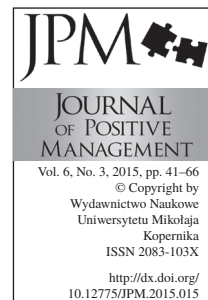# CHANGING FROM THE INSIDE OUT: LEADING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE AS AN INSIDER

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Abstract

Purpose: This paper examines the opportunity for using auto/ethnography as a reflexive tool for managers when leading organizational change as an insider.

Methodology/approach: Literature review.

Originality/value: This paper explores the potential for using auto/ethnography as a method to facilitate self-reflection when leading organizational change as an internal change agent. A review of the concept of planned change and the skills required of internal change agents shows that in order to lead change the manager must assume a new identity; the internal change agent. Through her performances in the change agent role the agent and the project become engaged in a dyadic relationship wherein they are dependent upon each other for existence resulting in the agent becoming the change which she leads. This creates challenges for the internal change agent as she struggles to reconcile her new identity with her previous organizational roles. Reflexivity has been identified as a useful method to support change agents in this process but there is little to no clarity about how it should be executed. Auto/ethnography is presented in this paper as a potential method to facilitate self-reflection when leading change. The different methods of how auto/ethnography can be applied are discussed along with its benefits and risks. Future research is needed into how this method can be adapted to suit managers who are not researchers and what types of support are required to facilitate a structured reflexive process.

Keywords: internal change agent, organizational change, role performance

Paper type: Conceptual Paper

1. Introduction

This paper is a literature review exploring the possibility of using auto/ethnography as a reflexive tool for managers when leading organizational change as an insider. It begins with an examination of the concept of planned change followed by the characteristics and skills required of internal change agents. This concludes with the argument that identity of the internal change agent must be defined through her performances in the role of the change agent; in other words

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she must become the change. This leads to a discussion of role performativity as a change agent which concludes with the assertion that the performances of the internal change agent result in her and the change she is leading becoming inseparably linked to one another, thus resulting in a lack of awareness of self in the process. Reflexivity is presented as a tool for the change agent to cope with this reciprocal relationship but the process of employment is vague at best. Auto/ethnography is then introduced and presented as a potential method to support the reflexive process for the change agent.

2. Planned Change

An understanding of organizational change is necessary to understanding organizations themselves and can be investigated from various perspectives (Ferreira and Armagan, 2011). Within the literature surrounding organizing and organization there are multiple typologies (for example: first, second and third order change (Bartunek and Michael, 1987); Life Cycle Theory, Evolution, Dialectic and Teleological (Van de Ven and Poole, 1995) and models of change presented (Sturdy and Grey, Beneath and beyond organizational change (Sturdy and Grey, Beneath and beyond organizational change management: exploring alternatives, 2003; Schein, 1995). This wide variety of options can be loosely categorized into two main perspectives that are debated; 1- that organizations are the result of causal relationships and static patterns or 2- that organizations are social constructs created by actors as they generate shared understandings of reality (Orlikowski, Improvising organizational transformation over time: A situated change perspective, 1996; Maas and Ottenheym, 1994; Weick and Quinn, 1999). Though it is of course possible to examine the organization as a series of causal relationships, this is a positivistic approach which also assumes that the organization is a static thing which exists regardless of the movements of the actors within its boundaries.

Beginning with the work of Lewin during the Second World War and beyond, the change process and organizational change processes have been under investigation and discussion (Burnes, 2004; Schein, 1995). Lewin's work focused on what is defined as the planned change process, an economically driven linear change process wherein the need to change is determined by a set of external factors, predominantly related to market economics, resulting in company leaders deciding that change is/was necessary to keep up with the times. Planned Change is often used to drive changes which are necessary to increase economic value and focuses on dramatic, rapid and oftentimes painful changes that could not be achieved through a development strategy. It is deemed suitable when the problem is explicit, not too complex and the solution is achievable Sturdy and Grey, Beneath and beyond organizational change management: exploring alternatives, (2003). Inherent in this type of change process is the concept that the change process has

a beginning and an end point; the end point being time and goal bound, wherein the achievement of the goals set at the beginning of the change process are met thus signaling the end of the change process. This type of change occurs when the change agent takes intentional steps to move the organization from one state of being to another (Ford and Ford, 1995; Robertson et al., 1993; Jian, 2007). In order to move the organization through the change process, Lewin argued that there is a series of 3 steps which punctuate the change process; initiation (unfreeze)-implementation (move) – outcome (re-freeze) (Boonstra, 2004; Weick and Quinn, 1999; Schein, 1995). Steps must be taken to first "unfreeze" the organization from its current state of working in order to "move" it through the translation process and then "re-freeze" in the new state, thus crystallizing the new processes, procedures and behaviors as defined by the goals of the change process (Burnes, 2004; Weick and Quinn, 1999).

