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Faculty of Economics, Business and Management Sciences

Handout:

Organizational Behavior

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Foreword

Organizational Behavior (OB) is a dynamic and vital field that examines the relationships between individuals, groups, and the broader organization. This handout serves as an introduction to the essential concepts and frameworks that shape how individuals behave within organizations, how teams interact, and how organizational structures and cultures influence overall performance.

Each chapter of this handout is designed to offer a clear overview of key topics such as motivation, perception, communication, leadership, and ethics in the workplace. It also explores more advanced concepts like group dynamics, organizational culture, and the role of diversity-topics that are increasingly important in today's fast-changing work environments.

As you progress through this content, you'll gain insight into how organizational behavior theories can be applied in real-world contexts to improve decision-making, enhance team performance, and foster a healthy organizational culture. One of the core themes explored in this handout is how understanding individual and group behavior can lead to better management practices and more effective leadership strategies.

This handout also touches on some of the challenges organizations face today, including managing workplace stress, employee engagement, and retention. It encourages reflection on how these challenges can be addressed by fostering a more supportive, inclusive, and adaptive work environment.

The concepts presented here aim to help you better understand the intricate factors that shape behavior within organizations. By familiarizing yourself with these ideas, you will be better equipped to navigate and manage the complexities of organizational life and contribute to the continuous improvement of any workplace you are a part of.

Introduction

Organizational Behavior (OB) represents a considerable and intricate body of knowledge dedicated to the exploration of organizations, groups, and the individuals who comprise those organizations. It is widely assumed that a variety of working arrangements emerge from the prevailing social and economic conditions characteristic of developed economies. This leads to the formation of organizations, teams, and projects that collectively engage in a multitude of tasks to achieve common goals. Organizational Behavior is broadly defined as the study of the various attitudes and behaviors exhibited within organizations. It encompasses the investigation of how individual attitudes and behaviors influence the overall functioning of organizations, as well as how the organizational structure, policies, and culture in turn affect individual attitudes and behaviors. Given the inherent ambiguity in such definitions, Organizational Behavior increasingly captures contemporary interest, surpassing that of either traditional organization theory or individual psychology in terms of relevance. The scope of Organizational Behavior seeks to elucidate the individual thoughts and behavioral patterns found within organizational settings, while also striving to understand the intricate relationship between events occurring within and outside the workplace. Such events significantly influence and ultimately shape both organizational perspectives and behavior. It is this complex interplay of factors that makes the field of Organizational Behavior both critical and captivating in its aim to comprehend how people interact in work environments. (Cook, 1995)(J. Vorwerk, 1997)

Despite OB's contemporary interest and relevance in today's world, it is classic in terms of its breadth and significant diversity. Within the field of Organizational Behavior (OB), there exists very little consensus regarding a common language or a universally accepted starting point for comprehensively understanding the intricate interplay of thoughts, behaviors, and the various consequences stemming from actions and decisions made within organizations. Among the myriad of foci that exist within OB, this particular text carefully confines itself to exploring the key processes of sensemaking and decision-making. These processes are inherently influenced by the prior knowledge that individuals possess about the organization's established work systems, as well as their past experiences. In simpler terms, this encompasses the impact of shared beliefs within the organization, as well as the repercussions of prior successes and

failures when faced with situations that bear similarity to the one currently being deliberated upon. Sensemaking is primarily concerned with understanding the ways in which unfamiliar or unexpected events can become comprehensible and meaningful to individuals within the organization. In contrast, decision-making processes are primarily focused on evaluating the various alternative courses of action that can be taken, all of which must be assessed within the framework of the current understanding of the situation at hand. When we refer to the concept of "thinking outside the box", it emphasizes the importance of the ability to see beyond traditional frames of reference. It also highlights the capability to reformulate the situation and develop alternative meanings, which is at least equally important as the ability to generate original ideas or evaluate existing alternatives. A diverse range of thinking capabilities that contribute to these processes can be categorized under the broader themes of creativity and innovation as they relate to the sub-area of decision-making within OB. To begin with, the phenomenon by which a currently salient framing of a situation emerges significantly influences the extent to which individuals can engage in creative thinking and effective decision-making. The frames that are activated in individuals' minds serve as mental models that shape their perceptions, judgments, and ultimately, their choices. As such, the way in which a situation is framed can either facilitate or hinder creative thought and innovative solutions, making it a critical aspect of understanding how decisions are made and how actions are executed within organizations.

Chapter 1. Theoretical foundations of organizational behavior

After providing a common introduction that broadly discusses the meaning and significance of a subdiscipline, along with some opening remarks addressing the sources and the complementary nature of the purchased materials utilized in this context, the presentation then transitions into the various areas encompassing the theoretical foundations, diverse approaches, and the methods pertinent to the study of organizational behavior. It highlights the necessity of alternative methodological assumptions that may enhance the understanding of this field. The emphasis is placed on the utilization of multi-method approaches, which are essential for thoroughly examining the complex behavior being studied, irrespective of an underlying methodological assumption that may initially guide the research. Furthermore, proposals are put forward for adopting a quasi-experimental design research strategy specifically tailored for organizational settings. This strategy emphasizes the importance of using direct measures of behaviors, which should take conceptual precedence over traditional fieldwork and the development of instrumentation. An initial attempt is made to systematically classify the existing literature that addresses the use of available organizational measures and indices, showcasing the practical feasibility and advantages of this approach. While there exists a significant amount of theoretical writings focused on the subject of 'non-resistance' to change, it is important to note that the exhaustive development of direct measures in this regard remains in a relatively nascent state. Consequently, future research in examining this theoretical area becomes critically important and is highlighted as a key focus. In drawing conclusions, the emphasis is placed on the future research directions that are necessary for developing sophisticated instruments capable of tapping into significant theoretical topics. Moreover, there is a call to further elaborate on alternative approaches and paradigm-like methodologies, encouraging a draw from the established base as well as the theories, methods, and findings from allied disciplines that can enrich this field. In conclusion, criticisms are made regarding the urgent need for a broader and more inclusive conception of organizational factors. This extends to addressing the negative implications and inherent vagueness that are associated with the 'black box' concept that often characterizes complex organizational dynamics, along with the observed scarcity of extensive and integrated longitudinal studies in this area. Acknowledgment is also given to the complex situation faced by researchers who possess

limited behavioral information that includes longitudinal data, stressing that this challenge is recognized and merits attention. (Luthans & R.V. Davis, 1982)

Chapter 2. Motivation in the workplace

Successful organisations have a clear understanding of the fundamental concept that employee motivation plays a crucial role in their overall success and longevity. Motivated employees are not only happy but also incredibly productive and deeply committed to their work. They exhibit high levels of engagement and enthusiasm, which can greatly enhance the workplace atmosphere. Employees tend to feel encouraged and valued when organisational systems and structures are in place that actively discourage workplace demoralisation, negative attitudes, and unethical practices. These positive systems foster an environment that nurtures motivation, which is absolutely the key ingredient that serves as the source for creating an atmosphere where optimal performance can thrive. When employees are incentivised toward achieving better performance, increased productivity, and higher motivation, they naturally become more satisfied with their roles and contributions. Satisfaction leads to a more harmonious workplace, where individuals feel connected to their work and to the organisational goals. The research we are undertaking is intended for all levels of organisations, from entry-level employees to upper management, who seek to gain insights into the comprehensive needs and expectations of their employees. Understanding these motivational needs is essential for fostering a healthy workplace culture. Motivation itself is one of the pivotal ingredients that contribute significantly to enhancing employee performance and productivity, serving as the lifeblood of any successful organisation. Motivation is defined as the complex psychological forces that collectively determine the direction of a person’s behaviour in an organisational context. It influences the level of effort a person puts forth and their level of persistence when faced with various obstacles that could hinder their progress. This intricate concept describes not only the conscious processes but also the unconscious mechanisms that lead to the behaviours individuals employ to achieve specific goals. Therefore, motivation can be aptly described as the forces that energize, direct, and sustain a person's efforts over time, ensuring that they remain focused and driven in their pursuit of success within the organisation. (Ezigbo, 2012)

There is a significant relationship between motivation and satisfaction, and motivation and work performance. A review of relevant literature indicates that economic rewards, intrinsic satisfaction, and social relationship are the needs and expectations of people at work. They are the three forces of motivation too. There is a need to clarify the major theories of motivation and evaluate their relevance to the work situation. There is a need to understand the relationship between motivation, job satisfaction, and work performance, as this will decide the success or otherwise of the organisation. While the behaviour of people at work contributes significantly to the success of the organisation, the conditions under which people's potential can be maximally harnessed to enhance productivity are not very well understood. Motivated employees are likely retained and they ensure company loyalty. Such discussion on the incentive programme may be conducted at work or some convenient locations, and will provide an opportunity to gain additional insights into how people at work react to the proposed programme. Organised discussions should involve a variety of discussions techniques, such as large group meetings, small group discussions and confidential individual interviews, in order to accommodate a wide variety of attitudes to group processes. This would require emphasis to be placed on group processes so that norms about acceptable behaviour within the organisation are discussed.

2.1. A comprehensive overview of diverse theories and perspectives surrounding motivation

This conceptual paper elaborates on the significant role that motivation plays within organizations and delves into the Self-Determination Theory, which is a distinctive and valuable approach to understanding human motivation and personality. This theory is rooted in the premise that human beings possess evolved inner resources that are critical for personality development and effective behavioral self-regulation. Furthermore, the paper discusses various management implications of this theory, aiming to enhance employee motivation and ultimately improve the overall performance of organizations. Examining the study of motivation reveals a focus on the diverse factors that incite an individual's activities in their pursuit of achievable goals and rational decision-making processes. The evolution of motivation theories in management can be traced from the 1910s to the 1960s, featuring foundational approaches pioneered by influential thinkers such as Frederick Taylor, who was

renowned for his scientific management principles, and Douglas McGregor, who contributed significantly to the human relations movement. Taylor's methodology emphasizes the need to maximize labor efficiency among employees, positing that they are driven by motivations that encompass more than simply monetary rewards. On the other hand, McGregor introduced two contrasting beliefs concerning human behavior, which he labeled Theory X and Theory Y. In contemporary discussions, theories of motivation can be categorized into two primary directions: Content theories and Process theories. Content theories of motivation concentrate on what specifically energizes and stimulates individual behavior. The principal content theories include Maslow's hierarchy of needs model, which outlines a progression of human needs; Alderfer's modified need hierarchy model, which refines Maslow's ideas; Herzberg's two-factor theory, which distinguishes between hygiene factors and motivators; and McClelland's achievement motivation theory, which targets the influence of achievement needs on performance. Conversely, Process theories of motivation shed light on the specific work-related factors that provoke employees to engage in motivated behavior. These theories encompass expectancy-based models, equity theory, goal-setting theory, and attribution theory. To further investigate this subject, a comprehensive survey was conducted at the libraries of the University of Lagos to assess various aspects impacting the staff, aiming to identify effective motivation strategies. Fifty-eight questionnaires were meticulously distributed among the staff, and the analysis yielded forty-five valid responses. The findings revealed that crucial factors such as financial incentives, quality working conditions, praise and recognition, fostering understanding among staff members, and access to health facilities emerge as significant motivators that contribute to optimal performance levels. Examination of the demographic factors indicated six variables: gender, age, marital status, years of experience in library service, qualification, and level of education. However, one demographic variable, namely the location of the library, exhibited no significant difference regarding work factors. Based on comprehensive analysis and interpretation of the survey results, several recommendations have been proposed. Library managers, heads of departments, and senior staff are encouraged to prioritize the planning of staff motivation strategies, taking adequate time and effort to assess and address the specific requirements and preferences of their staff members effectively. Understanding these dynamics can lead to a more motivated workforce and, consequently, enhanced organizational performance.

