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The Systemic Change Process:

A Conceptual Framework

Roberto Joseph

Purdue University

Introduction

In this paper I present a conceptual framework of the systemic change process (see Figure 1). The conceptual framework is grounded in the literature on soft systems theory and critical systems theory, and therefore prior to presenting the framework, I will provide a brief overview of the literature on systems theory. The conceptual framework I propose can serve as a lens through which to review important educational change efforts and school change. The framework provides a set of concepts that can be used to think about a systemic change process. It can also be used as a tool to examine the educational change literature.

A Brief Overview of Systems Thinking: A Conceptual Grounding

Laszlo and Laszlo (1997), Jackson (1992) and Banathy (1996) have outlined various stages of the evolution of systems thinking. The first stage in the evolution of systems thinking is known as “*hard systems thinking*”, which is practiced in engineering fields. In this mode of thinking there is an emphasis on the scientific and systematic method of thinking about and solving problems. The second stage in the evolution is known as “*organismic systems thinking*”, which emerged from the general system theory movement that was developed by systems theorists (Bertalanffy, 1956; Boulding, 1956; Rapoport, 1986). Bertalanffy (1956) emphasized that the open system interacts with its surrounding environment, and that a change in the environment would in effect initiate a change in the system. Additionally, a change in the system would initiate a change in the environment. This notion of the open system has greatly influenced the study of all living systems, including large social systems.

The third stage in the evolution of systems thinking was developed due to the weakness in both hard and organismic systems thinking to solve ill-structured, messy problems found in social systems. This evolution of thinking was named “*soft systems thinking*”, and it was developed by Checkland, Ackoff, Churchman and other systems design scholars. Checkland (1993) found that using a hard systems thinking approach to solve complex social problems was neither suitable nor effective. This incompatibility led to his developing a soft systems thinking approach to solving ill-structured social problems. Checkland (1993) characterized the critical difference between ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ systems thinking as follows:

The main difference between ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ approaches is that where the former can start by asking ‘What system has to be engineered to solve this problem?’ or ‘What

system will meet this need?’ and can take the problem or the need as ‘given’; the latter has to allow completely unexpected answers to emerge at later stages. (p. 190)

The fourth stage is a newly emerging branch of soft systems thinking called “*critical systems thinking*” (CST), which was spearheaded by M.C. Jackson, Robert Flood, and Werner Ulrich. Banathy (1996) writes: “It [critical systems thinking] aims to liberate systems theory from the tendency of self imposed insularity, from the delusions of objectivity, and subjectivity, and to emancipate people and groups from domination and subjugation evidenced in social situations” (p. 102). CST emphasizes key areas of commitments: critical awareness, social awareness, human emancipation, complementarism at the methodology level, and complementarism at the theory level (Jackson, 1992).

A change process based on CST strives to empower and develop the critical awareness in a person to analyze the values, assumptions, strengths and weaknesses of the systemic change process he or she is engaged in. Furthermore, it is through critical awareness that a person can compare various systems ideas, methods and theories. A change process based on CST also strives to build a sense of social awareness in a person, so as to enhance their understanding of the culture and climate of the system that will most likely have an affect on the systemic change process. Complementarism at both the methodology and theory level constitutes a respect for and critical use of diverse methods and theories to achieve systemic change. Finally, a systemic change process that is based on CST has a deep commitment to human emancipation. That is, a key aspect of CST and in particular human emancipation is the pursuit of equitable representation, participation and capacity building of stakeholders in all aspects of the change process. In summary, Jackson (1995) writes, CST “takes us beyond fragmentation by supplying

means through which we can be critical in the use of various systems ideas and methods at our disposal” (p. 40).

The Systemic Change Process: A Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of the systemic change process is grounded in and emerges from the soft systems and critical systems thinking ideas that are described in the previous section. In this section I will present a synthesis of the major ideas that have emerged from my own experiences facilitating change in schools, and from a review of the literature, including: (a) the systemic change literature, (b) case studies about educational change efforts, and (c) school change models.

