

CRITICAL MASS INTERVENTIONS: ACCELERATING & IMPROVING ORGANIZATION CHANGE

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As our complex, technology-driven business environment changes at an ever-increasing pace, so does the need for organizations to be able to meet those changes quickly. Traditional Organizational Development (OD) change interventions are not fast enough to meet the needs of the fast-paced environment. In the last decade, modern critical mass change interventions have become increasingly popular as methods for escalating the speed of change in OD.

Traditionally, change interventions used by OD consultants are based on some form of socio-technical systems (STS) theory. STS, a theory developed out of work in the 1950s by Fred Emery, Eric Trist, and the Tavistock Institute, approaches OD from at least three levels: the outside environment that affects the organization, the technical system (business processes), and the social system (the people side). After all this data is collected, one has a view of the “whole system” (Filipczak, 1995).

Ron Purser, William Pasmore, and others, have questioned the tenets of STS. One of the problems is the rigid method of collecting data. Traditionally, a design committee, consisting of a diagonal slice of members from the organization (representing the “whole system”), collects the data, analyzes it, and makes recommendations. Proponents of critical mass methodology argue that this traditional data collection approach is too slow, as it often takes a year to complete. Additionally, members of the design committee often become insulated from the “real world” around them. The people creating the changes are not always the ones recommending the changes, which causes lack of ownership of both the problems and the suggested adjustments, and therefore hinders the possibility of a completed implementation. Furthermore the whole process drains energy from the change effort and demoralizes participants, as recommended changes are not always implemented. The analysis phase often takes all the energy, and leaves none for the final, crucial step: implementing the change.

In contrast, “there is a new movement in the world of organizational development (OD) to bring together large groups of people to work on a problem. These critical mass events are used to move organizations in a new direction quickly” (Filipczak, 1995, p. 33). These critical mass interventions, also called whole system design, have become increasingly popular in both the business world and in communities. They are called “critical mass,” because they require the

whole system, or at least a minimum percentage, of the part of the organization undergoing change, to be in the room during the intervention event.

This paper will briefly overview the most popular critical mass interventions, then focus on one of the least structured critical mass models, Open Space (Owen, 1998). Then, one of the more structured critical mass models, Future Search (Weisbord & Janoff, 1995), will be reviewed. Finally, some conclusions will be made.

Why Use Critical Mass Models?

Critical mass models have several advantages over the traditional design committee. First, critical mass models gain from the premise that successful implementation is most likely when “the people who do the work are the ones engaged in the redesign of both the technical and social systems” (Levine & Mohr, 1998, p. 305). People tend to support what they create, thus reducing resistance to change (Bunker & Alban, 1997). Second, since critical mass models utilize methods of including the “whole system” in the room to consider change, they are faster and encompass more viewpoints. Third, the diversity of knowledge utilized through such large-scale involvement leads to greater creativity and innovation in both the technical and social system arenas (Bunker & Alban, 1997).

Finally, a benefit that is not recognized enough is that, by participating in the design of the organization’s future, participants begin to evolve necessary attitude, skill, and belief changes concurrently. By structuring critical mass intervention activities to prompt the use of new skills and behaviors, the participants cannot help but be changed by the experience (Levine & Mohr, 1998). Thus, the intervention begins immediately in the meeting, as opposed to the traditional design committee approach of waiting to begin changes until the full assessment process is completed and recommendations made.

What Are Critical Mass Interventions?

Although several variations of the critical mass intervention exist, they all share some common characteristics. The following section outlines some generic characteristics of critical mass interventions.

People to Include

The key premise behind critical mass interventions is to bring the whole system being affected by the change into the room for the meetings. This incorporates all stakeholders in the process, possibly comprising, but not limited to: employees and managers from all affected departments and at all levels, internal and external customers, and community members. While having everyone in the system in the room is ideal, it is not always feasible, especially in large-scale change efforts. A good rule of thumb for minimum participation is to include ten percent of the people undergoing the change (Filipczak, 1995). Whoever participates should represent the system you are changing; in other words, you must include members of all constituencies and stakeholder groups, and attempt to have a representative sample of that population.

Another crucial aspect of participation is that members comprise a common database of information. In other words, all the information needed to make a decision should be in the room. Every viewpoint and area of expertise, from front-line worker to supplier to customer to executive to stockholder, should be present (Filipczak, 1995).