Fig 1.Opportunities for satisfaction in Maslow's hierarchy of human needs

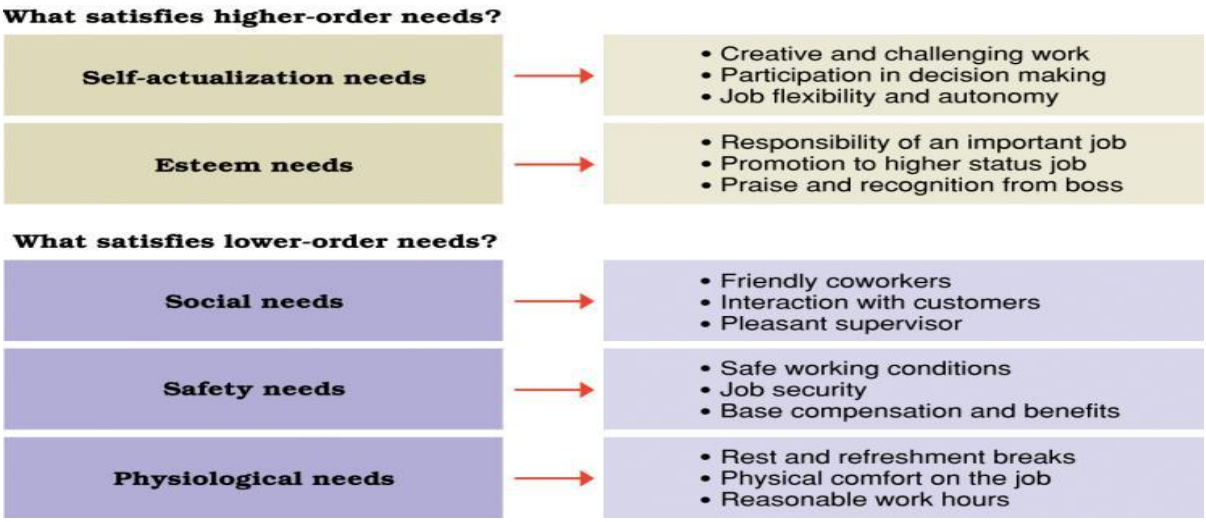


Fig 2. ERG theory, developed by Clayton Alderfer (Three need levels)

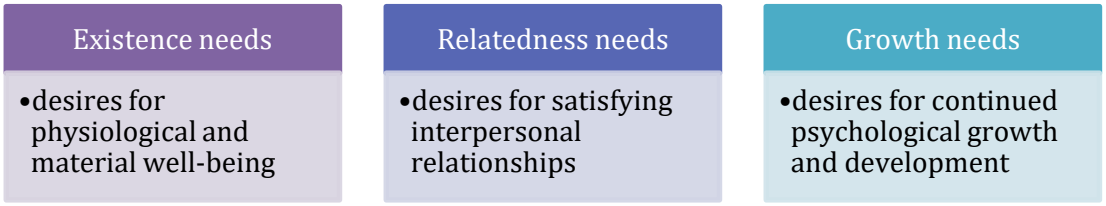


Fig 3. ERG Theory (Aldefer)

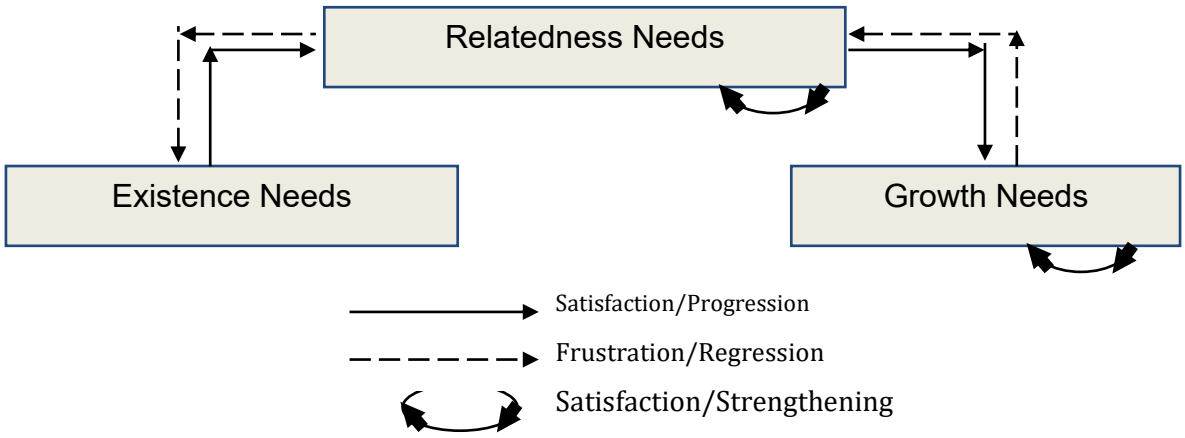
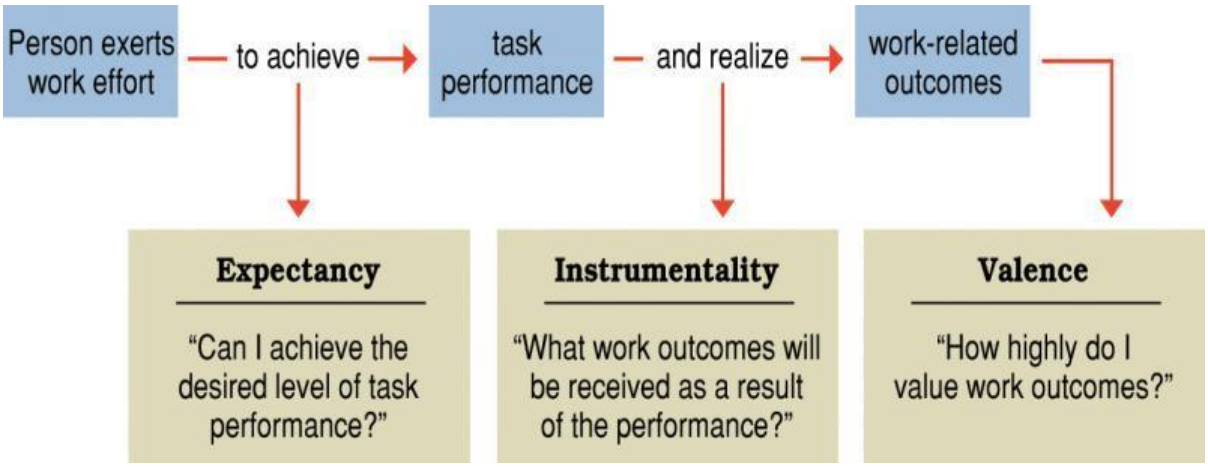


Fig 4. Elements in the expectancy theory of motivation



Expectancy Theory, con't

Force: the motivation to choose a particular course of action.

$$Force = E\sum(V * I)$$

Where:

E= Expectancy (probability that effort leads to performance)

V=Valence (rating of how satisfying various rewards will be)

I=Instrumentality (relationship between taking this option and gaining this reward)

2.2. Intrinsic vs. Extrinsic motivation

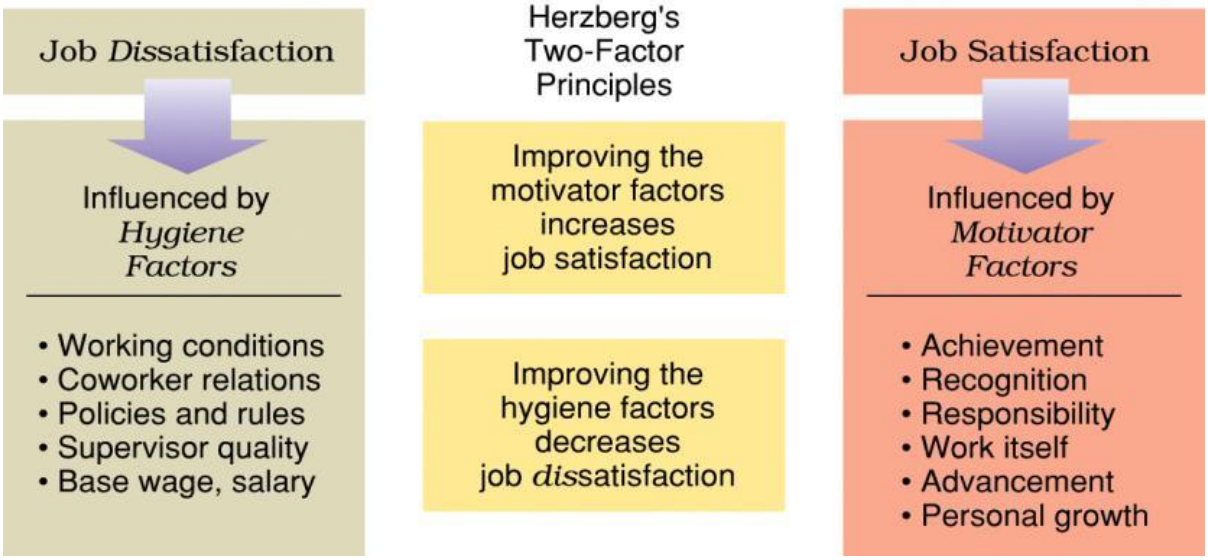
Motivational actions can be distinguished based on whether the focus is primarily on a specific goal or the activity itself. Activities, such as "thinking creatively," may be considered intrinsically rewarding, offering personal satisfaction and fulfillment that comes from the mere act of engaging in them. In contrast, goals, such as "working harder" or "attaining an A," may not be perceived as intrinsically rewarding; instead, they might be more about achieving specific outcomes or fulfilling external expectations. Goal-directed actions, however, have little to do with the notion of engaging in or disengaging from an activity that is intrinsically rewarding and enjoyable. An insightful understanding of the difference between intrinsic rewards, which come from within, and explicit rewards, which are tied to external validation, can be drawn from Maslow's framework of mental health needs. According to Maslow, money can be seen as a medicine for bodily deficiency; however, he cautions that using it excessively in an attempt to compensate for organic deficiency is a pathway to ill health and unresolved issues. The distinction between separate reward types is perhaps more pronounced than one might imagine. When one is under the age of twenty-five, the primary objective tends to be self-actualization, meaning the act of doing things purely for their own sake and personal enjoyment. Outside this developmental period, rewards that are independent of the activity itself gradually cease to provide motivation over time, shifting focus back to intrinsic values and personal growth. (Burton Daniels, 2012)

Motivation theories encompass a diverse range of concepts and ideas, extending from extremely broad constructs that capture the overall essence of motivation to specific theories that focus primarily on achievement-related aspects. These theories, particularly those that are broad in scope, delve into enduring patterns of cognition, behavior, and emotional responses that influence how individuals are motivated to act. There is a significant commonality among these overarching theories as they work collectively to identify, delineate, and organize the various motives that drive individuals toward their goals and objectives. In doing so, they essentially provide what can be conceptualized as a toolbox approach for understanding motivation comprehensively. Approaches with a wider focus on motivation encompass and intricately describe essential concepts, such as the important distinctions between intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation. Additionally, they explore the critical differences that exist between conscious and unconscious motives that propel people to pursue certain actions or

goals. The nuances of these differences have been extensively documented in a wealth of psychological literature, which provides ample evidence and insights into the factors influencing human behavior. Furthermore, various validated measures are widely accessible for assessing the differences between various motives, adding to a deeper understanding of how motivation operates on both individual and collective levels. However, the more concentrated and specific achievement theories present a notable divergence in both content and conceptualization, shining a light on the factors that particularly drive achievement. In the realm of achievement needs, these specialized theories exhibit variation in authority and application, which is contingent upon the specific context in which they are applied, thereby reflecting the complexities of motivational dynamics in different settings and scenarios.