The conceptual framework includes six major aspects that are important for any systemic change process to succeed:

1. broad stakeholder ownership,
2. systems view of education,
3. evolving mindsets about education,
4. understanding the systemic change process,
5. systems design, and
6. learning community

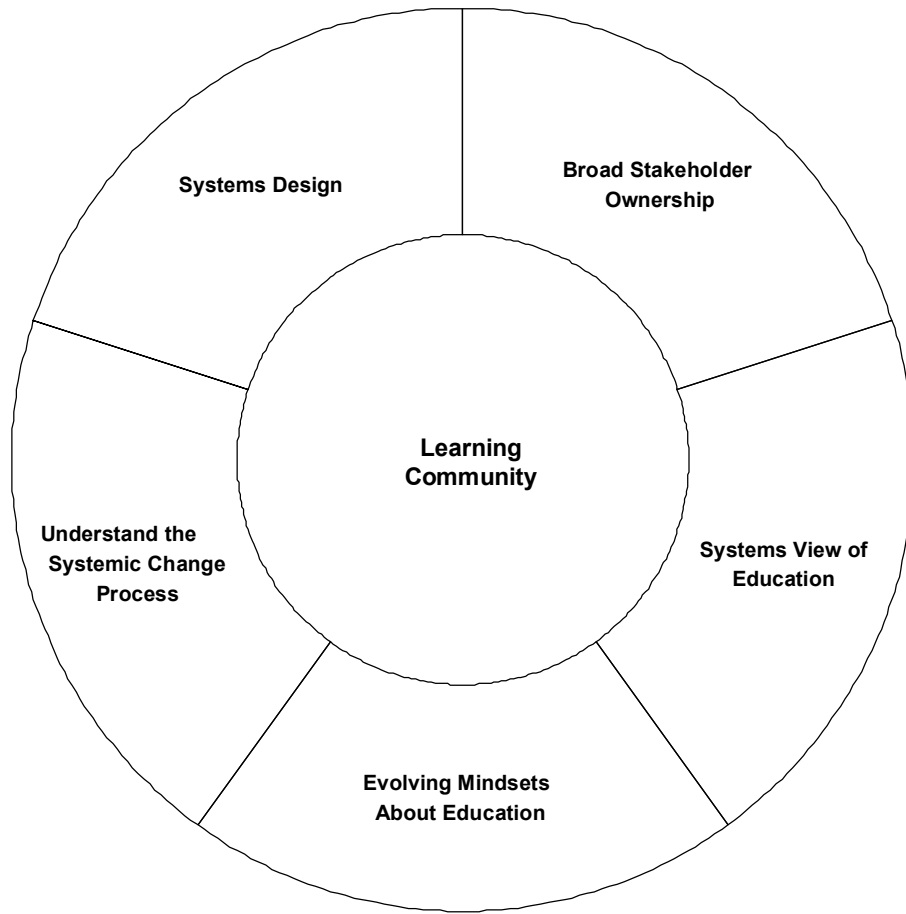


Figure 1: Systemic Change Process: A Conceptual Framework

Broad Stakeholder Ownership

Broad stakeholder ownership is the fundamental bedrock upon which all other aspects of the conceptual framework of the systemic change process are built. Without broad stakeholder ownership, the other elements of the framework described below lose their meaning and sense of purpose in the context of systemic change in education.

Educational stakeholders are the people in a school community (e.g., parents, teachers, students, civil servants, and clergy) that have a vested interest in the school system in their neighborhood. While it may seem obvious why school personnel, parents, and students should be vested in the educational system, what is not so obvious is why individuals who may not have children or work within the system should be vested. A major reason for the vested interest of diverse members of a society is that ideally, a stakeholder in a democracy should be interested in ensuring that every child be provided with the best educational opportunities (Clinton, 1996; Goodlad, 2002), in order to continue the progression of society. The education of our children is directly related to the quality of government, level of crime, and the amount of retirement support (through FICA, and Medicare payments) that all members of our society can expect. These are a few of the reasons why all members of our society should be vested in the educational system. Without this vested interest by a broad and diverse base of stakeholders, the democratic goals of American society are likely to lose their importance and significance.