Time Required

A common length of time for critical mass events is three days (Filipczak, 1995). However, some interventions require multiple sessions of three days each. The rule of thumb seems to be to match the time required with the scope and the magnitude of the change needed.

Purposes to be Addressed

Critical mass techniques are not suitable for small changes, because they are rather time-consuming and involve lots of people. Rather, they are for alterations that are large in magnitude and scope, such as to “change business strategies, develop a mission or vision about where the company is headed in the next century, or foster a more participative environment...” (Filipczak, 1995, p. 36). Critical mass interventions are also often used to kick off other popular initiatives that require lots of thought and participation from many people, such as Total Quality Management or teams.

The scope of the changes to be addressed in the critical mass meeting can be from as small as developing a work group mission to as large as attempting to create ways to impact society. One of the attractions of the critical mass meeting is that they can be used for many different purposes, as long as a critical mass and representation of the system to be affected are present.

Task Force to Plan Event

Before the critical mass event, a task force or steering committee from the organization works with one or more consultants to set up the event to ensure maximal probability of success. This committee is responsible for planning the scope and magnitude of the changes to be addressed, the ensuing range of participants to be present, and logistics for the meeting. In this way, critical mass events are very similar to traditional OD efforts.

Alignment

A crucial outcome of effective critical mass interventions is alignment, “the point at which people begin to see how the organization fits together as a whole system” (Filipczak, 1995). In Future Search terminology, this is called finding “common ground” (Weisbord, 1987). When aligned, everyone should pull in the same direction, understand how to best make organizational trade-offs, and appreciate how something that is done in one area affects another area. The end result is speed and improved quality in decision-making for the organization as a whole.

Develop Action Plans

Another significant outcome to an effective critical mass intervention is successful action planning. Action planning is an essential piece, as it is the beginning of real change in the

organization. Since the key decision makers are in the room, no one has to wait for a decision “from above” to implement a plan. Furthermore, since all the information is in the room, there is no need to wait for information from others in the organization before making the decision (Filipczak, 1995). Perhaps most importantly, since members from all parts of the system participate in the events leading to and resulting in action planning, the level of commitment to the action is high. However, like most OD efforts, the actual implementation is left up to members of the system, and may not be reviewed. For action plans to be successful, review and renewal activities must be incorporated.

Implement Change Quickly

Perhaps the most significant outcome of critical mass interventions is that organizations should see results immediately. Within the critical mass meeting, decisions are made, behaviors are changed, and new processes are used. Therefore, participants will never be the same. These same participants, when they return to the workplace, affect the system and change it fundamentally and quickly (Rogers, as cited by Filipczak, 1995).

Variations of Critical Mass Interventions

Many variations on the critical mass intervention theme exist, with the crucial point being to match the intervention to the purpose, number of people involved, and expected outcome. The amount of structure utilized in these techniques for organizing meetings ranges from no structure (Open Space) to a good deal of structure (Future Search). The six most popular critical mass techniques will be covered here: Open Space, large-scale interactive process, real-time strategic change, participative work redesign, Conference Model, and Future Search. After the general overview, more attention will be given to Future Search.

Open Space, created by Harrison Owen, is the least structured event, and is a technique for holding better meetings, not just large-group events. In Open Space meetings, diverse, often conflicted groups of up to 1000 people manage hugely complex issues in minimal amounts of time, with no advance agenda preparation, and little to no overt facilitation (Owen, 1998). Large-scale interactive process, created by Kathleen Dannemiller, is used to implement organization-wide changes, and usually lasts three days. Real-time strategic change grew out of work on the large-scale interactive process, and is also used to implement organization-wide changes. The key difference between large-scale interactive process and real-time strategic change is that real-time strategic change is an approach to work, rather than just an event. The Conference Model is a comprehensive system created by Dick Axelrod that is used to accomplish a top-to-bottom redesign of the organization. It consists of up to four separate two or three day events. Future Search conferences have the goal of finding an ideal future and aiming for it. The recognized experts on future search are Marvin Weisbord and Sandra Janoff, and the event is typically 16 hours over three days. Participative work redesign, created by Fred Emery, emphasizes a democratic approach to job design, and involves a three-day event (Filipczak, 1995). Open Space and Future Search, opposites on the continuum of structure needed to conduct the meetings, will be discussed in further detail in the next sections.

Open Space

Open Space is a way of organizing meetings that “escaped” in 1989 (Owen, 1998). According to Harrison Owen, the person credited with its creation, the ideas behind Open Space have been around as long as humans have existed; he was merely the person who utilized it as a modern meeting management technique.