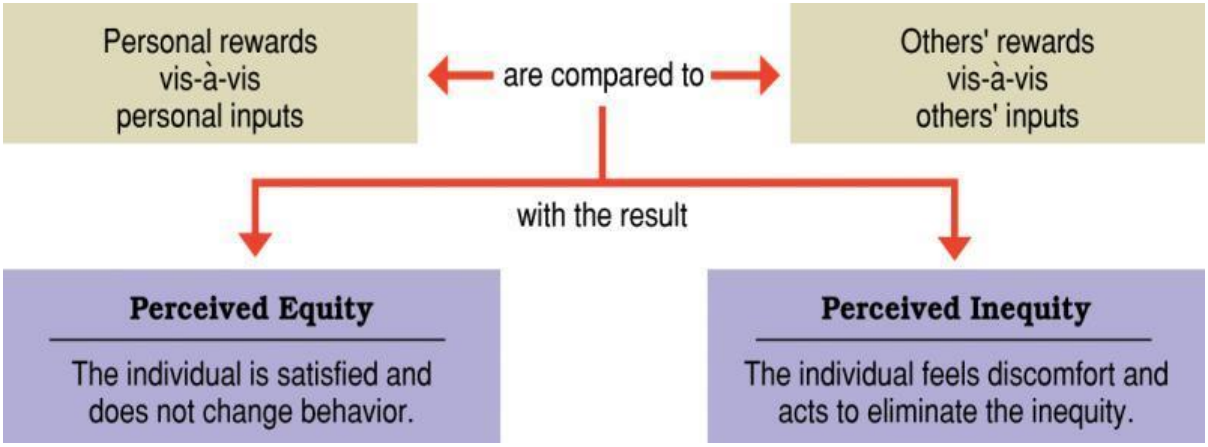
In a workplace context, achievement is most commonly regarded as the need for achievement (nAch). However, it is essential to recognize that achievement can also depend on several other prevalent concerns, such as fear of failure (fFm), affiliation (nAff), or power (nPow). The concept of nAch fires a desire for success, often described as success motivation, while nAff drives an individual's motivation toward seeking intimacy and forming close relationships, which is also known as intimacy motivation. Additionally, nPow plays a crucial role by acting on the principle of enforcement, which leads to competitive motivation among peers and colleagues in various organizational structures. It is what is here of utmost importance to understand regarding the distinct qualities of the various motives that reside in people's minds, or personal standards – in essence, what individuals consciously work toward or strive to achieve in their professional lives.

Fig 5. Herzberg's two-factor theory



This understanding of the motivations behind behavior can help clarify not only why certain individuals excel in their roles but also what influences their interactions with others. Understanding these different dimensions of motivation can significantly impact productivity and workplace dynamics in many ways. Thus, comprehending how these varied motives interact with each other is vital for fostering a fulfilling and productive work environment where individuals can thrive while feeling supported by their colleagues and the organizational structure as a whole. By paying attention to these factors, organizations can create strategies that harness these motivational forces to enhance cooperation, performance, and job satisfaction among employees.

Fig 6. Equity theory and the role of social comparison



2.3. Motivational strategies

Motivating employees is undoubtedly one of the most crucial responsibilities that management must undertake in any organization. One of the most widely recognized and referenced theories of motivation when it comes to the workplace is undoubtedly Maslow's hierarchy of needs. According to this well-known theory, it is widely shared that people are only truly motivated after their needs at the lower levels are reasonably satisfied and addressed. At the most fundamental physiological level, both money and benefits are critical for individuals. In order to survive in their daily lives, people must have roofs over their heads and food consistently placed on their tables. If this particular area of need is only partially satisfied, employees will undoubtedly be worried about their job security and will start looking elsewhere for opportunities that provide better stability. Once the physiological needs are met and satisfied, the focus shifts to safety needs, followed by social needs, esteem needs, and ultimately, the needs for self-actualization come into play in the broader sense. Formulated another way, we can say that motivational strategies can be effectively divided into various categories, including recognition, opportunities for growth and advancement, interesting and engaging work, competitive pay, job security, quality supervision, and adequate working conditions, among other factors. An ideal situation would be to find a perfect motivator that addresses all the diverse needs mentioned above, but most of the time, management faces trade-offs that must be carefully negotiated and navigated. Nevertheless, some basic principles hold true regarding effective motivational strategies that can inspire and engage employees properly. (Kheyfets, 2008)

The most important point is to keep the workforce happy and satisfied. Employee retention and motivation starts with a recruiting process that finds suitable candidates that match job requirements. Announcing a strategy that portrays optimism and motivation is important as well. Management should strive to show interest in employees and open channels of direct communication. People on the production floor must see a positive change in behavior from operations managers to lower-level management. This change must be based on fundamental honest beliefs, not just lip service, for it to be effective.

A very important channel of communication between management and employees exists in the virtual suggestion box. A great deal of trust has been put in this device, so it must be used to share information with employees. It is ideal if at least one point is addressed each week. All correspondence must be factual and detailed to show seriousness when drafting these messages. It should never come across as pretentious, but rather as a significant effort to explain the business situation and what has been done accordingly. Some messages must also show appreciation of a job well done. Calls for suggestions and complaints must be addressed as well. At this stage, trust and information sharing will enable the perception of participation in the decision-making process of the employees.

Chapter 3. Perception and its impact on organizational behavior

People perceive and interpret their workplace in different ways related to their hierarchical position in the organization. Managers, supervisors, and workers have different perspectives regarding the informality of rules, clarity of organizational goals, and job satisfaction. Workers' attitudes toward their organization can exert a negative effect on their feelings and behavior, and have detrimental consequences for the achievements of the organization. On the other hand, positive attitudes can encourage improved performance and high-level productivity. The importance of positive attitudes is particularly well reflected in the realm of professional and human services; when employees perceive and identify with the high values of their organization, quality services can be expected, leading to better lives for its beneficiaries. Perceived reality is a subjective and constructed experience based on inferencing about situations and events, rather than a direct reflection of reality. Nevertheless, it is widely understood that subjective perception can and does affect people's behavior, attitudes, decision-making, and more (Sherer, 1998). Compared to organizational behavior perception studies, far fewer studies have empirically examined perceptions of organizational characteristics as a function of population workforce position levels. examines the perceptions of organizational characteristics maintained by three levels of human service organization employees: Managers, supervisors, and line workers. Results reveal that the higher the organizational position of the subject, the more positive are the subject's perceptions concerning the organization. Nature, Explicitness, Formlessness, Clarity, and Experience measures indicate significant differences among subjects' perceived organizational characteristics. The positions, roles, and perceptions of staff are of particular importance in human service organizations (HSO), whose core activities consist of relations between staff and clients. These relations are the essence of the job, and therefore, strategies considered well thought out do not guarantee their successful application. By contrast, a lack of understanding and a negative attitude can thwart great plans of action and can turn matters contrary to the interest of the organization. Hence, employees are considered to be in the front line of the organization as the key players that determine the behavior of targets, intermediaries, and policy makers toward the organization. The Goel Committee in 1991 stated the significance of the organization’s attitudinal capital regarding its reliability and the resources within it to help its achievement. The way employees perceive and

interpret what is happening in the organization is of key importance, since their “narrative” determines employees’ self-esteem, job satisfaction, and production levels.

3.1. Understanding perception

The topic of perception, like the topic of movement seems not to lend itself to an all-encompassing definition. It is not easy to define perception, since it seems to be uniquely human (P Pearson, 1992). It is also a complex and multidimensional phenomenon, and has been examined and interpreted from many perspectives.

3.2. Perceptual biases in the workplace

People often make the assumption that they possess greater skills and abilities than the average individual in nearly any field in which they take part. A fascinating experiment conducted revealed that over 90% of drivers in the United States considered themselves to be above average when it comes to driving safety. This phenomenon of overestimation is not isolated to the realm of driving; it permeates social groups, including those found in various workplaces and teams, or departmental settings, where individuals display similar tendencies. Within these environments, it’s common for at least a handful of individuals to typically view themselves as having superior people skills, excelling particularly in analysis, or, generally speaking, being smarter than their colleagues. Unfortunately, this consistent illusion of superiority can lead to a significant misperception among individuals. Employees often convince themselves that the quality of the decisions made by their company is much higher than it truly is. Not only do employees regard themselves as having better skills than their peers, but they also tend to overestimate the impact that their decisions have on the overall success of the company. They frequently believe that their own unique ideas and proposals wield the most considerable influence over the final outcomes. This particular mindset not only blinds them to recognizing the substantial value of others' contributions within their teams, but it also causes individuals to cling stubbornly to their own opinions for extended periods, often to their own detriment. Moreover, people are typically volatile beings of energy, with their recollections and perceptions being heavily influenced by the most recent events in their lives, which tend to overshadow longer-term considerations and reflections. For instance, if a company experiences

an extraordinarily poor sales month, it can distort benchmark models of success and expectations. This single atypical month may be inaccurately generalized to unfairly represent the company's yearly statistics, thereby disregarding a multitude of critical details that genuinely affect sales figures. These details may include seasonal variations, fluctuations in pricing strategies, modifications in advertising approaches, and the broader economic context that influences consumer behavior. Additionally, individuals often neglect to contemplate external factors that play a crucial role when making decisions in a professional context. For example, when determining the timing for triggering a bonus for a deserving co-worker, considerations might revolve around how this decision is perceived within the organization as a whole and how it may influence group dynamics, rather than focusing exclusively on evaluating the true merits or work performance of the co-worker in question. Research has consistently shown that individuals do not follow a standardized approach to decision-making, as it involves a variety of subjective influences. People are inherently not independent in their reference points when it comes to making critical decisions. It is apparent that individuals' beliefs about their colleagues significantly influence their choices and rationalizations. In a workplace where a professional harbors suspicions that their co-workers indulge in cheating or slacking off, it may become far easier for that professional to engage in similar behaviors as a coping mechanism, ultimately leading to reduced effort or commitment at work. Reference points, it turns out, significantly shape decision-making processes in intricate ways. Taking the realm of awards as an example, one can observe that individuals' choices regarding their participation or performance do not diminish the likelihood of someone else winning an award; prior to a competition, the probability of an individual winning is directly linked to the number of participants and the total awards allocated. Nonetheless, after the awards have been distributed, the resulting outcomes can appear arbitrary to those who had taken part, particularly when one considers the time and effort that several competitors invested leading up to the event. The contrast between the pre-competition expectations and the post-event outcomes reveals how dramatically perceptions can shift, influencing both the individual experience of participants and the collective understanding of fairness, equity, and merit in competitive environments. (Noel, 2019)(Hack Katz, 1995)

Key points in defining perception in management include:

1. Interpretation of Information: Perception involves how individuals interpret and give meaning to the information they receive. It's influenced by personal experiences, beliefs, attitudes, values, and expectations.
2. Selective Attention: People tend to selectively pay attention to certain aspects of information while ignoring others. In a managerial context, this can impact decision-making and problem-solving.
3. Organization of Information: Perceptions are organized into patterns and structures. Managers might categorize information based on similarities, past experiences, or existing frameworks.
4. Subjectivity: Perception is subjective, meaning it varies from person to person. Different individuals may perceive the same situation differently based on their unique backgrounds and perspectives.
5. Influence on Decision Making: Managers' perceptions shape their decisions and actions within an organization. How they perceive challenges, opportunities, and people impacts the strategies they adopt and the ways they lead.
6. Communication: Perception affects how messages are conveyed and received within an organization. Understanding differences in perception can enhance communication effectiveness.
7. Bias and Stereotypes: Perceptions can be influenced by biases, stereotypes, and preconceived notions, which can impact how managers interact with employees and make judgments. Understanding perception in management is crucial because it impacts communication, decision-making, conflict resolution, and organizational behavior. Managers who are aware of their own and others' perceptions can navigate challenges more effectively and create a more inclusive and understanding work environment.

Errors and Biases in Attributions (cont'd):

Self-Serving Bias

The tendency for individuals to attribute their own successes to internal factors while putting the blame for failures on external factors.

Selective Perception

People selectively interpret what they see on the basis of their interests, background, experience, and attitudes.

Halo Effect

Drawing a general impression about an individual on the basis of a single characteristic.