During the first stage, unfreezing or initiation, the status quo or in situ state is destabilized in order to allow the group to 'unlearn' its previous behaviors and prepare for the learning of a new set of behaviors. This is in relation to a trigger which stimulates the organization to start the change process (Ferreira and Armagan, 2011) by creating a sense of concern and developing a commitment to change (Phillips, 1983). Huber et al. (1993) identify 5 triggers of change; structure, strategy, characteristics of top management, macro-economic and performance while others have examined the role of innovation in triggering change (Ferreira and Armagan, 2011; Greve and Taylor, 2000). Schein (1995) argues that for this unfreezing to occur, there must be form of dissatisfaction or disconfirmation of the existing process or data and that the people who make up the organization must feel 'survival anxiety or guilt' to accept the disconfirming information. In other words, the current process must be invalidated and the organizational community must accept the invalidation resulting in feeling a sense of urgency to change because of this invalidation. However, should the anxiety take the form of "learning anxiety-, or the feeling that if we allow ourselves to enter a learning or change process, if we admit to ourselves and others that something is wrong or imperfect, we will lose our effectiveness, our self-esteem and maybe even our identity" (Schein, 1995); the unfreezing process can encounter resistance. The initiation of the change should also be examined as to whether it is episodic or continuous in nature. Episodic changes are intentional, infrequent and discontinuous in nature -compatible with organizational constructs created around the ideas of second-order change, the edge of chaos and punctuated equilibria (Weick and Quinn, 1999; Romanelli and Tushman, 1994; Bartunek and Michael, 1987). In the scenario of punctuated equilibria, the organization is one which is built around a network of interdependencies which tighten during periods of equilibrium (Weick and Quinn, 1999; Romanelli and Tushman, 1994; Robertson et al., 1993) which can result in a lack of response to external changes. As the

external environment changes pressure is placed on the network to adapt to meet the changes and a period of change is entered. Once the episode of change has passed and the new ways become the norms, the network stabilizes and enters into a new period of equilibrium wherein the changes are the norm.

In the second stage, moving or implementing, the group takes action (pushes for major change) (Phillips, 1983) and makes the transition from the previous state of being to the future state of being (Boonstra, 2004); the process of change (Ferreira and Armagan, 2011). A central feature to the analytic framework of episodic change is inertia. Romanelli and Tushman (1994) argue that it takes a revolution to alter the existing system of interrelated organizational elements that has or is maintained by mutual dependencies between the parts and external elements such as regulatory bodies and technological systems which actively legitimize the managerial decisions that created the organizational elements (Weick and Quinn, 1999).

During the final stage, re-freezing, the new set of behaviors and norms which have been established or arrived at during the moving stage are stabilized; the new vision is consolidated and reinforced (Phillips, 1983). This is often done through the use of organizational practices, policies, norms and culture (Burnes, 2004). Further characteristics of Planned Change are: a focus on economic measures of performance, new design of business processes, episodic change with stable end situation, techno-economical process rationality and strict norms and planning in change process (Boonstra, 2004; Buono and Subbiah, 2014).

This is a linear view of organizational change, one which assumes that by following the prescribed stages of un-freeze, move (or as I would define it translate), re-freeze, the goals determined at the start of the process will be met. It is also assumed that the organization will stop changing once the process has drawn to a close, that it no longer continues to evolve and develop with relation to the new processes and work procedures put into place. The planned approach begins with the end in mind, seeking to achieve a new state of equilibrium through a structured approach which emphasizes the benefits of achieving the end goal rather than the change process itself. Predicting the specific outcome of the moving stage during planned change is difficult (Robertson et al., 1993) and can lead to unintended consequences which lead to the iterative approach of Action Research with its research, action, more research process being promoted by Lewin as a way to achieve a desirable outcome (Burnes, 2004).

It has been argued that planned change is impossible (Orlikowski and Hofman, 1997) and is actually the result of failing to create continuously adaptive organizations (Weick and Quinn, 1999) and just uses a story related to a change plan to embark on an implementation which generates unexpected results (Jian, 2007). Furthermore, the Planned Approach to change has been criticized for treating change as a unique, one-time event which needs to be managed separately

from daily organizational activities (Orlikowski, Improvising organizational transformation over time: A situated change perspective, 1996), is inadequate in describing the various procedures used by organizations when managing change (Dunphy, 1993), ignores the dualities and tensions which exist in the organization (Van de Ven and Poole, 1995) and produces unintended positive or negative effects (Czarniawska-Joerges and Sevon, 1996). Positive consequences can be the accomplishment of interests, mutually acceptable change initiatives and heightened morale and trust while negative consequences can be a widening of the trust gap, loss of productivity and increased stress (Jian, 2007). Others take the position that organization itself is the result of ongoing, continuous change even though the concept of organization is one which seeks to stop change (Tsoukas and Chia, 2002). Thus, the concept of an organization and change are mutually dependent upon each other, one cannot exist without the other. Should change be planned, then one must assume that the organization is a fixed entity and not a social one in which the actors consistently perform to hold the construct in place. Change is understood by defining it as a series of movements which follow a linear path or a succession of positions (Tsoukas and Chia, 2002). However, if the organization is an outcome of the change process, then it becomes impossible to trace change in a linear path, as the starting point is continually changing.

3. Characteristics and Skills of the Change Agent

"Change agents are ultimately guided by what they attend to during diagnosis. Some change agents see everything in terms of personal and interpersonal dimensions, others see things in terms of technical and structural dimensions, and still others see things in terms of cultural dimensions. In all cases, the change agent is guided in his work by his particular set of assumptions and beliefs, although in many cases these are implicit and hidden" (Tichy and Nisberg, 1976).