Recently, with the sense of urgency to change and improve America's public schools, parents have been asked to join school based management (SBM) teams. SBM teams give parents the opportunity to get involved in important matters and to begin to take ownership by being a part of the school decision-making process (Fine, 1993). In his book *Parental Involvement and the Political Principle*, Sarason (1995) characterized the political principle with

these words, “when you are going to be affected, directly or indirectly, by a decision, you should stand in some relationship to the decision making process” (p.7). Asking parents to be a part of a decision-making process is clearly a step toward helping parents not only to get *involved*, but also to take *ownership* of a change process. However, the dialogue surrounding involvement needs to shift from seeking only parental involvement to seeking and developing broad stakeholder ownership (Fine, 1993).

Bringing stakeholders together who have diverse backgrounds, experiences and opinions strengthens the change process. If voices of stakeholders are left out, particularly the voices of those that have been historically marginalized, than the change process is weakened and is more susceptible to adverse reactions from these very same stakeholders.

When it comes to engaging parents and other stakeholders in a systemic change process, Banathy (1996) expands Sarason’s notion of the Political Principle with this profound statement:

When it comes to the design of social and societal systems of all kinds, it is the users, the people in the system, who are the experts. Nobody has the right to design social systems for someone else. It is unethical to design social systems for someone else. Design cannot be legislated, it should not be bought from the expert, and it should not be copied from the design of others. If the privilege of and responsibility for design is “given away,” others will take charge of designing our lives and our systems. They will shape our future. (p. 228)

Banathy transcends the political principle based on decision making, to offer a political principle based on designing and seizing ownership of designing a new educational system.

In order for a broad range of stakeholders to feel a sense of ownership in an educational change process, their roles would need to fundamentally change. They would need to not only be

involved and help make decisions, but they would also need to become creators, designers and visionaries of a new and fundamentally different educational system. Stakeholders will need to evolve their mindsets, develop a systems view, and understand the systemic change process to be able to begin the process of designing a new educational system. Hence, new types of relationships and opportunities must be created that would allow a broad range of stakeholders to come together to envision, design and implement their ideal educational system. Only then can we say that stakeholders, including parents, have total ownership over their change process and their educational system, because they would have designed it. A key ingredient for a systemic change process in education is broad stakeholder ownership.

Systems View

For years educators have been trying to analyze why their schools are failing by observing the classroom, talking with teachers, parents and principals, and identifying various school indicators of improvement (grades, attendance, parent involvement, suspensions, etc.). These attempts can be characterized as *piecemeal* methods of analysis that have yet to help educators and researchers create fundamental changes in education. In the following passage Fritjof Capra (1982) explains how isolating elements of a system in order to analyze it will in effect destroy our ability to develop a holistic view of the system:

Systemic properties are destroyed when a system is dissected, either physically or theoretically, into isolated elements. Although we can discern individual parts in any system, the nature of the whole is always different from the mere sum of its parts. (Capra, 1982 p. 267)

Educational stakeholders need to develop a systemic view of educational systems and an understanding of the activity of systems in order to undergo serious systemic change efforts in education. According to Capra (1982), “the activity of systems involves a process known as transaction—the simultaneous and mutually interdependent interaction between multiple components” (p. 267). Developing a systems view requires that we begin to view “the world in terms of relationships and integration” (Capra, 1982, p. 266). Banathy (1992) provides three different explanations for helping us to understand the concept of a “systems view” and its importance to the systemic change process:

- “The systems view helps us to understand the true nature of education as a complex, open, and dynamic human activity system that operates in ever-changing multiple environments and interacts with a variety of societal systems” (p. 17).
- “The systems view is a certain way of looking at ourselves, at the environments we live in, at the systems that surround us, and at those we are a part of” (p. 15).
- “The systems view is a way of thinking, it is a world view we can possess. And there are ways by which it can be developed” (p. 16).