Contrast Effects

Evaluation of a person's characteristics that are affected by comparisons with other people recently encountered who rank higher or lower on the same characteristics.

Projection

Attributing one's own characteristics to other people.

Stereotyping

Judging someone on the basis of one's perception of the group to which that person belongs.

Specific applications in organizations

- **Employment Interview**
  - Perceptual biases of raters affect the accuracy of interviewers' judgments of applicants.
- **Performance Expectations**
  - Self-fulfilling prophecy (*pygmalion effect*): The lower or higher performance of employees reflects preconceived leader expectations about employee capabilities.
- **Ethnic Profiling**

- A form of stereotyping in which a group of individuals is singled out—typically on the basis of race or ethnicity—for intensive inquiry, scrutinizing, or investigation.

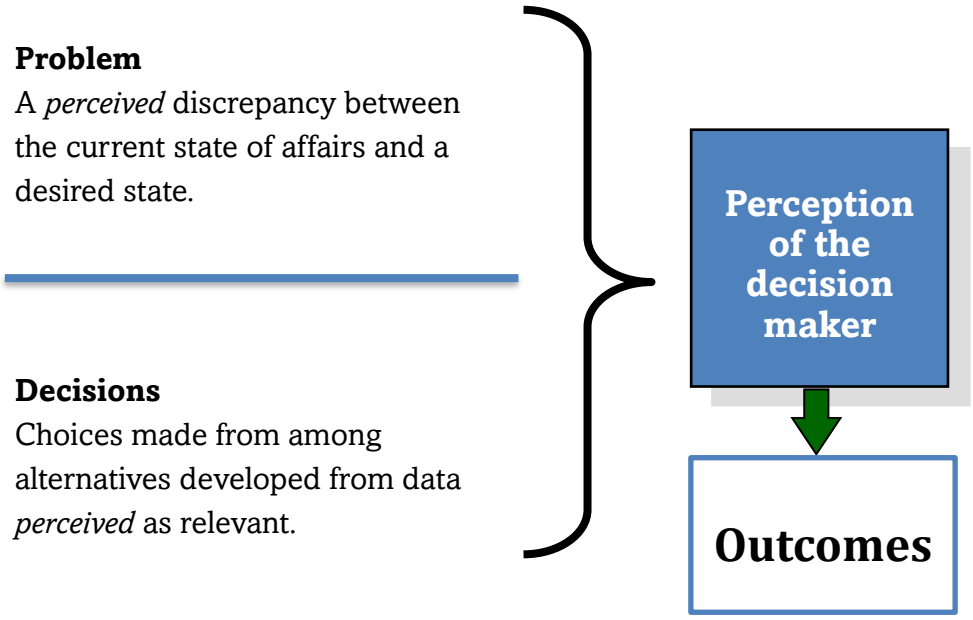
- **Performance Evaluations**
  - Appraisals are often the subjective (judgmental) perceptions of appraisers of another employee's job performance.

- **Employee Effort**
  - Assessment of individual effort is a subjective judgment subject to perceptual distortion and bias.

3.3. The role of perception in decision making

Despite behavioral decision theory becoming dominant in the discipline of economics after the publication of Daniel Kahneman's great programmatic paper "Prospect Theory: Analysing Decision Under Risk", the grievances with the centrality of the rationality concept soon arose. A troublesome assumption of this approach is that the same objective stimuli elicit identical responses. The esteem that psychologists gave to intuition since the 1950s went hand in hand with much less admiration for rationality. By invoking the Classical Experimental Design, pre-screening of participants belonging to the two groups with very distinct tendencies, anti-intuitive and intuitive, was carried out. Those with a strong anti-intuition tendency were then presented with a wide selection of cases, such that the intuition of both groups was rigorously preknown and strongly contrasted.

Fig 7. The Link Between Perceptions and Individual Decision Making



Their task was to disclose their first thought aroused by the problems and no more than the first thought! Remarkably, the distinction between the two groups now referred to as intuitive and non-intuitive was perfectly retained. It is evident that individuals' subjective impressions of the rationality of the same choice differed immensely. When confronted with the question "Which of the next two gambles would you prefer?" one hypothesized that a rational decision maker hedged their bets by comparing the expected payoffs. For some individuals, Rank A would look more rational, while for others, Rank B. Very often, individuals would be torn between two evils; in such a case, either perception of the situation and/or representation assigned to the gambles played an intervening role of great importance.

The perception of a choice problem should be regarded as its representation in a decision maker's mind, and, further, as the object of their utility/arousal (Jagodzinska, 2016). External stimuli, eliciting kindred perceptual responses from disparate decision makers, give rise to widely varying perceptions, which stem from the selective grounding of potentially idiosyncratic criteria on the mental atoms or, what is the same thing, phenomena falling under the description of the perception task are selected/constructed for a further analysis. It is peers' selection of representation that gives rise to the systematic pattern of level-dependent violations

concerning expected value maximization and within-category violations comparable to the acts of omission of the frame-dependent behavior. One conclusion valid for all decision-making processes and approximating relevant Finn equals genuineness was made: “the brass misguided errors.”

Chapter 4. Communication in organizations

Communication in any organization involves a series of complex interactions and activities that serve as means to execute orders, commands, requests, on one side, and give indications on the other side. Due to the complexity of the processes implied in such activities, it is difficult to analyze them and make useful generalizations. Individuals in an organization communicate in interesting ways, using channels that cross formal hierarchy lines, and utilizing other means than natural language as in the cases of diagrams, pictures, data sheets, graphs, mathematical notations, etc. At the same time, it is important to understand that organizations cannot be interpreted in a purely communicational sense. Their time average structured aspects cannot be directly derived from the communication processes, but they can be viewed as results of such processes that have self-organizing characteristics. The analysis presented here focuses on the issues discussed in this document's first chapter: what constitutes change in organizations, when organizations are viewed as information processing systems; how such changes are characterized and modeled; how show that despite the deterministic elements of the formulations, the result find states with stochastic characteristics, reflecting uncertainty in the global model; how in closed systems a phase transition phenomenon occurs. In any organization, work presumes the continuous processing of information, typically communicated as data or messages. Decisions and actions (output) pre-suppose direct or indirect knowledge of the results of past processing (input), which indicates temporal ordering of the information in the communication processes. Such ordering may break the symmetry of the systems involved in them, but if it is not sufficient to prevent every reverting to the symmetric structure, self-organization phenomena will arise. The collective models focus on the mean density of information in the channels used for communication and are more general than the those given only for the closed systems case (Baldwin Howze, 1977). The use of the collective mean field approach assumes that each agent’s behavior can be derived from the optimization of cost functions characterizing their interests. The successive averaging over agents’ fluctuations drastically simplifies the model but is not generally valid. Nevertheless, for most concrete models and under general conditions, such a transition appears, possibly entailing an extrapolated indeterminate state.

4.1. Types of communication

Communication in organizations is conceptualized as information and the messages by which that information is exchanged within organizations. Organizational climate refers to shared perceptions among members of an organization regarding the organizational communication system. The organizational communication system is defined as the forces, structures, processes, and behaviors involved in the exchange of information in organizations. Formal elements of the communication system such as the organizational structure and selection techniques by which information is safeguarded and utilized knowledge of those elements was found to be predictive of perceptions of the climate of the communication system. Newspaper organizations have viewing, hearing, writing, evaluating, editing, approving, distributing, and filing functions. The formal communication subsystem consists of the rules or procedures for carrying out those functions (Baldwin Howze, 1977).

Organizations are conceptualized as open social systems ruled by a hierarchy of purposes or goals. Each organization subgoal assists in the selection and attainment of the overall goal. The structure, processes, and behavior of an organization are understood in relationship to its environment. Inputs to the organization such as members, skills, materials, funds, and opportunities are transformed through the core technology (task of the organization) into outputs of physical products or information flows. The environment is conceptualized as a geographic area from which inputs are drawn and to which outputs are sent. The environmental forces influencing the organization include political, economic, social, cultural, and technological elements.

A formal communication system develops in the organization as the means to pass information across, down, and up the hierarchy; to evaluate and correlate operations; to detect and resolve crises. The communication system is composed of forces, structures, processes, and behaviors involved in the flow of information in the organization. Specific technological resources determine some characteristics of the communication system. Other characteristics result from the structural arrangements and social, cultural, and political forces shaping the organization. Excess levels of information saturation may cause distortion and misinterpretation of messages, overload, noise, blockage, and the use of selective perception. The perceived

exchange quality of the communication in conferences related in significant ways to the overall assessment of the conferences.

A major aspect of communication is its effectiveness. Many models attempt to identify the essential components of effective communication. The theories covered in this chapter are compressed visual representations. They reduce complexity; enhance clarity, simplicity, and information absorption; and are generalizable across multiple forms of communication. These models address the sender-message-channel-receiver dynamic in communication, and they point to issues like distortion, hesitation, miscommunication, and misunderstanding. Each model has its own visual representation.

The Shannon-Weaver Model of communication was developed in 1948. It has six components: the information source, transmitter, receiver, channel, noise, and destination. The sender, or information source, refers to a person who intends to convey some information. The encoder, or transmitter, refers to the component that transforms the information into electronic in the source coding process. The channel refers to the physical medium for transmission, while the decoder, or receiver, translates the signal back into an output that represents the transmitted message. The destination refers to the person who receives the transmitted message. Noise refers to any interference occurring in an unwanted manner during the transmission of signals. Noise is any factor that degrades the fidelity of a received message when compared against the source message. Noise reduces the quality of the received information.

Berlo's SMCR Model of Communication was developed in 1960. It identified four components relevant to the communication process: the source, message, channel, and receiver. The source is the individual, even a group of individuals, who originates a message. The source credibility rests on four characteristics: status, knowledge, character, and charisma. The source also encodes the message, sending it through a communication channel to the receiver.

Schramm's Model of Communication was developed in 1954. It proposed that communication is not just a one-way transmission, but is a mutual effort. It looks at important elements: source, encoder, signal, decoder, destination, fields of experience, and noise. The source originates the message, then encodes it into a form suitable for human perception and communication. The signal is the message when it is presented, or encoded, in its channel form.

Shannon-Weaver Model

The Shannon-Weaver Model is foundational in the field of communication studies. At its core, this model is centered on the transmission of messages from sender to receiver through a channel. The Shannon-Weaver model revolutionized the transmission of information. At its heart, the model outlines five components of communication: information source, transmitter, channel, receiver, and destination. The information source is an entity that produces messages. The signal is a physical representation of a message. The communication channel is the medium through which the message is transmitted. The destination is the entity that receives the message. Finally, the receiver is the device that converts the signal back into the message. It was stated that "the purpose of a communication system is to transmit information and not messages." In this sense, there was not overly concern with the content or significance of the message itself. It was far more interesting to study the communication process by which information is transmitted from one point to another. This distinguished the Shannon-Weaver model from other thinkers in the field.

Shannon focused on developing a technical model of communication that allows for the study of its accuracy based on its capacity. This also gave rise to the concept of noise. In explaining the significance of the channel, it was stated that the fundamental purpose of a communication system is the transmission of information. When it is remarked that communication is imperfect, the meaning usually attached to the statement is that information is being lost. This premise was reflected in what was termed the 'redundancy' of messages. The messages that a communication system sends can often be compressed, but more so, the messages, as a matter of fact, are often compressed and sent sparsely, either intentionally or by default. The model is therefore still widely used to explain the occurrence of noise in communication, which is the point of its greatest application to organizations, as the information considered noise elsewhere can create a division of work in organizations similar to what occurs in the population of a living organism.

Berlo's SMCR Model

David K. Berlo's SMCR (Source-Message-Channel-Receiver) Model of Communication provides a framework that highlights the components of communication and how they affect the overall communication process. Berlo's SMCR model uses a foundational model as a basis. Berlo extends this model by putting the four elements of communication into a systematic framework. In Berlo's SMCR model, the message is composed of four elements: the source, the message itself, the channel, and the receiver. Each of these elements affects the interpretation of meaning and can contribute to noise, which Berlo has written about in depth.