Research into the role of the change agent and her/his characteristics is not a recent area (Ottoway, 1983; Wylie et al., 2011). Rather, the way in which change agents perform, similar to the concept of organizational change, has been widely examined in literature through the decades. In their work looking into change agent bias Tichy and Nisberg (1976) found a correlation between the categories applied during organizational diagnosis prior to change and the intervention approaches used by the agent themselves from which they devised four different categories of change agents; Outside Pressure Type, People Change Technology Type, Analysis for the Top Type and Organizational Development Type. They continue to speculate that different personality characteristics identified by Jung or personal style is associated with the different change agent categories. The

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primary focus of the Outside Pressure Type is on changing the way the social systems (the organization) relates to the external environment and this type looks for ways to alter leadership and strategy during their interventions. The personality characteristic of this type is someone who is a senser; experiencing based on one's perceptions, assertive, pragmatic, get it done, perfectionist. The People Change Technology Types are primarily concerned with individual work performance and seek to improve the feelings people have about their jobs. These types are the feelers; loyal, deal with emotions and relate to situations through emotional experiences. The third type, Analysis for the Top are focused on improving organizational efficiency and effectiveness, often using technology and structural changes as the tools to achieve the goals of increasing productivity. This type falls under the category of the thinkers; rational, logical, analytical, prudent and objective. Finally the Organizational Development Types are focused on internal processes such as group dynamics, decision making and communication. These are the intuitor/feelers of the group; combining the characteristics of being imaginative, future oriented and creative with loyalty, emotional and able to relate.

Though these categories were devised in the 1970s, when combining them with the different typographies of organizational change, they provide a framework for examining the role of the change agent within the change management process, show in the table below.

Table 1.
Typologies of
Change, Change
Agent Types and
Personality Styles

Type of Change	Planned Change	Organization Development	Continuous Changing (and constructing realities)
Type of Change Agent	Analysis for Top	People Change Technology & Outside Pressure-	Organizational Development
Personality Style	Thinkers	Feelers &Sensers	Intuitor/Feelers

Defining the type of change helps to identify the focus of the change agent which then allows us to further focus on the methods used by the agent to generate change. Once the methods have been identified this gives us a tool to trace the movements of the agent as s/he performs within the network. However, though these categories are useful in providing a framework for identifying which type of change agent is needed or desired for the different types of organizational change, it does not provide insight into what happens when the type of change and change agent needed is different from the personal style of the change agent who is assigned to facilitate the change process. This approach also fails to explore the skills required by the change agent, which may be learned rather than inherent in the personality or personal style of the agent.

4. Internal Change Agents
Characteristics and Skills of the Internal Change Agent.

"The process of consulting, for an internal consultant, is not a clean or linear process, but rather is more organic and often messy" (Barnes and Scott, 2012).

Traditionally, when studying the concept of change agency, the focus has been on groups, such as consultants, who are situated outside of the organizations they seek to change (Wylie et al., 2011; Ottoway, 1983; Sturdy, 1997). The role and importance of internal change agents when leading organizational change has been under examined and is often overlooked (Pettigrew, 2003; Harley et al., 1997; Buono and Subbiah, 2014; Sturdy and Wright, 2011; Alfes et al., 2010; Barnes and Scott, 2012). Though there is literature available about consultants acting as change agents, there is less information about those who stimulate or catalyze change from inside the organization itself. The literature that is available has produced a list of skills and core concepts (Wiesbord, 1987) that the ideal internal change agent should possess/embody rather than focusing on the performance and roles of the agents themselves. Porras and Robertson (1992) argue for the need for research that examines the role of change agents in their own organizational context as they (when working as an active client in partnership with external consultants) perform boundary spanning roles of gatekeeper, broker and partner (Hartley et al., 1997; Sturdy and Wright, 2011). Pettigrew (2003) states that more needs to be known about how the internal change agent can be supported effectively, specifically when working in a multi-layered organization and questions whether good change agents are made or born. His view is that experience and support mechanisms such as coaching and action-oriented reflective learning can 'make' a good change agent. Erikson (2008) continues further on this thread by stating "There is no organizational change without individual change…" and citing Kouses and Posner (2002), states that the leader needs to model the behavior or change that he/she seeks to create. He (Eriksen, 2008) continues to argue that it is not possible for a leader to change in isolation, but that this occurs in relation to others and that it is only through reflexivity (in this case discourse) with other participants within the construct, that this can occur. Pettigrew (2003) supports this argument with his research by showing that the successful change agent needs the combined skills of a political entrepreneur and the reflective practitioner (Schon, 1983) while Ford and Ford (1995) argue that change agents produce change through different types of speech acts (Ford, 1999).