The absence of a systems view can lead to unexpected consequences when educational stakeholders are not aware of the interrelationships that exist within societal systems. It is likely, that developing a systems view will assist in helping people to evolve their mindsets.

In the following subsections, two methods will be presented for helping people to develop a systems view of education: 1) the use of systems models, and 2) the use of metaphors. The first section describes Banathy’s (1991) systems models (systems-environment, functions/structure, and process models), and the second section outlines Morgan’s (1997)

metaphors for viewing organizations. The second section also offers examples of the use of metaphors in the context of education.

Systems Models

Banathy suggests two stages in helping people to develop a systems view of education. The first stage requires that we *observe* and *study* various systems and their behavior, in order to identify the common *concepts*. The first stage also requires that we probe to find relationships among the concepts in order to establish a set of *principles*. According to Banathy (1992), “a system principle emerges from an interaction/integration of related concepts” (p 16). To complete the first stage, we must find relationships among the principles, and these related principles will form the basis for the *systems models* that we create.

The second stage requires that we *internalize* the systems models that we create and *apply* them to a real-life situation that is meaningful to us. One way to apply them is to use them to analyze a particular system. Banathy (1992) has developed three systems models, which he refers to as *lenses*, “that can be used to look at an educational activity system and understand, describe, and analyze it as an open, dynamic, and complex social system” (p. 21).

Systems-Environment Model, also called the “*bird’s-eye-view*” lens, allows us to describe an educational system within the context of its larger environment (i.e. community and larger society). The bird’s-eye-view allows us to see the existing or future relationships, interactions, and patterns of interdependence the educational system has with its larger environment.

Functions/Structure Model, also called the “*still picture*” lens, allows us to view the state of the educational system at a given point in time. Think of a school system as constantly

moving and changing. Now imagine stopping the motion of the school system to take a close look at the goals and purposes of the system. This lens allows us to examine what functions and structures are in place within the school system that serve to carry out the goals and purposes of the system.

Process Model, also called the “*motion picture*” lens, allows us to examine the behavior of the school system as it changes over time (in the context of the community and larger society). The process lens helps us to understand how the school system receives, assesses and process input, how the system transforms input to meet the purposes and goals of the system, and how the system processes and assesses the outputs.

Banathy emphasizes the importance of using all three models and that no one model can give a complete systems view of a complex school system in the context of its community and larger society. Educators can learn to acquire a systems view of education by observing various systems (e.g., educational systems) and identifying common concepts from which related principles can emerge, and in turn systems models can be created from these principles. It is only when we internalize and apply the systems models to our own situations that we can truly expect to develop a systems view of education.

Metaphors

In addition to systems models, *metaphors* are also important tools in helping people to see and understand complex systems and to develop a systems view of education. According to Morgan (1997), “we use metaphor whenever we attempt to understand one element of experience in terms of another” (p. 4). Metaphors can also be useful in helping people to evolve

their thinking and mindsets about education. In his book *Images of Organization*, Morgan (1997) presents eight metaphors as models or lenses for viewing, describing, analyzing and understanding organizations systemically:

1. organizations as machines
2. organizations as organisms
3. organizations as brains
4. organizations as cultures
5. organizations as political systems
6. organizations as psychic prisons
7. organizations as flux and transformation
8. organizations as instruments of domination.

No one metaphor can give a total view of the system; therefore, Morgan recommends using a dominant metaphor and other supporting metaphors to give a more accurate depiction of the organization. For example, using the *organizations as political systems* metaphor as the dominant metaphor, “we can analyze organizational politics in a systematic way by focusing on relations between *interests, conflict, and power*” (p. 160). In analyzing the interests of the stakeholders in the school community, it is important to frame the dialogue around their goals, values, desires, and expectations (Morgan, 1997). According to Morgan (1997), when the interests of various stakeholders collide, you can expect there will be conflict. Those in power are the ones to resolve the conflicts of interest (Morgan 1997). In school systems, school boards are given the power, by the state, to resolve conflicts that arise within their school districts. The school board makes the final decisions on critical issues within the district.