When Does It Work?

Open Space works with any “situation where there is a real business issue to be solved marked by *high levels of complexity*, in terms of the people needed to solve it, *high levels of conflict* (potential or actual), and there is a *decision time of yesterday*” (Owen, 1998, p. 4). The critical determinant of Open Space success is to avoid control. Attempts to control the meeting seem to destroy the inherent emergent order. The lesson learned here is that control is not only unavailable, but also unnecessary. Allowing self-organization is key to the success of Open Space (Owen, 1998).

How Does It Work?

Open Space meetings generally last from one to three days, depending on the objective to be met, and the depth of the exploration necessary (Dalar Associates, n.d.). During the Open Space meeting, diverse, often conflicted groups of up to 1000 people manage hugely complex issues in minimal amounts of time, with no advance agenda preparation, and little to no overt facilitation (Owen, 1998). The meeting is conducted in self-managed work groups, with intermittent meetings in breakout rooms and in one large room for reporting out from small groups. No tables are allowed; members sit in circles during discussions to facilitate communication. Computers are generally made available for work, as well as flip charts. The participants create the agenda. Since the participants create the meeting agenda, distributed leadership becomes the norm. The role of the facilitator is to “open the space and to hold safe space open” (Dalar Associates, n.d.). Behavior typically seen in meetings includes respect, fruitful conflict leading to better outcomes, and high energy (Owen, 1998).

Typically by the conclusion of a gathering, the following goals are attained. First, all issues of concern to participants are out in the open. Second, issues have been discussed to the extent that anybody cared to do so. Third, a full written record of all discussions is in the hands of all participants. Fourth, all issues are ranked in priority order. Finally, critical “focal issues” have been identified and next step actions identified for their resolution (Owen, 1998). For shorter meetings (e.g., one day only), the first three goals may be the limit for successful attainment.

Why Does It Work?

Open Space has relatively little structure involved in the intervention. However, it seems to work due to the four principles and one law that are utilized in the process. The principles and the law allow individuals to participate in the way most meaningful to them. In reality, individuals do not participate when these principles are not met, even when “forced” to do so.

Since we have no control over the mental aspects of individuals, we cannot prevent them from taking “mental vacations” anyway. Having the law and principles simply removes the guilt.

The first principle is that whoever comes are the right people to get it done. In other words, these are the people who care to do something, so all the “power” and information needed to get it done are in the room, making decisions more valid and more likely to be implemented. Second, “whatever happens is the only thing that could have” (Owen, 1998). This principle focuses participants on the best present they can create, as opposed to fretting over what might have been. Third, “whenever it starts is the right time” (Owen, 1998). Since creativity can not be controlled, there is no need to worry about when it will start. The best thing to do is create the conditions where creativity can occur, then stand back and watch it (eventually) happen. Finally, “when it’s over it’s over” (Owen, 1998). When energy wanes in a session, it is likely that the topic has been discussed as much as it needs to be, and the group needs to move on.

The “law of two feet” is that, if at any time you find yourself in any situation where you are neither learning nor contributing, it is up to you to use your two feet and move to some place more to your liking (Owen, 1998). This “law” pushes responsibility on the individual for the quality of his or her learning.

The principles and law describe why it works, but what is occurring that makes Open Space effective? Owen (1998) believes it is self-organization, a concept that has been garnering more excitement, especially since Meg Wheatley’s “Leadership and the New Science.” Open Space creates the environment for self-organization to emerge.

What are additional uses? In addition to planned interventions, Owen (1998) believes that the principles behind Open Space can be used as an organizational meeting strategy, or even as a way to run the company. In fact, Harrison Owen sees Open Space as a “navigational tool that can enable organizations to sustain success into the next millennium, to become a ‘Millennium Organization’” (Bolton & Peterson, 1996). In order to meet the chaotic and fast paced change that is now the norm, organizations must cultivate and encourage its naturally occurring emergent self-organizational characteristics. Open Space is a means to unleashing that effort.

Future Search

Marvin Weisbord coined the term “Future Search” in his book in 1987. Since then, he and Sandra Janoff have honed and developed the method, though they see the evolution of Future Search as a journey with no end. The goal of Future Search is to build excitement and a shared vision, as well as a sense of common values and purpose, while exploring the past, present, and ideal future. The ideal number of participants for Future Search is 60-70, making sure that the entire system to be considered is adequately represented.