A successful internal change agent possesses the ideal attributes of being a heroic business athlete (Pettigrew, 2003; Spreitzer and Quinn, 1996; Buono and Subbiah, 2014; Kanter, 1989; Barnes and Scott, 2012), listed below as:

- Skills: Observation, listening, negotiation, able to judge personalities and interest, influence decision makers/stakeholders/managers and others, facilitate learning, manage the pace of the change program, communicate effectively, inquiring.
- Personal Attributes: independent worker, humble self-confidence, high self-esteem, positive attitude about work, creative, influential, facilitative, leader.
- Abilities: deal with organizational politics, deal with key political agents and opinion formers, take risks, analyze and understand the environment, serve as mentor & role model, navigate underlying political and sociocultural dynamics, go beyond the technical merits of the change program, understand the organizational culture, people and their capabilities.

Furthermore, he/she should actively engage in self-reflection and practical reflexivity to learn about self during the process with little reliance on personal value systems. When responding to situations the change agent should engage reflection rather than automatic responses to situations (Eriksen, 2008; Schon, 1983; Pettigrew, 2003; Spreitzer and Quinn, 1996). She/he needs to avoid self-sacrifice, be clear about what is to be achieved, listening and not acting and doing, increased self-consciousness about the process (Hartley et al., 1997). Change agents can be or are seen as information sources about their field and/or context. The use of feedback and self-disclosure can enable change agents to uncover aspects about themselves and their field which were not previously accessible (Hartley et al., 1997). This practical reflexivity disrupts and open up situations to multiple understandings (Eriksen, 2008), thus allowing for engagement with other participants in the change context. Learnings can be gained by talking about their experiences with others going through similar change processes.

The ability to navigate and lead organizational change: the change agent not only needs to possess the skills of a political entrepreneur and a reflective practitioner, but he/she also needs to have an established support structure around her and be sufficiently detached from any power base so as to be beyond reproach for loyalty and objectivity (Pettigrew, 2003; Spreitzer and Quinn, 1996; Buono and Subbiah, 2014). He/she needs to be empowered with equivalent political status to effectively engage in political power play (Pettigrew, 2003; Spreitzer and Quinn, 1996). When confronted with managing the change process, the role of the change agent becomes one of making sense of the change dynamics as they emerge through their management of language, dialogue and identity (Spreitzer and Quinn, 1996; Ford and Ford, 1995; Ford, 1999; Weick and Quinn, 1999).

Research focused on the reflections of internal change agents reveals the challenges, risks and pitfalls faced when leading the change process.

"…these [internal] change agents often experience a transitory, uncertain and fragile existence. Many internal consultancies experience ongoing concerns about their status, their ability to 'add value' and the nature of the work they are engaged in" (Wylie et al., 2011).

Two key themes which emerged in a study of HR managers acting in the role of internal change agents were related to 1-establishing credibility & status and 2- the ability to add value (Wylie et al., 2011). Furthermore, when acting in the combined role of the researcher as the change agent one can develop a sense of identity with the change process which can at times be unhealthy. Threats to progress can be taken personally giving rise to emotional responses (Pettigrew, 2003). In other words, the agent becomes the change and any criticism of the change process is felt as a personal attack on the agent him/herself. Further shared learnings of change agents revealed the following risks and awareness's: the agent needs to be careful not to take on too much, avoid self-sacrifice, limit the boundaries of the change process to keep it manageable, beware of evangelism, more consciously question interventions, and be realistic in what can be achieved (Hartley et al., 1997). Several reflections of internal change agents revealed the experience of feeling isolated from the rest of the organization (Hartley et al., 1997) when leading a change process, discomfort with their own behaviors and values (Eriksen, 2008) in relation the change they were leading and a lack of control (Pettigrew, 2003) as the process unfolded differently than he/she wanted or intended. Thus, it is important for the agent to be self-aware of his/her own role within the change process and the boundaries and limitations of that role when leading organizational change. To direct or redirect change is to be sensitive to discourse and how dialogue enables groups to create shared sets of meanings (Spreitzer and Quinn, 1996; Ford and Ford, 1995; Ford, 1999).

5. Role Performance as a Change Agent

There have been many contributions to the theory of performativity including cultural studies (Nash, 2000; Thrift, 2000; Thrift, 2005; Thrift, 2007), science and technology studies (Callon, 2007; Latour, 2005b; Mol the Body Multiple, 2002), speech act theory (Austin, 1961; Austin, 1962) and gender studies (Barad, 2003; Butler, 2010). The original meaning can be traced back to the work of Austin (1962) and his notion of ' "performative utterances" - verbal expressions which equate to what is being said (Czarniewska, 2011). Across the many instances of performativity theory the essential insight is that non-verbal forms of expression, language and speech are acting on and in the world (Bramming et al., 2012). My take on performativity is inspired by actor-network theory and science and technology studies (Bramming et al., 2012; Callon and Latour, 1981; Callon, 1998; Latour, 2005a; Latour, 2005b; Law, 1999). Though interesting, I have

chosen not to explore performativity from the perspective of human geography in this study as I do not focus on space, spacing, intensity and affectivity (Thrift, 2000; Thrift, 2005; Thrift, 2007) nor the post-structural feminist perspectives on performativity (Barad, 2003; Butler, 1997; Butler, 2010).