Each term is composed of four elements, which explains the source part of the model in more detail. Each source generates and encodes a message; these four elements affect the encoding and choice of message. By synthesizing knowledge, creating information, and organizing it into some sort of message, the source creates a message. The source must code the message into symbols it can understand to transfer the message. The source must choose the symbols in such a manner to encode the information. Berlo uses the example of sound. The receiver with a trained ear can decode it into music to understand the message, but when she heard it for the first time in childhood, she merely heard a set of noises. A code is a set of symbols used to represent information, which is also the simplest element of the SMCR Model of communication.

This process is also equally true to the receiver part of the model. Each receiver receives and decodes a message; similarly, these four elements affect the decoding and interpretation of messages. Each receiver has the ability to understand and interpret a message. In Berlo's terminology, it is referred to as a decoding skill. Just as knowledge is needed to code a message, knowledge is also needed to decode a message. This is common in organizations. For example, when an organization uses a newly created computer system, to ensure its efficient use, the organization first trains employees about that system. This is also a knowledge set, a simple element of the model affecting the interpreting of the message.

Schramm's Model of Communication

Schramm analyzed communication within the context of human experience by proposing a model that took into account three fields: experience, which corresponded to the awareness, knowledge, and positive use of events; decoding, which were elements for decoding a message; and encoding, or planning or receiving messages. The model has two probabilistic assumptions: the greater the fields of experience between the parties in a communication interaction, the higher the probability of a successful reception and decoding of the message and an identification of a common ground or knowledge about the subject of conversation. These assumptions gave rise to three hypotheses. First, a number of common experiences helps reduce the differences among communicators and increases the chance of contact. Second, the greater the common ground of knowledge, the more solid the basis for the agreement and the more probable the actual and the future matters being agreed upon. Third, the greater the commonality, the more probable is the mutual knowledge about it. Schramm then conceptualized communication as a two-way process involving a source or a communicator, an encoder, a message or signals, and a decoder, receiver, and destination. A circular process of communication is presented here, as it comprises both an outgoing and an incoming process. It is important to note the differences between this model and others, as it does not regard communication as mere transmission of messages but as an active process that, in its fullness, involves creating, accruing, augmenting, producing messages and signals. The Schramm model is depicted as a continuous process in its ideal form and inner details.

In its more detailed version, the sources or communicators or encoders have three types of fields: experience, ability, and knowledge. Any source ought to decode the message in order to construct a code or to program a number of discrete acts through which the message is sent. However the mere sending of the message is not sufficient; it ought to be so comprehensible that the receiver is enabled to reconstruct it in its entirety and form. Such a reconstruction process also comprises three fields: experience, ability, and knowledge. The probable satisfaction of such reciprocity makes both communicators end a message in a twofold way: as an organic piece of action that should fit with the expectancy, the possibility, and the degree of ability of each receiver to decode it, and an expected impact of the message on the receiver. Schramm's model is thoroughly open so that constant feedback from the receivers is supposed

to modify the original code and complements the receiver's fields during the reconstruction process.

4.2. Barriers to effective communication

Communication provides many benefits and advantages. It is a basic requirement of every organization. Without communication, an organization cannot exist. Communication is a tool to exchange information. Every organization uses verbal communication, written communication, and many other types of communication to convey a message or information.

But there are several barriers or problems to effective communication. These problems create hindrances in the way of communication. The barriers or problems can be classified as:

- Physical Barriers - Psychological Barriers - Language Barriers - Cultural Barriers

Barriers to communication can simply be defined as a problem in the way of effective communication. Nuisance in the conversation or exchange of information can also be termed a barrier to communication. Barriers to communication can be an obstacle in the receivance of the message by the receiver. Communication barriers hinder and cause misunderstandings of the message. Barriers to effective communication are needs for every organization to be overcome

Physical barriers to communication are the barriers provided by the environment. Physical barriers are related to the physical environment. Noise, distance of the communicators, and improper decoration of the location can create problems in communication. Gossipy rooms or other disturbing sounds and voices create trouble in conversations. Inferior infrastructure and other distractions are also a type of physical barrier. Office locations in congested areas or nearby loud sounds can also obstruct effective communication.

Psychological barriers are concepts about the frame of mind or thoughts of the communicator. Psychological barriers are related to the thought process of the communicator. Judgment, moods, and emotions can also create hindrances in communication. Superiority and inferiority complexes also exist in the psychological barriers to communication. Failure in conversion by any means also creates psychological barriers in communication. A good relationship is necessary for conveying an important communication or message.

Language barriers exist in different pronunciations, speaking styles, or accents of communicators. Slang words produce different meanings in other areas or cultures. The concerned authority should convey the message in specific and simple language. Otherwise, there may be misinterpretations of the information.

Organizational culture is a common facet or element in every organization. National culture creates differences in verbal and non-verbal communication. Different cultures have different currencies, flags, portray, religious beliefs, and costumes. Labels, brand names, and different gestures create barriers to effective communication.

Physical Barriers

There are many barriers to effective communication. However, one must bear in mind that although barriers can disrupt effective communication, almost all forms of barriers can be overcome. It is important to note that no barrier is insurmountable.

Physical Barriers Physical barriers refer to the environment in which a selector places the receiver, the auditory and visual distractions and the position of the recipient relative to the source. Physical barriers are environmental factors such as noise, heat and space within which communication takes place.

Organization may find communication become difficult because of physical barriers like distance between two persons, geographical location of the office, nature of the business location, nature of the room like meeting room and workshop, etc. Even the new age phones like the mobile phones are not effective enough in communicating voices and emotions effectively. Often, in spite of all precautions effective communication does not take place because of physical barriers. Noise of the telephone, the shouting voices in the factory, mass activities by the workers in the other department, etc., may disturb oral communication.

Sound and properly structured words do reach the recipient but the latter in spite of all efforts may fail to understand the meaning of phrases and sentences. Fonts and layout designs are irrelevant for reading if there are tears and folds on the paper without which reading the contents become impossible. In spite of the availability of a letterhead, often correspondence becomes difficult by roads and means of transportation. The effectiveness of communication among modern day commercial organizations is significant root of a well-structured and distributed letter, an audio-video presentation sent on an interactive telephone or computer,

etc. Problems of efficiency or effectiveness in communication may arise because of disturbances either too far or too near. Either of these may deviate the attention and hence the understanding of the audience.

Communication systems and sets may not function satisfactorily owing to atmospheric or accidental or physical conditions. Transfers of meaning in spite of proximity or moderate distance become difficult for unable sounds or sight owing to either intentional or unintentional closeness. In a stack approach local or institutional limits in understanding the message might not be objectionable but garble or social barriers in interpreting it may lead to frustrations and dissatisfaction.

Psychological Barriers

Psychological barriers are the obstacles faced by management in getting information from employees and conveying the information to employees. Employees may ignore the information provided or feel that there is no need for communication. Several psychological barriers operate in an organization. Employees may be too busy to take interest and understand what is being communicated. The superiors may not take the communication seriously and delay it; therefore, employees likewise may develop similar attitudes and completely ignore the communication. Grassroots-level personnel listening to decision-makers at the top of the hierarchy is another obstacle in the communication process. Proper listening means an understanding of the subject and content of the information received. In organizations, high-ranking executives are uninterested in listening to the communication of grassroots-level personnel, and ultimately, this distorts information, leading to a loss of interest in listening. Further, superiors may not always ensure attention and proper listening. When the communication process passes from one level to another, executives in the hierarchy may become indifferent or somewhat cautious and believe the communication received from their superiors is pre-decided and not negotiable, so much so that they restrain and discourage the personnel below them to ignore and disregard the communication.

When decisions are taken concerning the future of industrial units, it is customary for management to communicate them to workers through briefings, wherein supervisors are responsible for communicating with the workmen. Secrecy attached to decision-making results in only the management being informed; this, in turn, generates anxiety among the workforce

regarding job security, resulting in a psychological barrier of inferiority complex in management personnel and neglected personnel among the workforce. Those implicated in the decision-making process tend to be arrogant, and those who are not deprived have to feel neglected, resulting in indifference towards communication. Investments on the need for opportunities to attend training programs and work on international projects lead to a dearth of opportunity for the workforce to work abroad among management personnel, leaving them feeling neglected and dispirited. A negative attitude towards a decision might lead to a distorted representation of the quality and caliber of personnel who might be in favor of that decision. It has been observed that certain decisions may be undemocratic, unilateral, and iniquitous but nevertheless be applicable, which ultimately creates distrust toward a superior authority or ambivalence towards any communication from it. Here, there will be the necessity of double channels passing through other components than those indicated to be able to furnish output in the form of do not F-select but all do.

Language Barriers

The barriers which may occur due to the different languages are known as language barriers. This may create ambiguity and confusion in communication. For example, when a person does not know the language of communication he/she may feel out of the discussion. It should be noted that there are other ways also to communicate but when it comes to organizational effectiveness, oral and written communication are of prime importance. Number of people, belonging to a particular race or region may not know the language of communication. For example in India a large number of people may not know English even then it has become the language of official communication. A large number of people all over India may not know it and formal discussions have to be avoided with them when they do not know English. So it does not require enthusiasm, training, and opportunity to learn a language but a good knowledge of the language used for communication.

Use of jargon is another important language barrier which may create misunderstanding. This is common in insurance business, in all types of computerized communication, in law, and in banks. A person must have a good knowledge of the jargon used for effective communication. The jargon is not only technical words associated with the field but there are also some words

or phrases termed jargon which may be generally known but may not have similar meanings for different professions.

The intended message may be expressed or interpreted in different ways in verbal communication. The feedback for clarifying the sender's perception of the situation is essential. Even then the meaning may be hidden or intention may be misunderstood. The listener may understand the opposite meaning of the message expressed. For example, the speaker in a meeting may want to criticize a person but the listener may have its own perception and may misunderstand it.

Language barriers due to translation create misunderstanding effectively. The translation mainly of idioms has come up with different meanings. This is common in the case of new languages. All over the world and particularly in non-English countries, there have come up new words with a meaning different from the language. Use of SMS short forms in professional communication is an example. It should be noted that language barriers do not create chaos if there is good faith and willingness of the concerned people in the conversation.

Cultural Barriers

Communication is affected by various cultural barriers, which are defined as the differences in the behavior and or perceptions of different people resulting from the common heritage and values they hold. Often in an organization workers with culturally different backgrounds find it difficult to understand each other's perceptions and behavior. In order to remove these barriers it is necessary first to understand cultural barriers affecting an organization. Cultural barriers affect a business working in different countries and continents. There are various forms of cultural barriers. A business firm doing its operations in different countries often finds this difficult due to the different perceptions different workers have of a thing, concept, or process. For example, in certain countries one should not touch another person in a congratulatory way. In some countries, greeting in a non-ceremonious manner in a physical way is considered very offensive. Accepting an offer of drink may be interpreted differently in different countries. One must use extreme caution while sending communications through emails. Certain countries perceive messages involving say, ‘U’ as significance of something immoral and offensive. Hand gestures in some cultures may be taken with a broad meaning while in others only a restricted meaning may be understood. Generally, former British colonies in India, Pakistan,

certain African and Caribbean countries and certain Middle East countries have very different behavior in life's situations than Western countries. One's raised eyebrows for questioning something or offering something may offend the other side. There have been unfortunate instances of organizations providing communications to certain former British colonies most of which border on some aspect of life which is offensive to the cultural sentiments of such countries. Global firms should always be very cautious of these cultural barriers in global communication.