When Does It Work?

Future Search can be employed with any type of organization, including companies and communities (Weisbord & Janoff, 1995). The three generic uses for future search are:

- 1) To “lead stakeholders to create a shared future vision for their organization or community”;
- 2) To “enable all stakeholders to discover shared intentions and take responsibility for their own plans”; and
- 3) To “help people implement a shared vision that already exists” (pp. 3-4).

For Future Search to be successful, some conditions must be met. First, the “whole system” must be in the room, which means members, preferably all members, from all parts of the system that will be changed must be present. The meeting ought to focus on the situation from a global view to gain a clear picture of the context of the circumstances, yet focus on follow up actions that can be controlled by members of the group. Members should focus on common ground and the future, not problems and conflicts. The meeting is administered through self-managed small groups, full attendance is required, and healthy meeting conditions must exist. Future Search events are more likely to be successful if it is a 3-day event, in order to give time for participants to reflect on their actions. Finally, members must take public responsibility for follow-up (Weisbord & Janoff, 1995).

How Does It Work?

Future Search can be seen as “a learning laboratory for ‘getting everybody improving whole systems’” (Weisbord & Janoff, 1995, p. 2). By improving whole systems together, people tend to take more responsibility for himself or herself and for the organization or community as a whole. By establishing an accurate picture of reality and a shared vision of the future, intrinsic tension is created that motivates moving toward the vision (Senge, 1994).

Before a Future Search meeting can take place, some prework is needed. Usually a steering committee works with one or more OD consultants to plan the Future Search meeting, so it can be maximally effective. See Table 1 for an example planning agenda. The basic structure of a Future Search meeting includes the following steps: review the past, explore the present, create ideal future scenarios, identify common ground, and make action plans (Weisbord & Janoff, 1995).

Review the past. Examining the collective past from the perspective of self, company, and society gets everybody participating and creates a bond between the individuals as they remember past successes (Weisbord, 1987). It also gives a sense of where the organization has been so that thinking about the future is easier. Reminding groups of past successes is a good “pat on the back” that can pick up the mood if the group is struggling when thinking about all the progress that is still left to be made (Meeker, 1995).

In this section, participants create a shared history timeline by indicating milestones on long strips of butcher paper, placing milestones in the proper timeframe. Then, in small groups of individuals representing a cross-section of the conference, they discuss trends and patterns, and

prepare a summary for the entire session. This begins the process of creating “common ground” as members get to experience the world through each other’s eyes.

Explore the present. By examining the current situation in an organization, the group has a better sense of where to go next (Weisbord, 1987). This also creates the baseline for the creative tension that motivates individuals to improve (Senge et al., 1994).

In this section, participants review the external trends seen in the “review the past” section, and create mind maps of how these trends affect the organization or community. Mind mapping, a methodology created by Tony Buzan (as cited by Weisbord & Janoff, 1995) in 1976, is a non-linear mechanism that groups can use to share their thoughts about how different topics relate to a central issue. After everyone contributes to the map, individuals “vote” for the trends they consider most important by affixing a colored dot on the paper. An example of a mind map can be seen in Figure 1. The present is revisited when stakeholder groups identify trends important to them, and report to the conference as a whole these important trends and the things they are doing to address them. Finally, each stakeholder group creates a list of “prouds” and “sorries” about what they are doing in relation to the future.

Create ideal future scenarios. In this section, participants work together to create ideal future scenarios, developing the shared vision towards which they can move collectively. Groups put themselves in the future (10 to 20 years later) and present the scenario concretely, as if it were happening now. They include obstacles they encountered along the way. Groups are allowed to present their scenarios in whatever manner they wish (e.g., skits, poetry) (Weisbord & Janoff, 1995).

Identify common ground. Finally, the whole conference, in small groups, identifies common future themes, potential projects, and unresolved differences. Lists from all groups are merged into a master list. Then, the whole conference reviews the list, clarifies, confirms, and sometimes decides not to agree. In the case of disagreement, members recognize who supports what, and they move on. Participants can agree to move forward on items which they have common agreement, or dwell on unresolved differences, which likely have been problems in the past. Due to time pressures, members usually agree to move forward (Weisbord & Janoff, 1995).

Make action plans. The last step of the Future Search is making action plans. In this section, participants make short and long-range plans for implementing their ideal future. They report to the whole conference, and make plans for creating action. Admittedly, “the single most worrisome aspect of planning is implementation” (Weisbord & Janoff, 1995, p.6).