Performativity within the actor-network is grounded in the performances of the actors as they pursue their own interests by engaging in transactions (Callon, 1986; Callon and Latour, 1981; Latour, 1986; Callon, 1991; Latour, 1988). In an examination of the laws of the economic markets, Callon (1998) examines the performativity of economics in shaping the economy and argues it is through the movements or calculative transactions of agents [actor-worlds made up of webs of relations] within the market that the market is shaped. "This means that the agent is neither immersed in the network nor framed by it… Both agent and network are, in a sense, two sides of the same coin" (Callon, 1998). The consequence of this definition is that the actor does not exist without the network and the network does not exist without the actor (Law, 1999). The reality for the actor is done and enacted through her performance and the 'various performances of an object may collaborate and even depend on one another' (Mol, 1999). For a change agent, this means that her performances are ineradicably linked with the performances of the other actors around her as they re-frame (Tsoukas and Chia, 2002) and make sense (Orlikowski and Hofman, 1997) of the change process she is leading, which also serves to define the context of the network in which she finds herself. Through the translation of global to local and then back to global (Latour, 1983; Callon and Latour, 1981), it is the performances of the agent wherein she creates the relationships necessary to render the new state of being durable, that establish both her position within the network and the boundaries of the network itself. As the agent performs, she is defining both the network and her role within that network. This is where the boundaries of the roles of the internal change agent can become blurred (for her) and the role of reflexivity when leading change re-emerges. If the agent is defining both the network and herself, it becomes easy for the agent to fall into the trap of feeling like she is the change (Pettigrew, 2003) as both forms of change for the agent are occurring simultaneously and are interdependent upon each other. Furthermore, if her performances are creating new roles or identities one has to question what happens to the old roles/identities. Where do these roles fit in the new network and if they are not performing, do they still exist? And, how is the agent made aware that there are new roles, new identities or new selves being developed when she is leading the translation process? Is this actually solved by using reflexivity as some authors have argued, or is there another method required? These questions are the ones which are raised in this section, but are not answered in the existing literature. A possible solution to this problem is the use of auto/ethnography as a method for exploration of self when leading organizational change.

6. Auto/ethnography as a method for exploration

Inside of the tool box which can broadly defined as qualitative research, ethnography is listed as one of the various methods which can be chosen (Hartley, 2004). In a traditional ethnographic study, the researcher positions herself inside of the system to be studied and participates in the system and possibly its activities to collect data (Brewer, 2004). In other words, the manager who is asked to become the change agent positions herself inside of the system and its activities.

Two classifications of participant observer roles adopted by the ethnographer, Golds (1958) and Gans (1968) are examined by Bryman& Bell (2007). These roles are shown in the table below.

Golds Classification (1958)	Gans Classification (1968)
Complete Participant – identity not known to the members of the social setting, participant is fully functioning member of the social setting, is a covert observer.	Total Participant – "completely involved in a certain situation and has to resume a researcher stance one the situation has unfolded and write down notes".
Participant as observer – same of the complete participant deviating only in that members are aware of the ethnographers status as a researcher. Researcher is engaged in the normal, daily activities of the social construct and is often employed by the organization.	Researcher-Participant – "where ethnographer participates in a situation but is only semi-involved so she can function fully as a researcher in the course of the situation".
Observer as Participant – researcher is mainly an interviewer, does some observation and little to no participation.	
Complete observer – no interaction with the people.	Total Researcher – "observation without involvement in the situation".

Table 2.
Classifications of participant observer roles (adapted from Bryman and Bell, 2007)

The advantages of Gans's classification, similar to Golds, shows that the types and degrees of involvement and detachment of the ethnographer, ie roles, change through the study. While performing the various participant observer roles there are also various working roles for organizational ethnographers (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

Ethnographer's Role	Consultant	Apprentice	Confidant
Characteristics	Competent, knowledgeable, professional. A credible outsider who secures the trust of management. Exchange of access for knowledge or information, often in the form or a written report or verbal presentation.	Naïve, unthreatening, personable. A younger person who can make herself useful within the organization. Exchange of access for productive labor.	Mature, attentive, trustworthy. An impartial outsider who is able to listen to people's problems. Exchange of access for psychosocial support or therapy.

Table 3.
Three roles for organizational ethnographers (adapted from Bryman and Bell, 2007)

When applying this framework to the timeline of a change project, it can be argued that the working role of the manager turned internal change agent assumes varying forms during the course of the project. She transitions from being an active member of the organizational context in situ but as the change project evolves, the organization progresses and her role as an active member disappears as she further assumes and asserts her identity as the change agent. This thereby changes her role as an organizational ethnographer as well. Using this framework, in combination with the classifications elucidated by Golds, it can be argued that when leading change from inside one's own organization s/he is required to assume various or multiple roles. This is supported by Byrman and Bell (2007) when they state that "clearly these three organizational roles are overlapping and more than one may be adopted in a particular setting. There are also likely to change over time as the fieldwork progresses". In order to effectively manage herself when leading organizational change from the inside and develop a higher level of role awareness the internal change agent requires a deeper method for analyzing herself within the change process that transcends that of the traditional ethnographer and facilitates a deeper level of reflexivity. It is in this area where auto-ethnography provides a potential solution to structuring her examination of self in the role as a change manager when leading change.