One can easily use the “*psychic prisons*” metaphor as a supporting metaphor for the political systems metaphor. For example, in addition to being political, it is not common to see a superintendent, school board, teachers, and community members coming together in a collaborative way to work towards a shared vision. The school system is designed in such a way that it does not promote constructive communication amongst the various stakeholder groups. Instead, what exists is a system of “*psychic prisons*”, whereby interests, visions, and ideologies are not shared with the entire school community. It is precisely these psychic prisons which form the basic structure of political systems. Stakeholder groups exist in many different secluded realities or psychic prisons, and as such it is difficult to get these groups to suspend and free themselves from their realities in order to experience a new shared reality.

Metaphors can be used as lenses, theories, or systems models in order to help stakeholders develop a systems view of their educational system. Morgan (1997) states that:

in recognizing theory as metaphor, we quickly appreciate that no single theory will ever give us a perfect or all-purpose point of view. We realize that the challenge is to become skilled in the art of using metaphor: to find fresh ways of seeing, understanding, and shaping the situations that we want to organize and manage. (p. 5)

Helping educational stakeholders to acquire a systems view of education by helping them work with systems models and organizational metaphors will facilitate the major work of the systemic change process: *evolving mindsets*.

Evolving Mindsets

There is a socio-cultural and ideological vision that is deeply engrained in our minds for what we call *school*. When we think of school, or “the grammar of schooling” (Tyack & Cuban,

1995), we think of a teacher lecturing to a group of students; we think of textbooks, a black board, chalk, the principal; we think of having to pass standardized exams, we think of a grade-based, chunked curriculum, we think of grades and credits (i.e., the Carnegie Unit), and we think of going to the next grade level. We have been enculturated to view schools in a certain way, and until we can evolve our mental models of what we believe are “real schools,” we will not achieve fundamental changes in education (Senge, 2000).

One can argue that helping stakeholders to evolve their mindsets and mental models about education is perhaps the most important aspect of a systemic change process. The use of the terms mindset, worldview, and paradigm are all roughly synonymous with the term mental model. Senge (1990) explains that

Mental models are deeply ingrained assumptions, generalizations or even pictures or images that influence how we understand the world and how we take action. Very often we are not consciously aware of our mental models or the effects they have on our behavior. (p. 8)

The term mindset is preferred here because the term itself defines the major problem we are experiencing in education today. As a society our minds are set in an educational system that is now obsolete. Our minds are set in an obsolete view of what and how a “real school” is supposed to look and function (Tyack & Cuban, 1995). The culture of schooling is deeply ingrained and set in our minds. When one’s mind is set, it is nearly impossible to change one’s disposition. Yet it is this nearly impossible task of *evolving mindsets* or reculturing (Fullan, 1993; Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991) that is the key to successfully transforming the educational system. Whatever term is used, researchers are beginning to agree that the process of systemic

change is based on helping people to change and evolve their mindsets about education (Caine & Caine, 1997; Jenlink, 1995).

Understand the Systemic Change Process

All stakeholders should have a deep understanding of the systemic change process. Understanding the systemic change process is the bridge to educational transformation. Communication and dialogue are the vehicles for bringing a diverse group of stakeholders together for a journey toward appreciating diverse stakeholders' values, beliefs and opinions (Jenlink, 1995). Communication and dialogue among educational stakeholders fosters the recognition of system relationships in society (i.e., among family, education, and community). The journey to this deep understanding requires first, an understanding that the ultimate goal of any systemic change process is to invent an educational system where all teachers succeed at helping students succeed. Second, it is important to understand that to invent a fundamentally different educational system will require helping people to evolve their mindsets about education (Caine & Caine, 1997; Jenlink, 1995). *Mindset change* is the essence of a systemic change process. Third, it is also important to understand that during a systemic change process much of the time is spent in small process teams (5 – 6 stakeholders) led by a process facilitator (Caine & Caine, 1997; Jenlink, Reigeluth, Carr, & Nelson, 1998, unpublished manuscript). The major work of the process teams will be to: (a) develop a deep understanding of the systemic change process, (b) evolve their mindsets and help the school community to evolve their mindsets about education through dialogue, and (c) envision, design and implement an ideal educational system with active involvement of as many stakeholders as possible.