Unfortunately, like many OD interventions, this seems to be the weak link in the Future Search process. In a later section of this paper, the Transition Equation is introduced, which may be a better method for action planning. However, Future Search does have a good track record for actions being implemented, due to the high commitment created during the process.

For complete detail on designing a future search conference, see Future Search (Weisbord & Janoff, 1995). In addition, a network of practioners, including Weisbord and Janoff themselves,

continues to develop Future Search methodology. Their work is posted at <http://www.futuresearch.net>.

Why Does It Work?

Three assumptions are identified as possible reasons for the success of Future Search:

- 1) Change is so rapid that we need more, not less, face-to-face discussion to make intelligent strategic decisions,
- 2) Successful strategies...come from envisioning preferred futures, and
- 3) People will commit to plans they have helped to develop (Weisbord, 1987, p. 285).

While no empirical research supporting these assumptions is known, the assumptions seem plausible. Research should be done in the future.

In addition, Future Search enables people to experience and accept polarities. They help participants bridge barriers of culture, class, age, gender, ethnicity, power, status, and hierarchy *by working as peers on tasks of mutual concern*. The future search process interrupts the tendency to repeat old patterns – railroading, fighting, running away, complaining, blaming, or waiting for others to fix things. And it gives people a chance to express their highest ideals. Instead of trying to change the world or each other, we change the conditions under which people interact. That much we can control and it leads to surprising outcomes (Weisbord & Janoff, 1995, p. 6).

By understanding each perspective, members develop a common ground that allows for better decision making in the future, and for a greater appreciation of the complexity of the situation.

What are the Benefits?

Benefits of the Future Search process include: lower cost, organizational direction, shared hope, integration and focus, and fast implementation of action plans. Each will be described below.

Lower cost. Creating shared vision saves money, because less communication is necessary due to everyone being on the same page with the same overarching vision of the ideal organization (Pelley, 1993). With shared vision, individuals are trusted to do the right thing without always reporting every detail to management or others concerned. This allows individuals to do their jobs with less hassle, “and less hassle means less waste of time and money” (Pelley, p. 63). The Future Search event becomes the basis for this shared vision.

In addition to lowering long-term organizational costs, Future Search is a fairly inexpensive intervention. Unlike traditional methodology, no training, data collection, or diagnoses are required (Weisbord & Janoff, 1995, p.6). The only major costs are the time of the people involved in the meeting, and the planning time needed to make the meeting successful. Long-term benefits far outweigh the costs of conducting the Future Search intervention.

Organizational direction. Future Search provides an organization direction for the future. Weisbord (1987) asserts that this approach is an alternative to the “rain dance” effect that most corporate planners achieve; traditional planning methods made the members feel better, but did little for actual action. The Future Search methodology of combining declares that a future

vision with a current picture of reality generates creative tension that closes the gap between reality and vision (Senge, 1994). This creative tension in turn directs the organization.

Shared hope. The shared vision created in the Future Search creates hope, which “sustains the human spirit in times of uncertainty and adversity” (Addleman, 1994b, p. 4). This hope is to make an impression on society that will last beyond our years, and manifests itself through inspiration and motivation toward the vision. A byproduct of cultivating shared hope is taking personal responsibility, which leads to increased effectiveness in implementation of changes, as well as increased competency of the organization as a whole (Weisbord & Janoff, 1995).

Integration and focus. Integration is a benefit of having shared vision, because previously disjointed groups discover commonalities and the need to cooperate as the shared vision becomes evident (Wilkins, 1989). Shared vision also promotes a sense of focus that keeps the organization from drifting into wasteful activities. The integration developed in the Future Search can be seen in the lasting relationships across key boundaries (Weisbord & Janoff, 1995).

Fast implementation of action plans. Because of all the outcomes listed above, action plans created in Future Search meetings are implemented quickly (Weisbord & Janoff, 1995). Because more people are involved, the process of planning and implementation is much faster (in terms of real time) using Future Search than by using traditional design committee methodology.

Conclusion

Open Space and Future Search, while vastly different in their approaches, are both reliable methods for contemplating and beginning change. The strength of Open Space is its utilization of emergent self-organization, which ensures that participants are discussing what needs to be discussed regarding a particular issue. The strength of Future Search is its structured approach for incorporating multiple perspectives to develop a shared vision of the future. Most importantly, the purpose of the meeting must be matched to the intervention.