In her paper examining the experience of work identity by manager's experience of work at the NHS Mischenko (2005), drawing on the work of Denzin she states that her reason for finding auto/ethnography appealing is due to its ability to show how the personal struggles of an individual are linked to cultural and social meanings. Haynes (2011) states the use of auto/ethnography provides the ability to examine the self in relation of theory and self as other, thus providing a vehicle by which a social phenomenon can be examined through the examination of self. Chamberlayne et al., (2000) state that the use of auto/ethnographical approaches is growing and is being recognized as "a subjective or cultural turn in which personal and social meanings as bases of action gain greater prominence". Haynes (2011) continues on to state that "auto/ethnography encapsulates a personal, intuitive knowledge, deriving from a knowing subject situated in a specific social context".

In their review of existing auto/ethnography literature Doloriet and Sambrook (2012) examine how auto/ethnography can be used to give stories a voice which might otherwise remain silent and introduce three possibilities for organization auto/ethnography. In this work, they (2012) present 3 epistemological points of departure for an auto/ethnographic study: the first being evocative interpretivist through the writing emotional accounts (Ellis and Bochner, 1992), the second is positioned as analytic realism whereby the auto/ethnographic process is supported by an analytical framework (Anderson, 2006) and thirdly, a political radical approach wherein power conflicts and expressions of discursive power

are examined (Moreira, 2007). They (Doloriert and Sambrook, 2012) openly state that these three positions are not necessarily independent of one another and may overlap, whereby it is possible for an auto/ethnography to include multiple positions. Utilizing auto/ethnography in combination with other methods; case study, interviews, document analysis, etc. and follow an existing theoretical framework for the purpose of analysis, lends itself to the second position, analytic realism. In this situation the auto/ethnographer is required to "(1) complete member researcher status, (2) analytic reflexivity, (3) narrative visibility of the researcher's self, (4) a dialogue with informants beyond the self and (5) a commitment to theoretical analysis" (Anderson, 2006).

The utilization of these two positions, evocative interpretivist and analytic realism, within one auto/ethnography is defined by Learmonth and Humphreys (2011) as double auto/ethnography, a position which they argue "seeks to be both evocative, and to have analytic engagement with ideas about identity". As is implied in the term auto, an auto/ethnographic account inherently implies and requires a deep level of reflexivity. The way in which this can be done varies (Perriton, 2001) based on the preferences of the researcher and the research but the requirement of reflexivity remains.

7. Reflexivity in Management Research

Perriton (2001) examines the ways in which authors have incorporated reflexivity into management research and proposes that these methods can be categorized into five different typologies; seemingly accidental, benign, methodology chapter, textual guerilla warfare and socio-political. She proceeds to present a "rough guide to reflexivity" in which she identifies how the method can be identified, its benefits, its weaknesses, who may use it, the validity risks and examples.

How to Spot	Benefits	Weaknesses	Potential Users	Validity Risk Rating
Seemingly Accidental- Liberal use of 'scare' quotes. Culture specific references or puns, Subtle drawing of attention to construction points in the text; Occasional arch and ironic tone; Use of personal pronoun at key turns in the argument.	Can be denied under harsh questioning.	Not taking the subject seriously if overdone. Ethnocentric, Being so subtle that it isn't recognized as reflexivity.	Confident writers. Qualitative researchers in general.	Low. A relatively long-established textual approach.

Table 4.
Typologies of
reflexivity in
management
research (adapted
based on Perriton
2001)

How to Spot	Benefits	Weaknesses	Potential Users	Validity Risk Rating
The Methodology Chapter- Usually labelled quite clearly in a major research work. First person tales usually of selection of method and execution of field work under conditions of duress. Some candor in the confession of mistakes which do not affect the ultimate findings.	Implicitly encouraged in funded research where researchers are appraised partially on the grounds of whether they will make a 'good' researcher in the future. Familiar. Bounded within a part of the narrative and therefore not threatening.	Boring readers with 'first I did this and then I did that' accounts. Being sanitized versions of the 'real' process. Lack of insight into how choices affected the research outcomes.	Everyone	Low Always inherent in the research- -in-exchange- -for-qualification process.
Benign- Classification of self in terms of categories (typically) race, gender and class or occupation. Sentences that start "As a…"	Can be read as part for a strong commitment to the acknowledgement of positionality of researcher and partial nature of their claims. Appears sensitive to the need to be 'politically correct' in a diverse academic population. Low degree of self-disclosure.	Being a cliché. Stopping there. Playing at being politically correct without understanding the reason.	Researcher/practitioners. Researchers in investigating subjects connected to race, gender and class.	Low/Medium A well-established Feminist approach that needs little defending in that tradition.
Textual Guerilla Warfare- It looks different on the page- use of parallel texts, narrative collage, different fonts, poly-vocality. Use of different literary forms incorporated into the academic text e.g. poems, plays, fiction, multi-media, visual cues. Performative text.	Interesting and lively writing. Engaging for readers. Incorporation of wider variety of viewpoints and perspectives through different voices. Immediate challenge to understand the 'artificiality' of textual practices in all research accounts.	Fashionable, faddish and pretentious. Fiction not Fact. Self-absorbed, solipsism. Incorporation of different voices is no less manipulative than normal academic text- it just appears more academic (Ashmore, 1989).	Feminist researchers who believe in identity as performance. Researchers in reflexivity, social construction through language practices. Critical researchers.	Low/Medium It is a relatively recent phenomenon ONLY if diverse textual practices are included alongside 'traditional' text. High/Extremely High- if alternative textual accounts are the only medium for delivery of the research account.