Fourth, we must understand that it is only through dialogue within process groups that we can begin to help stakeholders evolve their mindsets about education. According to Bohm (1996):

The object of a dialogue is not to analyze things, or to win an argument, or to exchange opinions. Rather, it is to suspend your opinions and to look at the opinions – to listen to everybody’s opinions, to suspend them, and to see what all that means. (p. 26)

Lastly, understanding the systemic change process requires an understanding of each of the elements outlined in this conceptual framework.

Systems Design

According to Banathy (1991) “Systems design in the context of any human system is a future-creating activity. People engage in it based on their vision of what their system should be. They are ‘think future—act now’ kind of people” (p. 165). The process of systems design should take stakeholders on a journey from a current and obsolete educational system to an ideal design of their educational system. Banathy (1996) advises that the design journey begin by engaging in a dialogue about why we want to engage in design. He calls this dialogue the “genesis of design” and outlines five major design processes that should follow the genesis of design (Banathy, 1996):

- Transcending the existing system and leaving it behind.
- Envisioning an image of the system that we wish to create.
- Designing the system, which, when implemented, transforms the existing state to the desired future state.
- Presenting/displaying the model(s) of the system we design.

- Planning for the implementation of the design. (p. 61)

However, prior to actually engaging in a systems design process, Banathy (1991) recommends that stakeholders initiate the process of ‘Getting Ready for Design,’ which entails:

- 1) Understand Systems Design
- 2) Develop Capability and Competence in Design
- 3) Develop Organizational Capacity for Design
- 4) Generate Willingness in the Community to Support the Design Effort
- 5) Prepare a plan for the design inquiry (p. 165)

Banathy (1991) places great value on systems design, and he believes that “systems design is most successful, it is most viable and productive, and commitments to implementing the design are most binding, when it is directed by the users of the future system rather than by outside experts” (p. 166). One way to help stakeholders, the users of the system, build their sense of ownership of the systemic change process, is to help them to “Get Ready for Design.”

Systems design requires a thorough understanding of system dynamics. Jay W. Forrester (1999), a pioneer of the field of system dynamics, provides a definition:

System dynamics deals with how things change through time which covers most of what most people find important. System dynamics involves interpreting real life systems into computer simulation models [STELLA] that allow one to see how the structure and decision-making policies in a system create its behavior. (p. 1)

Forrester argues that system dynamics is the foundation under systems thinking. Teaching and learning about system dynamics by creating computer simulations of systems models can help people to visualize and think effectively about systems (Forrester, 1999).

Both Ackoff (1981) and Banathy (1991, 1996) recommend an “ideal design” approach to systems design. According to Banathy (1996), “in the ideal systems design approach, the target is always the ideal. The target cannot ever be less than ideal.... Design is a journey toward the ideal.” (p. 194). Jenlink (1995) states that “systems design is an inseparable part of systemic change; the ideal is in the process of creating, not in the content of the process” (p. 43). For any systemic change process to succeed, it should seek to envision and create an ideal educational system using a systems design approach.