The goal of critical mass meetings is to create an environment where members of whole systems come together to develop a shared understanding about the directions in which they want to go. By including the whole system, information and decisions produced are more likely to be valid, more likely to be implemented, and members, having “done it themselves” are more likely to be committed to the decisions. The outcome usually is faster, better implementation of changes.

However, action planning is only the first step in creating change. “Future Search is not a substitute for rational planning procedures. Rather we provide an umbrella for building commitment” (Weisbord & Janoff, 1995, p.3). Therefore, a mechanism for planning is needed as the next step to Future Search. The Transition Equation, a change methodology created by J. Allan McCarthy (1995), appears to be an outstanding, systematic procedure for managing change. Although review of the Transition Equation is beyond the scope of this paper, some examples of the structure it provides to change efforts are included in Figures 2-5. This methodology, in combination with and utilizing critical mass interventions, may be extremely powerful, and should be explored further. In addition, pieces of different variations of critical

mass interventions could be used in concert to provide the best fit to the circumstances. Additional ways to combine methodology should be explored in the future.

While there is no “one best way” for accelerating and improving organizational change, critical mass interventions as a philosophy for change efforts seems more compatible with our current, rapid-paced, business environment than traditional design committee exploratory approaches. Critical mass interventions can be modified, as needed, and more advanced models are sure to come in the future. As consultants and organizational theorists, we must continue to proactively meet and exceed the needs of organizations in the next millenium, and the development of critical mass interventions is a crucial step in the right direction.

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Table 1

Future Search Planning Agenda

- Future search history, theory, principles
- Stakes of people here? Why a conference? Why now?
- Conference Task – Is the focus an organization? Community? Industry? Sector? Region?
- Design overview
- Possible stakeholders? Who has information? Who has stake in outcome? Who do we want to influence?
- Time frames: How far back and forward?
- Review customized design?
- Invitation list (Who and how to reach them?)
- Future scenario (What to include)
- Document/Communicate Outcomes
- Action planning
- Logistics, site, workbooks, etc.

Note. From Future Search: An Action Guide to Finding Common Ground in Organizations & Communities (p. 114), by Marvin R. Weisbord, and Sandra Janoff, 1995, San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers. Copyright 1995 by Marvin R. Weisbord, and Sandra Janoff.

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Example mind map (Weisbord & Janoff, n.d.).

Figure 2. Transition planning worksheet (McCarthy, 1995, p. 90).

Figure 3. Example interrelationship digraph (McCarthy, 1995, p. 113).

Figure 4. Planning synthesis worksheet (McCarthy, 1995, p. 116).

Figure 5. Master plan with schedule of activities (McCarthy, 1995, p. 124).

Figure 1. Example mind map (Weisbord & Janoff, n.d.).

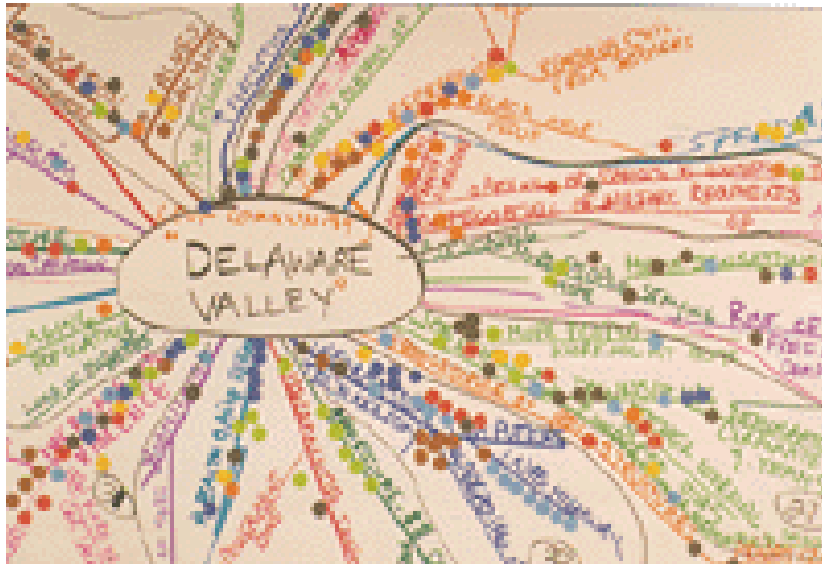


Figure 2. Transition planning worksheet (McCarthy, 1995, p. 90).