Table 4.
continue

How to Spot	Benefits	Weaknesses	Potential Users	Validity Risk Rating
Socio-Political-Stated identification with a particular policy option. Classification of self in terms of groups which is perceived to be aligned with direct action. Committed to research which has a stated aim of changing the economic, legal or political status of the researched.	Engages the reader on intellectual, emotional and political levels. Seeks to bring about change in the community of the researched rather than studying it with no perceived benefit to the participants.	Judgment of 'catalytic' validity can only be conferred from within the political peer group.	Feminist researchers committed to positive intervention in women's lives. Politically active researchers.	Extremely High. One for those outside of the RAE panoptical.

8. Reflexivity in auto/ethnography

As is implied in the term auto, an auto/ethnographic account inherently implies and requires a deep level of reflexivity. However, the way in which one performs the reflection upon the self can take on various forms. As described in the section above, I have identified the use of two forms of reflexivity in my research; the methodology chapter and textual guerilla warfare (Perriton, 2001). The methodology chapter is of a more straightforward nature, taking the form of storytelling as I traveled through the study itself. I take the reader through my decision making process and explain my methodological choices. However, when conducting textual guerilla warfare there were many roads that would lead to Rome.

In his work Margins of Philosophy Derrida (1982) presents us with just that, a page which is split in two with main text residing to the left and his interpretative reflection of the text in the margin to the right. Drawing on the work of Derrida and Freud as her ontological frame, Ronai (1998) uses a layered account where she "teases out" her relationship with an informant as well as reflects upon her multiple roles as a researcher and a striptease dancer. Textually this is accomplished by splitting the page into horizontal layers, thus splitting the sty story into different layers, or sections, which when layered upon one another provide the story as a whole. Also drawing on the work of Derrida, Rhodes (2000) presents the notion of pragmatic reading as introduced by (Cherryholmes, 1993) wherein the same story can be read from different perspectives, in this case feminist, critical and

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deconstructive. Looking back to the layered account provided by Ronai (1998), it could be argued that she does the same, presenting multiple readings of the same story; without the pre-determined classifications, and using a different stylistic presentation.

This concept of the multi-layered/multi-story /multi-reading account is also used by Learmonth and Humphreys (2011) in their auto/ethnographic exploration of academic identity. They provide multiple accounts of the same event written over time, thus engaging with different versions of self. This introduces the concept of multiple selves into the plane of the multi-perspective story, thus raising the idea of reflexivity from one on process, to one on multiple roles, multiple perspectives to multiple selves within the time-space continuum. In other words, the act of the present self reflecting upon the self in situ, presented in a two dimensional text. They (Learmonth and Humphreys, 2011) approach this task by presenting their reflections on attending a conference next to each other on the page, hence first showing the two perspective approach of one phenomenon. They then at a later date, perform the same task, but this time using a past view, what they refer to as their Mr. Hyde, of the conference, thus layering the time element onto the same event.

Another approach to presenting a multi-layered reflexive account is used by Mischenko (2005) in her work on managerial identities. She presents her story in the form of a poem split into three sections; Pressure, Escape and The Return. As is implied in the titles of the three sections, the poem is time based, telling her story of being at work. Through the introduction of the poetry, Mischenko (2005) also introduces the concept of another self, or I, similar to that of Learmonth and Humphreys (2011). In their examination of the co-creation/ production process Orr and Bennett (2012) also employ a polyphonic reflexive account to present and analyze their dialogues as they worked together to construct and organize their collaborative research.
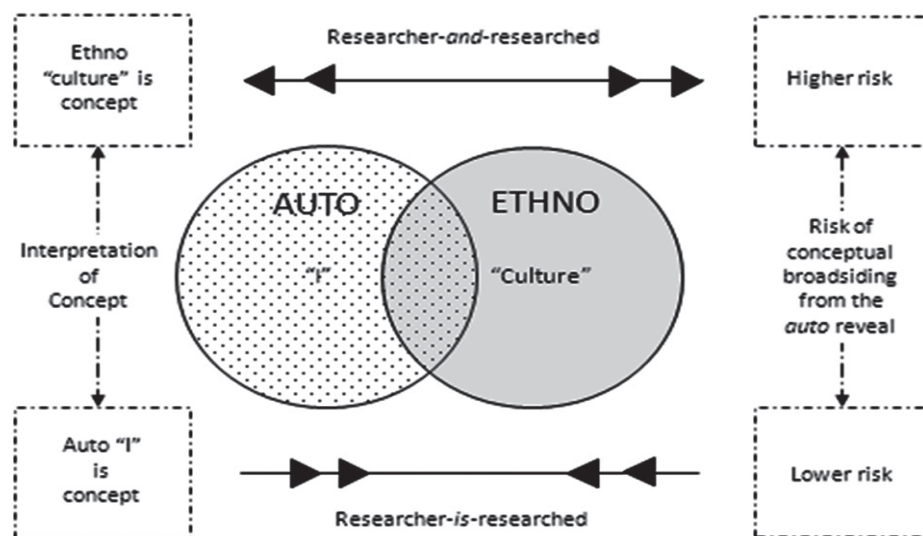
9. Criticisms of auto/ethnography