Learning Organizations/Community

Many researchers are also beginning to agree that developing a learning organization/community is an important aspect to understanding the systemic change process (Darling-Hammond, 1996; DuFour & Eaker, 1998; Fullan, 1993; Louis & Kruse, 1995; Newmann, Wehlage, & Wisconsin Center for Education Research. Center on Organization and Restructuring of Schools., 1995; Senge, 1990). DiBella and Nevis (1998) state that “it is important to differentiate between the similar and related ideas of “organizational learning” and the “learning organization” because they are often used interchangeably” (p. 6). They suggest that

The learning organization is a systems-level concept with particular characteristics or a metaphor for the ideal organization... In contrast, “organizational learning” is a term used to describe certain types of activities or processes that may occur at any one of several levels of analysis [individual, team and organization] or as part of an organizational change process. Thus it is something that takes place in all organizations,

whereas the learning organization is a particular type or form of organization in and of itself. (p. 6)

This distinction seems to suggest that the learning organization is what an organization strives to become (product), it is the ideal vision of an organization. This distinction also suggests that organizations must develop and implement organizational learning activities (process), strategies, and processes in order to become a learning organization.

According to Bill Mulford (1998):

Organizational learning largely focuses on developing common understandings, honesty, and trust through dialogue, sharing, and managing the inevitable conflict involved. These learning processes are then employed to make links to the outside, to examine current practice critically, to develop shared values as well as a vision for the school. The processes, the content (or identified changes), and shared values are employed to actually make the changes that have been identified, including a commitment and ability to repeat the stages, that is, to continuously learn and improve. (p. 619)

According to Senge (1990) the basic meaning of a learning organization is

an organization that is continually expanding its capacity to create its future. For such an organization, it is not enough merely to survive. “Survival learning” or what is more often termed “adaptive learning” is important—indeed it is necessary. But for a learning organization, “adaptive learning” must be joined by “generative learning,” learning that enhances our capacity to create. (p. 14)

25 years ago Argyris and Schon (1978) argued that organizational learning was critical to an organization’s survival. They defined organizational learning as “an organization’s capacity for conscious transformation of its own theory of action, and to individuals’ ability to appreciate

and transform the learning systems in which they live” (p. 331). Argyris and Schon (1978) define a company’s theory of action as its norms, strategies, and assumptions. According to Argyris and Schon (1978):

organizational theories of action need not be explicit. Indeed, formal corporate documents such as organizational charts, policy statements, and job descriptions often reflect a theory of action (the *espoused theory*) which conflicts with the organization’s theory-in-use (the theory of action constructed from observation of actual behavior)—and the theory-in-use is often tacit.

They suggested that “for systems theorists, organizational learning consists of the self-regulating process of error-detection and error-correction itself, whether or not maintenance of the organizational steady state is mediated by the self-conscious efforts of individual members of the organization” (p. 326). Argyris & Schon (1978) used the term single-loop learning to refer to the self regulating process of error-detection and error-correction. Argyris and Schon (1978) stated that during single-loop learning “members of the organization respond to changes in the internal and external environments of the organization by detecting errors which they then correct so as to maintain the central features of organizational theory-in-use” (p. 18). In organizational single-loop learning, the criterion for success is effectiveness. According to Morgan (1997):

many organizations have become proficient at single-loop learning, developing an ability to scan the environment, set objectives, and monitor general performance of the system in relation to these objectives. This basic skill is often institutionalized in the form of information systems designed to keep the organization “on course” (p. 88)

Single-loop learning by itself does not challenge or question an organization’s theory of action (i.e. organizational norms, strategies, and assumptions). Argyris and Schon (1978) argued that

organizations needed to learn to build the capacity to challenge their own theory of action. They called this type of learning double-loop learning which they defined as “those sorts of organizational inquiry which resolve incompatible organizational norms by setting new priorities and weightings of norms, or by restructuring the norms themselves together with associated strategies and assumptions” (p. 24). According to Morgan (1997) double-loop learning is much more difficult for an organization to achieve. He states:

the ability to achieve proficiency at double-loop learning often proves more elusive. Although some organizations have been successful in institutionalizing systems that review and challenge basic paradigms and operating norms, many fail to do so. This failure is especially true of bureaucratized organizations, whose fundamental organizing principles often operate in a way that actually obstructs the learning process. (p.88)

Peter Senge (1990) identifies seven organizational learning disabilities that can hinder the organization from becoming a learning organization:

