
34. Talking Stick	(pre-industrial)
35. Technology of Participation	(Spencer)
36. Theory U	(Scharmer)
37. Visual Explorer	(Palus & Horth)
38. Whole Scale Change	(Dannemiller)
39. Work Out	(Ashkenas)
40. World Café	(Brown & Isaacs)