4.3. Improving communication skills

Communication skills improve interpersonal effectiveness both inside and outside the workplace. Effective interpersonal communication improves the organization's internal atmosphere and morale. Effective interpersonal communication improves persuasion skills/ability and is associated with upward mobility in career advancement and salary growth. It is essential to motivate an individual, group, and organization to better performance given the integration of communication and motivation and the elements of communication. A proper understanding of the elements of communication enhances interpersonal effectiveness. Verbal communication is the words we say. A word's meaning is affected by how it is said, the way it may bring to mind other words, learning history, and emotional connotation. Nonverbal communication, or body language, includes facial expressions, gestures, mannerisms, voice tones, and actions. These aspects of nonverbal communication emphasize the importance of caring when communicating. Also important to caring communication is tact (L. Warren, 2000). Tact is the ability to keep criticism to oneself, the ability to soften a word's sudden blow, the ability to avoid offense and provoke a kind word back, etc. Communication skills must be practiced for months and years to improve (Lucas, 2011). Effectiveness in communications is vital to organizational success. As a management and supervisory skill, most organizations do not train their employee's communication skills. A simple delegation and follow-up process can bring the atmosphere and messenger back to a higher communication level. The follow-up process is where the trust and cooperation can erode or build the team. Potential crewmates should establish regimens in which they assist each other in improving communication skills. In high tech content, low intonation industries, one area

that needs to be honed is the articulation of thoughts (improved clarity and confidence of expression).

4.4. Evaluating communication effectiveness

Just as organizations and individuals seek to improve work processes and productivity through measurement, assessment, and evaluation, so also efforts at effective organizational communication should be evaluated. Evaluation can focus on three distinct questions: What is to be evaluated? Who carries out the evaluation, and how? And what qualitative and/or quantitative measures provide effective evaluation? A variety of general communication audit/research methodologies exist that can answer these questions. With respect to public relations, some of the most cited include the R..E.A.C.H. model, the ROPE model, and the R.A.C.E. model. There are also methodological summaries focusing on the measurement, assessment, and evaluation of organizational communication in general. Those interested in more specific measurement and technique-focused resources include writing on employee communications, employee opinion surveys, and active employee assessments.

As with all things, the challenge and opportunity with communication principles, research, and technological processes and tools is to keep evolving and improving understanding, attitudes, and actions. Fully engaging engagement, and action could be seen as the communication on-ramps to the freight train of devise, develop, test, and certify well-targeted communication for desired outcomes. In this regard, engagement and empowerment involve facilitating make quality decisions before implementing, monitoring, evaluating, and ongoing improving communication effectiveness. Whether for organizational communication, organizational information systems, generic organizational behavior, or transactional systems design, the key challenge for organizational stakeholders is to continue developing and adapting understanding of the reciprocal influences between communication and attitudes, understanding, information systems, and behavior.

Metrics and Tools

Security is paramount when it comes to organizational communication due to the sensitive nature of many types of communications, ranging from business plans to legal disputes, salaries, and confidential employee matters. Denials, leaks, or miscommunication can damage

relationships, hurt credibility, and even lead to organizational ruination. Therefore, it is recommended that companies use a communication management system that allows them to set controls based on employee roles, allow some information to be editable with a documented trail revision history, and allow others to be essentially set in stone once published. Building a vibrant culture, infrastructure, and capacity for communication requires a culture that writes and discusses in public, builds processes and channels that sustain and spread communication, and creates forums for suggestions and troubleshooting, as well as opportunities to praise and reward good communication by individuals and teams. On a practical level, companies can use various communication metrics and tools, depending on what the company wants to measure. Online tools include analyzing website traffic, newsletters, and employee surveys. There are also online workspaces where employees can hold discussions, share ideas, and coordinate projects. Internal newsletters can be highly effective, especially short newsletters emphasizing what is new. Weekly internal emails from an executive are also beneficial for individuals in information positions to receive direct contacts from teams and rivals. External metrics are also available, including systems that measure the numbers of retweets or replies to a specific tweet, and results from surveys on how customers hear about the company's products or services can also point to changes in the effectiveness of communication strategies. By taking a focused, systematic approach to communication, organizations can build capacity and avoid breakdowns. This is an ongoing, never-ending process requiring commitment and follow-through by leadership and everyone in the company.

Continuous improvement in communication

Continuous improvement is an overarching theme in business practices, independently of the dimensions of examination. The principle applies to processes, products, services, and systems, and above all, to practices. As long as people talk to each other, communication techniques and procedures require constant scrutiny and improvement. Feeling that communications cannot get any better comes with time, and it begs a larger examination of the culture occupied by the organization.

Continuous improvement in communication, therefore, deserves considerable thought, both individually and communally. Often, there is a mismatch in organizations between the manager's perception of the communication climate and the employees' perception of the

communication climate. Techniques are available to begin to close that gap. Probably the simplest exercise is to share each group's communications. In other words, members of a team are most interested in passwords and protocols. Each member must be willing to open the door a little wider than desired. Understanding communication processes across the organization, at least at a cursory level, can go a long way toward increasing group-level trust.

Readily available survey methods can significantly advance knowledge of the communication climate in organizations. If beliefs can be documented, constructive action can occur. Most organizations publish a newsletter and a non-document based strategy is unlikely to work. The newsletter is filled with an equal mixture of trivial corporate gossip and corporate strategy. Each individual believes that attending a single one-hour meeting could reveal the secrets of the universe, but that the information would then be impossible to act on. Someone else believes that each new device subtly reinforces the executives' control over information. Those questions can be better examined through carefully constructed sub scales, asked once or twice annually in confidence to a random sampling of employees. With consistency, answers can be trended over time. Each method can illuminate a specific agenda of issues to address in increasing trust across the organization. Enhancing the effect of the outcomes, this exercise could involve chairs from sub-groups on the executive team to address the constituency-what specific communication processes do they continue to believe are trivial, laughable, and micro-managed?

Chapter 5. Ethics in the workplace

The impact of management styles is significant on preventing moral hazard in organizations. Managers affect the ethical behavior of subordinates in several ways. Organizational culture is a set of beliefs, values and significance that directs impact on people's behavior. Managers exert influence on the employees through creating and disseminating beliefs, values and meaning. Leaders anticipate and proactively respond to unethical behavior through managing micro-social networks and creating groups out of employees. They shape the ethical behavior of employees based on the formation of a cohesive group. Organizing effective structures such as audit committees and establishing compliance programs are inefficient methods of checking ethics violations globally. They are not effective just to influence the kinds of behaviors which general arrangements can have an impact on in every firm but not ones requiring special checks governed by requirements to which firms differ. Anti-corruption training must not only send a rational message but is more efficient if it is engaging and emotional as well. Conducting integrity checks and an exit interview for employees that are leaving organizations prevent infringement of moral hazard in organizations.

A workplace should be a realm of work, reflection and engagement. However, deviant behaviors in the workplace impact working quality and distortion in work-integrated learning of students. Organizational members or managers are responsible themselves for these responses. Reward systems including undeserving promotions and free family connections impact managerial performance and encourage managers to deviate rules. For instance, the cost of stealing by employees in the United States is estimated (Ehsan Kashani, 2019). Deviant behaviors in the workplace are intentional actions by individual employees who oppose the prevailing organizational norms and such actions are considered a jeopardy to an individual, group or organization. Deviant behavior violates the ethical standards of behavior that are expected by an agent of an organization and threaten the health of the organization and health of its employees. According to these behavioral theories, organizational deviance may exit with respect to the directiveness of the behaviors. Individual deviations are directed towards other individuals such as rude behaviors with colleagues and organizational deviations are directed at the organization such as unwillingness to try.

5.1. Understanding workplace ethics

In a general sense, 'Ethics' pertains to moral principles that govern a person's behavior or the conducting of an activity. 'Workplace Ethics' can thus be defined as a set of moral principles that guide a person's actions in the workplace. Ethics encompasses values that govern the behavior of an organization or an individual. Ethics set a norm or a standard for the right and the wrong way of doing something. In a workplace context, ethics can take the form of guidelines, rules, or codes, governing what is permissible and what is definitely not acceptable at the workplace. Thus workplace ethics are the moral guidelines defining right and wrong behavior in a workplace. The study of workplace ethics commences with an inquiry into several issues related to the concept of ethics (Ehsan Kashani, 2019). The inquiry is both academic and practical. Ethics and ethical procedures are commonplace in modern society. In the current context of businesses, ethics should diffuse through the workplace, guiding a company such that it becomes a robust or smart organization. Workplace ethics relate to individual behavior in the workplace. Ethics in organizations cannot be fashioned without individual ethics. Organizations comprise an assemblage of individuals.

An organization can only engage in ethical conduct when its members act morally. Ethical conduct relies on member character, competence, and consideration. Arrangements of permitting or prohibiting conduct are powerless without ethical individuals. Creation or alteration of workforce examination and advancement of members imply conduct does not shift character (Shannon, 2017). A general expectation is that workplace issues are contingent to a set of ethical principles. Ethical behavior cannot be guaranteed by attention to legislation, codes or-term contracts, rewards, or punishments. For engagement in ethical conduct to occur in practice, personal attention to ethics should also pervade personal and professional realms. Ethics in organizations and in the workplace is the same ethics. Business ethics is subsequently workplace ethics, organizational ethics, and professional ethics.

The study of workplace ethics encompasses explorations for what is thought to be ethical in the workplace, why ethics appears to be a salient concern, the state of workplace ethics, how ethical behavior might be better accomplished, and so forth. For ethical behavior to occur, it is necessary, but not sufficient that behaviour is believed to be morally beyond reproach. Ethical behavior necessarily relies on what is thought to be ethical and belief in the precept involved.

Nevertheless, thought should be complemented with other matters. If there is no conviction that criticism will be meaningful, ethical or not, then ethical thought leads to nowhere worthwhile. A normative and prescriptive inquiry is also undertaken with an articulation of thought about the specification of workplace ethics, and the pursuit of workplace ethics. The articulation involves considerations for responsible thinking about workplace ethics, the concern for ethics in society and the workplace, and the state of workplace ethics.

5.2. Ethical Decision-Making models

Ethical decision-making, in most cases, is a complex, multi-stage, multi-faceted process of reasoning influenced by a number of personal, cultural, situational, professional, and business factors. The reasoning process may be influenced by one or more of the following behavioral influences or factors: (1) issue recognition (2) moral judgment (3) intent to decide and act (4) determination (5) action (6) situational variables including company policies (7) personal variables such as individual moral philosophy (8) contextual factors of fairness and justice (9) contextual factors of economic incentives and constraints (10) contextual factors of social norms (11) behavioral factors based on divergent moral philosophies and normative theories including consequentialist theories and deontologist theories and (12) cognitive biases as surrogate heuristics of decisions.

A decision may pass through a number of stages. The process starts with the recognition of an ethical issue. By the time a case or issue is perceived to be ethical, moral reasoning begins. The recognition is subject to the knowledge and perception of cultural contextuality, normative cultures, and individual philosophical positions. The decision-maker attempts to determine whether or to what extent the case is serious, widespread, or legitimate. Once a case has been recognized as having ethical consequences, moral justification is engaged in a reasoning process. Involvement of the reasoning process at this stage is subject to moral values, philosophies, cultures, and contextual views. Subsequently, moral judgment is conceptualized and the parties involved in the case are determined. Consideration of available choices is jointly affected by moral judgment and social constraints.

The last stage of the decision-making process concerns intent to act, or determination. Immediate analysis of anticipated consequences, determination of the course of action to be

taken. The review of ethical reasoning and decision-making models shows vast diversity and variations. Despite this inevitable difference, the fundamental process components must have some similarities and commonality in terms of the pathways taken from one stage to the next or an outcome based on a context. The classical model, sequence of a case, is often applied here. Common phrases such as recognition of a desired or undesired case, attempts to define the case fairly and truthfully, information analysis, and prescription of alternative courses of actions are widely employed by a number of models in relatively similar contexts.