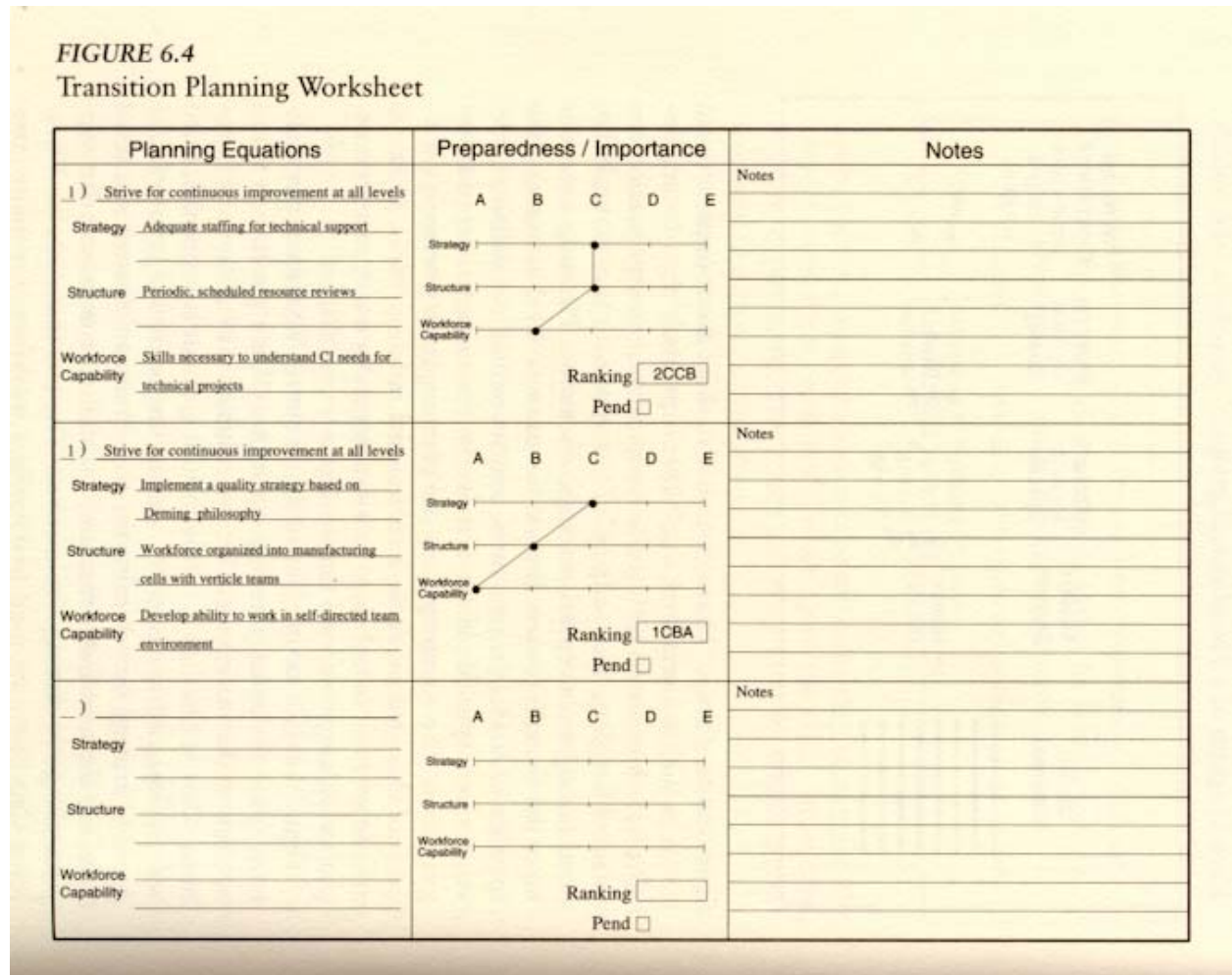


Figure 3. Example interrelationship digraph (McCarthy, 1995, p. 113).