While the use of auto/ethnography in management studies is increasing, it is not an approach which is without criticism. In their review of auto/ethnographical literature Doloriet and Sambrook (2012) provide a comprehensive overview of the various arguments against auto/ethnography, even going so far as to state that it is "loathed by some". Dealmont (2007) describes it as being lazy and presents 6 objections to auto/ethnography "1. It cannot fight familiarity, 2. It cannot be published ethically, 3. It is experiential not analytic, 4. It focuses on the wrong side of the power divide, 5. It abrogates our duty to go out and collect data, 6. We are not interesting enough to be the subject matter of sociology", Hammersley (2010) views it as unethical due to the use of taxpayer dollars to explore what he defines as art as opposed to actual social science. Further criticisms are related to the use

of self as the object of focus and include those of Coffey (1999), calling auto/ethnography egotistical, Atkinson (1997) recalling it as a romantic construction and Sparkes (2000) who openly calls a colleague utilizing the approach as an "academic wank".

This concern about the focus or use of self is not unfounded as even in the context of the supporters of auto/ethnography, there is discussion about the pitfalls into which the researcher can fall. In a paper which examines the use of auto/ethnography for a PhD study, Doloriet and Sambrook (2009) examine the challenges faced when writing up and defending an auto/ethnographic account. Morse (2002) discourages students from using auto/ethnography out of concern for the risk of 'conceptual broadsiding', wherein the writer focuses on herself rather than the culture and research question. This concept of conceptual broadsiding is related to the way in which the auto/ethnographer utilizes her examination of self within the study; either as researcher and researched or researcher is researched; also known as the auto reveal (Doloriet and Sambrook, 2009). In the auto-reveal the researcher uses a personal story, experience, reflection, vignette, poem, etc. (which serves as the revelation of self) as a way to engage the reader with the phenomenon being studied (Doloriert and Sambrook, 2009). In other words, the revelation of self provides the vehicle by which the social can be examined, viewed and or explained. The risk in the auto reveal, as is highlighted by Morse (2002) is where the writer's personal experience overtakes the focus of the study,

Figure 1.
A theoretical framework of "auto" reveal for autoethnography

thus shifting the focus away from the topic under investigation and onto the writer herself. Therefore, the choice of which elements (stories and critical moments) to reveal is critical to the success of an auto/ethnographic account. Grey (1998) argues that "reflexivity is more than the recognition of the subject-position of the researcher. It is also about recognition of the different meanings which may structure the understandings both of the research subjects and the readers of an account…". To deal with this issue Behar (1996) that the auto reveal should be "essential to the argument, not a decorative flourish, not exposure for its own sake". It is against this backdrop that Doloriet and Sambrook (2009) present a theoretical framework of auto reveal for auto/ethnography.

Through examination of this framework it becomes evident that the reason for using auto/ethnography and the risk of conceptual broadsiding are directly linked to the choice for using self; either using the researcher is researched wherein self is the concept being studied or the researcher and researched where by culture is the concept and self is used as a way of reflecting the greater culture or ethos (Doloriert and Sambrook, 2009; Doloriert and Sambrook, 2012). Techniques that the auto/ethnographer can utilize to minimize the risk of conceptual broadsiding is to use multiple readers and reviewers of the study, include supporting data (interviews, observations, communications, etc.) as a means to achieve triangulation of data or use a timeline of events to structure the auto reveal elements of the study. Another option is to use a theoretical frame to provide a structured approach to how the author's experience is analyzed. It is imperative that the change agent select a method which is appropriate to her and the managerial context in which she is operating.

10. Conclusions and Implications for Future Research

This paper has examined the possibility for using auto/ethnography as a means for examining the self when leading organizational change from inside one's own organization. A review of the concept of planned change and the skills required of internal change agents shows that in order to lead change the manager must assume a new identity; the internal change agent, which is inherently linked to the rational goals of the project she is leading. This rational role is crystalized through her managerial performances as the change agent, resulting in the development of a new identity, the internal change agent. This paradoxical relationship between the change agent and the rational planned change process creates issues for the internal change agent as her identity becomes ineradicably linked to the change and can result in an unhealthy emotional attachment to the project. The agent becomes dependent on the project to define her identity and the project dependent on the agent for its existence. An identified method of coping with this identity crisis is to employ reflexivity or in other terms engage in self-reflection when leading change. However, how this reflexive process should be carried out has

not been clearly defined. This paper presents auto/ethnography as a potential method to facilitate self-reflection when leading change. The pros and cons of auto/ethnography have been presented and the different methods of how auto/ethnography can be applied discussed. Future research is needed into how this method can be adapted to suit managers who are not researchers and for what types of support are needed to facilitate a structured reflexive process.

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