5.3. The role of leadership in ethics

There are many forms of leadership, but not all of them are ethical. Leadership can be ethical even without their being exhibited any of the criteria for the success, such as effectiveness, legitimacy, and respect. Not just public figures, but also individuals in private life is implicated in leadership in ethics. However, even a rank-and-file individual can be a highly ethical leader without addressing ethics on the entirely different terms required for leadership in ethics. Nevertheless, a great deal can be said at least for something very near to the concept of ethical leadership. A leader in ethics is the one who refrains from ethically immoral acts and, better yet, strives to contribute productively to ethics in some measure (Audi, 2022).

A leader in ethics, who refrains from producing ethical failures, would engender conduct that is ethically benign. Thus it might be thought sufficient to inhale virtue, to remain still and lead silently. However, to clarify what it is that broadly deserving and intelligent persons ought to do in ethics would be an immense challenge. The ethical leader would undertake this without committing the social crimes that are worse than a mortal blow. Pursuers of correct ethical conduct are very active, but they sap their energy on the subtle lines of disincrement. Ultimately, it is leaders in ethics who would have the largest part in human welfare. Leadership in ethics may require the performance of many social acts at the greatest level of achievement, but the most terrible crimes of humanity have always been known to proceed on lines outside ethics in the sense of the former rule.

Some ethical principles express not only obligations but highly positive goals, as in the case of ideals. In order to be considered ethically admirable, a leader not only has to refrain from being unethical but, even if obligations are discharged and obligations abided by, has the more

stringent obligation to seek to fulfill ideals of a positive nature. If an obligation is fulfilled, only if one may do more, is good ethics there. Apart from individual acting beyond the call of duty, ethical leaders need to be the highest moral examples. A leader in ethics would not merely have to avoid wrong-doing on the part of deadly sins, so would be ethically in the clear and not reap attention, but endeavor to be ethically admirable.

Chapter 6. Group Dynamics and Teamwork

Group dynamics and teamwork are crucial topics both in understanding and managing organizations. The concepts included address the dynamics of groups in organizational contexts, focusing on both formal and informal groups. Group dynamics refer to the psychosocial phenomena that take place in the group and as a result of the group interrelations, but it does not refer to the results of interactions, only to the interactions between group members. Team functioning indicates the existence and functioning of a group with a task to fulfill or a goal to achieve, hence it refers to both group dynamics and the results of the group dynamics and group interrelations, more or less effective procedures, relationships, etc. (ZOLTAN, 2015). Teamwork indicates an instance of team functioning or an event (of a team in order to obtain the results for which it was formed). Work groups are selected to analyze only formal groups created by managers in organizations to detect the existence of the groups, the leaders of the groups, and above all their functioning. Also, work groups indicate managers the existing informal connections that might be used for the benefit of the organization, such as for training an innovative method or for introducing a new product to be sold (Richards & Marks, 2007).

A group is a social structure with a social role (task to fulfill), and with relations between its members, dividing the members into roles, information deviates within the group, etc. Motivational, cognitive, and emotional processes seem to determine the behavior of group members. Groups may fulfill particular tasks through the cooperation of their members. Some groups are formed around a person because she/he is able to influence them, i.e. they prefer to satisfy the same needs, or sympathize with one another's motives. Group members have a number of needs such as: the need for affiliation, power, and achievement. Another specific needs concern roles, such as: the need for functional leadership, the need for a non-functional player, etc. Groups also have feelings that are affected by the relations among their members: sympathies and antipathies to the group in general and to particular persons in the group; feelings of safety in the group; a sense of being regarded by the group or of feeling dismissed by some group member and the group.

6.1. Stages of team development

Organizational behavior research has widely regarded Tuckman's five stages of team development as an essential model, supported by a wealth of empirical evidence, and thus, it provides a particularly useful framework through which we can analyze and evaluate the dynamics of teams in various organizations. The ARGOS system was initially designed as a sophisticated evaluation instrument to assist teams in gaining a deeper understanding and evaluation of their own organizational behavior, specifically concerning both the task-oriented and interpersonal dimensions of team development. The five task-related developmental stages of teams, as delineated by Tuckman, include a dependency stage, a counter-dependency stage, a work-restructuring stage, a performing stage, and finally, an adjourning stage. During the dependency stage, team members often experience feelings of insecurity regarding their roles within the team structure, leading them to a tendency to heavily rely on the instructions and guidance provided by their leaders. As the team transitions into the counter-dependency stage, the members begin to express a complex mix of anxiety and excitement as they attempt to familiarize themselves with one another, but their interactions during this time typically remain cautious and largely superficial. Individuals in the team may start to question the leader's competence and the distribution of work among the members, often wondering if any cohesive plan or established standard is in place to effectively guide their actions and collaboration. (Ferreira Peralta et al., 2018)

Two non-exclusive ways of regarding Tuckman's model provide insights into the design of ARGOS. First, Tuckman's model might be regarded as relatively simple and parsimonious, as a result of which it might be best suited to teams that are not subjected to high processing demands. Second, it has often been acknowledged that the five stages of team development entered by teams might not be clearly distinguishable; in other words, teams might oscillate between the five states, suggesting that each stage might consist of several sub-stages, or developmental levels. The latter would lead to a richer and more complex depiction of teams and possibly afford greater insights into team effectiveness and team processes.

6.2. Conflict resolution in teams

Belief and behaviors about how teams work often permeate organizations and can contribute to the cultural norms that develop over time. When beliefs and behaviors about team dynamics are explicit, they can be challenged and reframed to better align with desired team norms. Unspoken beliefs and behaviors are much more prevalent, and difficult to address. For instance, it is common for team leaders to come prepared to work sessions with extensive slides to present to the team because they believe this is how they can best inform the team. Such a presentation style often has the unintended effect of communicating a belief that the team is not capable of self-directing their work. Team behaviors about avoidance of conflicts, watering down of opinions, or focus on maintaining existing relationships may also develop, creating team dysfunction. High-performing teams have the capacity to safely and openly address conflict and even emotionally-connected differences of opinion among team members. Low-performing teams often experience a de-escalation of productive conflict and tend to behave more diplomatically, addressing only low-intensity outcome, process, and relational conflicts. To have open, candid discussions without avoidance or escalation of conflict, teams must attend to both risky and vulnerable behaviors (Gren & Lenberg, 2019).

Candid discussions about beliefs and behaviors associated with team dynamics can be initiated in several ways. Discussing points-of-view and behavioral norms about how the team is working is one approach. When such conversations occur, there is an opportunity to identify beliefs and behaviors that are impeding effective team functioning. Commitment to improve team behaviors and the grounding of conversations that invoke safety may compensate for a lack of commitment to a common compelling objective. Other ways to initiate such conversations include surfacing and discussing behavioral norms as a way to model an open dialog on beliefs and behaviors governing team dynamics. Publicly clicking a button perhaps labeled “obstructive beliefs/behaviors,” creating a mind map, or asking participants to pair up for more intimate interactions may provide sufficient safety to allow for the sharing of feelings about the team’s dynamic. Ideally, though, reframing conversations about the team dynamics as they relate to effective team functioning can help teams normative beliefs and behaviors they are striving towards. Avoidance of all conflict style responses may develop as part of collective beliefs about team dynamics. Alternatively, teams may behave diplomatically in a way that only low-intensity conflict types are verbally expressed while several high-intensity

conflicts linger in the background. Such discrepancies often prompt concern regarding the safety of team members and may be addressed in a candid dialog about group norms (Ph.D. Kaufman, 2015).

Chapter 7. Leadership styles and their impact

Leadership styles have a profoundly significant influence on the overall health of an organization as well as the fate and well-being of its employees. In particular, environments that capitalize on leaders' unique abilities to influence, motivate, and inspire others tend to create a remarkably positive impact on engagement levels within their teams. Extensive research focused on three critical aspects of leadership styles: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and leadership effectiveness. Through comprehensive interviews with senior leaders, as well as focus group discussions involving mid-level leaders, the research probed deeply into how these different leadership styles were perceived, practiced, and manifested across various organizations in Thailand. The findings reveal that while being effective was widely viewed as a behavioral trait, participants in the study did not consider effectiveness to be a distinct leadership style in its own right. Among the leadership styles that were of interest, transformational leadership was perceived as a powerful growth-fostering process that emphasized not only individual development but also organizational development and overall employee well-being. Participants in the research viewed this particular style as absolutely vital in the context of the current work environment which is always evolving. By contrast, transactional leadership, which was once regarded as a hallmark of effectiveness in previous decades, was now seen in a different light; its current application was primarily limited to ensuring organizational compliance, employee well-being, and overall business survival. Although the two styles—transformational and transactional—were perceived as fundamentally different and seemingly at odds with one another in certain aspects, participants paradoxically revealed that both could only be deployed effectively if practiced together, in harmony, and in balance. Ultimately, the effective use of either style depended heavily on the specific audiences involved, and it was often the case that specialist leaders or dedicated teams would take on the crucial responsibility for the execution of these leadership strategies. This research proposes a pressing need for further investigation into how transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and leadership effectiveness conceptually relate to one another in diverse cultural contexts. In addition to this, the research findings contribute significantly to the theoretical understanding of these three aspects of leadership styles, with a much deeper focus on transformational leadership styles in particular. At a practical level, the findings provide a comprehensive set of themes for developing innovative approaches to

cultivating transformational leadership cultures within organizations. Moreover, further exploration of the dynamics involving men and women in leadership positions would undoubtedly improve this somewhat one-dimensional understanding of leadership practices and their implications. With this enhanced knowledge, practitioners would find themselves in a much stronger position to offer invaluable development opportunities that inspire leaders to positively influence their organizations, enhance their workforces, and contribute meaningfully to their communities as a whole. (Vejchalermjit, 2014)

7.1. Transformational vs. transactional leadership

Since the late 1970s, the literature on leadership has featured a debate exploring relationships between transactional and transformational leadership. With the apparent demise of a transaction fundamental to organizational leadership and an emerging context of organizational volatility came the search to better understand the leaderships of stability and of change. There are two basic categories of leadership: transactional and transformational. The distinction between these forms of leadership was first made by Downton but gained little currency until large-scale work on political leaders was published. The distinction was made between ordinary (transactional) leaders, who exchanged tangible rewards for the work and loyalty of followers, and extraordinary (transformational) leaders who engaged with followers and raised consciousness about the significance of specific outcomes. Transactional and transformational leadership were believed to lie at opposite ends of a continuum. This view was supported by early empirical studies which suggested that the two leadership approaches could appear independently of one another.

A trailblazing piece of empirical research sought to investigate the notion that transformational leadership was a form of charismatic leadership (Hay, 2006). Their Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) extensively measuring a transformational leadership construct included a transformational scale and a transactional scale but also a measure of laissez-faire non-leadership. Subsequent research adopted this measure despite scepticism about the utility of the laissez-faire non-leadership dimension and a critique of the transformational and transactional scales. Transformational and transactional leadership instruments were

subsequently developed with the MLQ as a source of items assured of face validity in a business context.

Considering that interest in transformational leadership was so strong and many researchers were keen to know whether what was purported to be transformational actually mattered, a large survey of public sector employees contributed data from a powerful test of the Bass theory. The context proved useful because of a compelling narrative of leadership change from a long-standing, highly transactional public service model to the lean and mean competitive model in the 1990s heavily promoted by transformational leadership advocates.

7.2. Situational leadership

Situational Leadership was developed in the late 1960s from a mix of several theorists researching areas of Contingency Theory that is more commonly referred to today (Mathematics and Science Academy, 2019). The Contingency Theory developed in campuses across the United States and later in several European universities around 1958. The Contingency Theory studied the way the world operates and why certain leaders were more successful than others. It concluded that the success of leaders was dependent upon their control of the situation. If they could create a situation to which they themselves fit, they were successful leaders. If they could not, if they were in a situation to which they could not fit, they were not successful leaders. This mix of success and unsuccessful situations was defined differently by various theorists. The Contingency Model of Leadership proposed by Fiedler was perhaps the most noted. Others included reactions and fallibilities of the leader group structure, and Dale's "pursuit and evasion" theory.