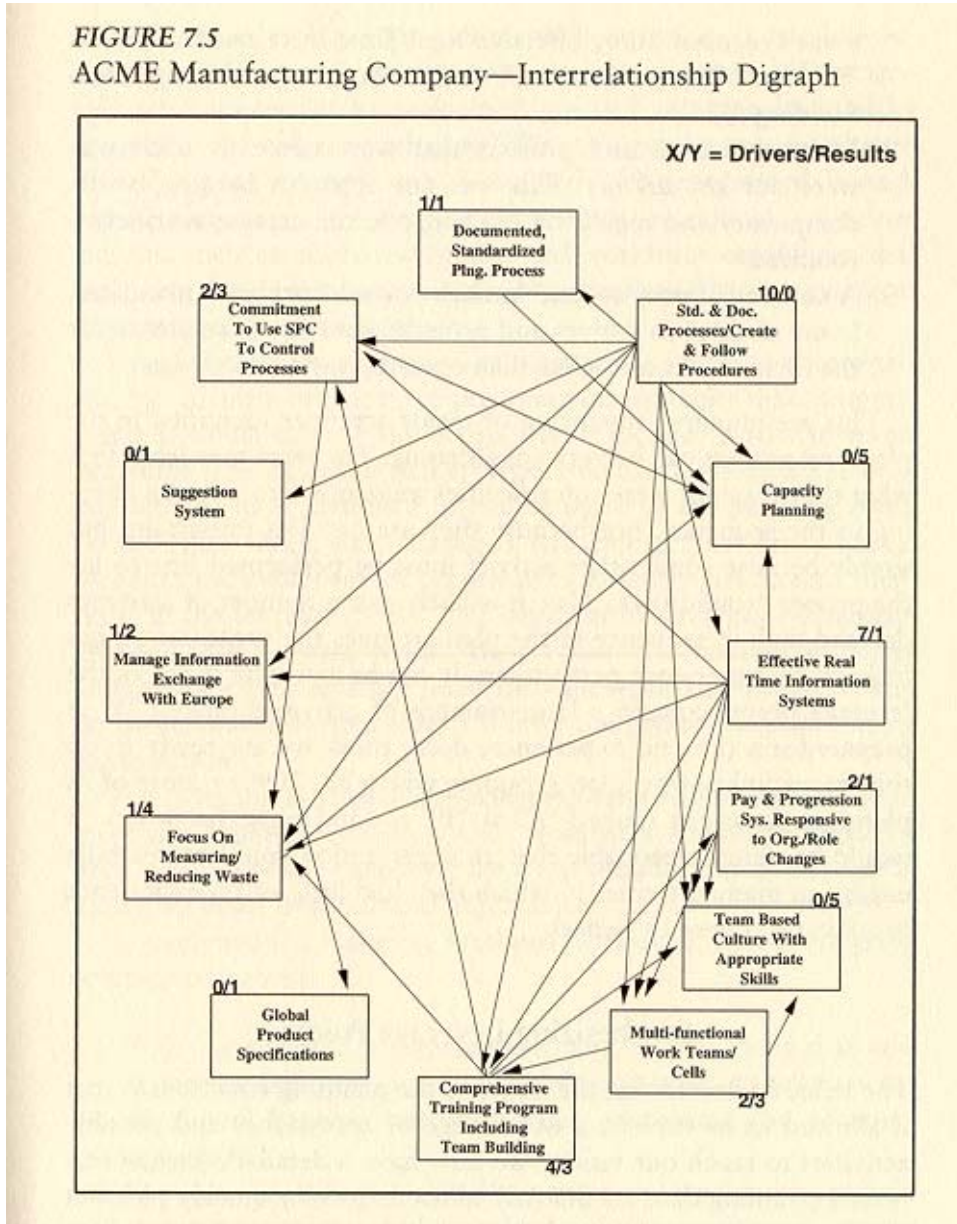


Figure 4. Planning synthesis worksheet (McCarthy, 1995, p. 116).

FIGURE 7.6
Planning Synthesis Worksheet

Leverage Point: _____		
Strategy #1 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	Structure #1 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> Structure #2 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> Structure #3 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	Workforce Capability #1 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> Workforce Capability #2 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> Workforce Capability #3 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>
Strategy #2 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	Structure #1 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> Structure #2 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> Structure #3 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	Workforce Capability #1 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> Workforce Capability #2 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> Workforce Capability #3 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>
Strategy #3 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	Structure #1 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> Structure #2 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> Structure #3 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	Workforce Capability #1 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> Workforce Capability #2 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> Workforce Capability #3 <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>

Figure 5. Master plan with schedule of activities (McCarthy, 1995, p. 124).

FIGURE 7.9
Master Plan with Schedule of Activities