1. I AM MY POSTION: When people in organizations focus only on their position, they have little sense of responsibility for the results produced when all positions interact. (p. 19)
2. THE ENEMY IS OUT THERE: There is in each of us a propensity to find someone or something outside ourselves to blame when things go wrong. (p. 19)
3. THE ILLUSION OF TAKING CHARGE: All too often, “proactiveness” is reactiveness in disguise. If we simply become more aggressive fighting the “enemy out there,” we are reacting—regardless of what we call it. True proactiveness comes from seeing how we contribute to our own problems. (p. 21)

4. THE FIXATION ON EVENTS: Generative learning cannot be sustained in an organization if people's thinking is dominated by short-term events. If we focus on events, the best we can ever do is predict an event before it happens so that we can react optimally. But we cannot learn to create. (p. 22)
5. THE PARABLE OF THE BOILED FROG: Learning to see slow, gradual processes requires slowing down our frenetic pace and paying attention to the subtle as well as the dramatic. (p. 23)
6. THE DELUSION OF LEARNING FROM EXPERIENCE: Herein lies the core learning dilemma that confronts organizations: we learn best from experience but we never directly experience the consequences of many of our most important decisions. (p. 23)
7. THE MYTH OF THE MANAGEMENT TEAM: All too often, teams in business tend to spend their time fighting for turf, avoiding anything that will make them look bad personally, and pretending that everyone is behind the team's collective strategy—maintaining the appearance of a cohesive team. (p. 24)

Senge (1990) believes that “the five disciplines of the learning organization [Personal Mastery, Shared Vision, Team Learning, Mental Model, and Systems Thinking]... can act as antidotes to these learning disabilities. But first, we must see the disabilities more clearly—for they are often lost amid the bluster of day-to-day events” (p. 26).

In order to identify learning disabilities within an organization, it requires that an organization learn how to learn. Argyris and Schon (1978) borrowed the term deuterio-learning from Gregory Bateson to explain their notion of learning how to learn. Argyris and Schon (1978) state that:

when an organization engages in deuterio-learning, its members learn, too, about previous contexts for learning. They reflect on and inquire into previous episodes of organizational learning, or failure to learn. They discover what they did that facilitated or inhibited learning, they invent new strategies for learning, they produce these strategies, and they evaluate and generalize what they have produced. The results become encoded in individual images and maps and are reflected in organizational learning practice. (p. 27)

Argyris and Schon (1978) believe that “the quest for organizational learning capacity must take the form of deuterio-learning; most particularly about the interactions between the organization’s behavioral world and its ability to learn“(p. 29).

Argyris and Schon (1978) argue that without individual learning there is no organizational learning; however they also argue that individual learning by itself is insufficient for organizational learning. Argyris and Schon (1978) state:

We can think of organizational learning as a process mediated by the collaborative inquiry of individual members. In their capacity as agents of organizational learning, individuals restructure the continually changing artifact called organizational theory-in-use. Their work as learning agents is unfinished until the results of their inquiry—their discoveries, inventions, and evaluations—are recorded in the media of organizational memory, the images and maps which encode organizational theory-in-use. (p.20)

Developing a learning organization/community is the element of the conceptual framework that binds all the other elements together. It is perhaps the most critical element of the systemic change process, and therefore much time and care should be taken to ensure the development of a healthy learning organization/community.

Conclusion

The conceptual framework presented above is a recipe for creating and sustaining a successful systemic change process. Each concept in the framework depends upon all the other concepts of the framework. It is the author's hope that researchers, practitioners, and policy makers can use the framework to begin to examine past, current and future conditions of education, and in particular educational change. A systemic change process has a good chance of succeeding if a school community can:

- Build broad stakeholder ownership
- Educate all stakeholders to understand the systemic change process
- Educate all stakeholders on how take a systems view of education
- Help all stakeholders begin to evolve their mindsets about education
- Educate all stakeholders to use a systems design approach in order to empower them to envision and create their ideal school system
- Develop a learning community

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