Situational Approach to leadership developed in the late 1960s and is an offshoot of the earlier Contingency Theory. Contingency theory looked at the situation, while the situational approach looked at the follower and follower-follower interaction. In 1969, psychologists Blanchard and Hersey described the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership early efforts of the situational approach to leadership. They, like other theorists, found after a few years of studying under other theorists, that leaders were capable of changing themselves to fit a situation. Some leaders were more adaptable than others, but a hidden belief in the ability of training was stirred. This belief led to the concept of skills training approach to leadership and

credible evidence of effective training existed. These studies built on the previously explained theories' notion of a fit and have been heavily published since, usually in association with training programs. As earlier noted, this credibility and training program, while very well developed and plausible, failed to garner broad support amongst the scholarly community (Chen, 2015). Aspects of the style were well documented but skeptical of methodology and results.

Chapter 8. Organizational culture and change

A company's values, work ethic and philosophy are expressed in its organizational culture. However, a significant challenge for most businesses is that culture operates mostly at subconscious levels. Culture is generally very slow to change; it grips the organization tightly and exerts strong inertial forces. While they may wish for a more open, creative culture, company leaders often find theirs hierarchical and closed. As a result, most companies are unable to react effectively to disruptions and rapidly changing conditions. Organizational culture is difficult to understand because it is often mostly unspoken yet deeply ingrained. It is taken for granted and accepted by employees over time as they acculturate into the organization. Such issues in understanding organizational culture result in leaders often feeling helpless to influence or change it (A. Calkins, 2013). Yet, given that organizational culture is largely invisible, leaders unknowingly create and reinforce it through their words and actions every day. Consequently, while leaders can be unaware of their influence, they can also seek to gain greater awareness of it. This greater awareness can then be leveraged in a leadership change effort. Given that culture is passed on by word of mouth and the stories that people tell, understanding and influencing organizational culture is more accessible through emotional narratives than rational facts.

Leaders wishing to effect organizational culture change can therefore benefit from seeking help to reflect on how they enact culture, especially in connection with specific artifacts, structures, systems or practices. Organizational culture change often arises as a response to pressing problems with current culture or is initiated as a part of an overall management change strategy. Yet, leaders may lack the conceptual or practical tools to be able to conceive of or execute such a change process. They may also simply underestimate the difficulty of the task. However, once equipped appropriately, leaders can find the emotional narratives to re-fashioned take on a powerful role in the culture change journey and the working life of the organization.

8.1. Defining organizational culture

Organizational culture is a significant force within an organization. Organizations create their own culture according to the prevailing values and basic assumptions, which in turn influence the behavior and thinking of employees. Its influence is felt in two main ways. Externally, culture may connect to a reputation, brands, and current crises. Internally, cultures assist in decision-making, impact on management practices, structure, employee motivation, and companies responding to changes in their environment. In summary, culture provides stability and energy. Organizations influence perceptions, ideals, and behavior through a set of predicted rules and guidelines. The basic foundation of these assumed values is rarely questioned, leading to tacit, unconsciously held beliefs.

In the context of an organization, cultural influences affect behavior. For example, culture may be derived from four sources: the company's founder, socialization of the employees, formal and informal systems, and the actions of leaders. New employees are inducted into the culture of the organization through stories of the founder’s background, legends of infamous misbehavior, and hero/heroine stories. Formal and informal indicated rules, such as policies, ethics, procedures, rituals, and ceremonies, come to constitute the culture. Organizational leaders also imbue the company with their own values and ideals, which may serve as guides to subsequent administrative policy and decision-making. In addition, as members of an organization, employees are affected by socio-cultural parameters and informal practices of the environment in which they function. These parameters shape perceptions of their role in the organization, expectations of compensation, values attributed to coworkers in terms of class, professional qualifications, and designation. While certain parameters are usually national in scope, many are local and heterogeneous, making qualitative research imperative to study them in depth. Countries are constituted of different regions, with variations in language, customs, religious beliefs, festivals, et cetera.

Cultural influences are particularly profound in the Indian context. India is a culturally diverse country, with numerous languages and dialects, styles of living, religious beliefs, customs and traditions. Despite the penetration of western culture through globalization, cocktail cultures have ensued, which may have positive and negative consequences (A. Mufeed et al., 2015) and (Nikčević, 2014).

8.2. Managing organizational change

In today's world, change is unavoidable. Technology, market conditions, customers, competition and organizational structures are constantly changing. Organizations that fail to adapt to these changes risk going out of business. Thus, change is a fact of life in organizations, which need to adjust not just their goals but also practices, policies, and behaviors of people. Organizational change is not isolated phenomenon; it is also inseparable from the broader economic, social and political changes (CODREANU, 2010). This sums up why an interest in and an understanding of how to manage change are important for today's organizational leaders and managers. Organizations today need to effectively make sense of the need for change, therefore understanding how organizations perceive, react to, and respond to change efforts seems particularly important; organizations are increasingly operating in highly dynamic environments and in the midst of continuous change efforts. Because of this dynamic, change efforts themselves can arise on several different levels, from democratic and participatory to imposition from higher organizational levels. Organizational change is a salient feature of organizational development. Organizations interact with change in their environment on a short-term basis, resulting in internal change on a long-term basis (Gwavuya, 2011). These changes take the form of either organizational adjustment of the structure or "behavioural" change of the internal relations and practices. An important role in this change are the human resources who have "greater resistance" to change; this means human resources with a well-defined behavior, resistant to change of routine. The change itself can be radical, revolutionary, emergent, systemic, incremental, improvement, systematic, and planned, although generally people understand something with difficult, rupture with the past and the need for study and purpose.

It could be perceived the following challenges to change management: be oriented towards the individual behavior and perception of change, group behaviors towards organizational change and existing change management models. Flexibility and continuous change ought to be priorities for organizations. It is better to be proactive to changes, which means in a better competitive position, instead of being merely reactive. Change can be viewed as a breakdown of equilibrium of existing context, which is induced or self-initiated. Change management embeds various processes and techniques for minimizing the losses and continuing to function during the course of transformation. It is one of the core competencies of managers, as

successful implementation of the strategy depends critically on how to manage the change. Therefore, organizational change solutions and success stories are interesting in this sense. Different organizations view the same change differently. Thus, it is imperative to understand organizational complexity regarding change perception, as well as the influence of internal and external parties on how change is viewed at the organizational level.

Chapter 9. The role of diversity in organizations

Diversity refers to all the ways in which people are different, including race, gender, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, language, (disability), sexual orientation, etc. Organizations today are more diverse in many ways than ever before. The organizations today cannot be conceived of as homogenous, culture-free units. The modern organization is a multi-cultural, multi-racial arena in which people from diverse backgrounds come together to fulfill their social and organizational needs, and to direct their collective efforts towards performance accomplishment. It has been observed that the global market for products and services is becoming increasingly competitive, and that diversity brings a wealth of perspectives, experience, judgment, expertise, and understanding of how people think. The challenge is to manage these diversities in a way that permits constructive differentiation and the fullest utilization of resources in reaching organizational goals. Differences among people may turn out to be major distributors of communication, productivity, effectiveness, and efficiency. Identifying the sources of those differences, finding ways to bridge the gaps, and determining how best to utilize those differences for the enforcement or attainment of mutual objectives are vital for the effectiveness and efficiency of work organizations.

Diversity in organizations cannot be understood without exploring and reflecting on other key aspects of culture. In family-oriented cultures, for example, dedication to family is a primary motivation. Special provisions are made for children in the workplace to enable parents to balance the demands of their roles in organizations and their roles in the family. The expectation is that when decisions must be made between competing household and workplace demands, the family must come first. Thus workers may leave for child care concerns. Social relationships are gendered. Men socialize with men, and women socialize with women. Thus, the senior male executives' informal networks often provide information and channels for discussion not readily accessible to female employees. Socialization in the workplace is often uneven and difficult for women. Organizations also develop their own norms and rituals for coping with the conflicting demands of work and family life. There may be informal agreements to develop a multi-dimensional view of organizational performance that recognizes the balance of work and family. The objective is to maximize productivity and minimize

workplace family stress by creating organizational family-friendly policies and procedures within the realities of profit and competition (A. Erolin, 2016).

9.1. Benefits of diversity

A diverse organization would have a wider access to different perspectives leading to more innovative ideas and better decision-making (A. Erolin, 2016). Also, by providing a more welcoming environment in which employees from various backgrounds feel at home, the organization can lead to potentially greater retention of talent. Some organizations invest heavily in establishing an inclusive workplace because they recognize absence of diversity as an issue for a well-functioning organization. From a different perspective, organizations took to playing with diversity in order to avoid negative media coverage or simply to be politically correct. In this case, the issue had purely public relations rooted interests for the organization.

Over the last decades, potential benefits of diverse workforce diversity to organizational performance have gained wide acceptance in the Human Resource Management (HRM) community. Aligning with global trends, a significant percentage of large organizations, medium-sized, and small-sized companies have diversity initiatives that address various factors including gender, race/ethnic origin, age, sexual orientation, disability, and foreign background. Diversity training was the main approach to diversity. A considerable percentage of respondents who had hired or planned to hire a consultant recognized training on diversity issues. In addition to diversity training, over 50% of organizations employed other diversity practices, such as unpaid leave for observance of religious or cultural holidays, micro data on diversity, recruitment strategies to increase diversity, and career development to increase diversity in higher-level positions. Despite a high acceptance of workplace diversity in organizations, it was surprising its possible implications and impacts were not widely acknowledged.

One way of contributing to the understanding of workplace diversity is by establishing a connection between its adoption and implications of organizational performance. But the earliest attempts to assess the diversity-performance connection was rather rudimentary. For instance, these have measured very specific indicators of organizational performance such as “better ideas” and “more innovative”. Those attempts did not clearly specify under what

conditions diversity might influence organizational performance or why workplace diversity might both benefit and harm organizational performance simultaneously. In general, the underlying issue is how diversity affects the performance-related constructs at various levels of analysis. Meanwhile, although diversity remains popular with frequent mainstream media coverage, the diversity-performance connection remained anecdotal and its impact on business performance still remains largely obscure and inconsistent to date.

Greater levels of gender and race diversity were positively associated with business performance (Shemla, 2011). In a large-scale study of over 500 for-profit companies, a strong relationship was observed between gender and race diversity on business performance, measured in terms of increased revenue, increased number of customers, greater market share, and greater profits. A crucial reason to this effect was increased levels of creativity and innovativeness. However, gender diversity also had negative impacts such as discrimination lawsuits and grievances filed to regulators. Some empirical studies documented neutral or curvilinear outcomes of workplace diversity on business performance. In sum, the diversity–gender and race–performance connection is not straightforward and future research efforts are warranted.

9.2. Challenges of diversity management

Diversity, in a workplace context, commonly refers to the rich array of cultural variations that exist between employees. This diversity encompasses a variety of factors including but not limited to personal histories, life experiences, values, and future aspirations that each individual brings to the organization. These differences can significantly affect how teams operate, how problems are approached, and ultimately, the overall effectiveness of the organization. On the other hand, diversity management is defined as a proactive and conscious commitment aimed at building and nurturing an inclusive environment. This environment ensures that varied voices and perspectives actively participate in shaping and setting the organization’s long-term agenda. Managing diversity in the short-term requires creating equitable representation based on numerous criteria. These criteria include age, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, ability, and even educational backgrounds, at all levels of the organization. When organizations successfully implement short-term diversity management

strategies, they can see immediate benefits, such as improved team dynamics and increased creativity. However, managing diversity in the long-term means making more profound changes to the organization's culture and practices to fully support diversity and inclusion. This involves incorporating worker input into the decision-making processes at all levels and making certain that all groups derive benefits from these changes. A sustainable diversity strategy leads to an environment where everyone, regardless of their background, can thrive and contribute to the organization's success. (Ogohi Daniel, 2019)

There are numerous costs and benefits associated with these significant changes. The most notable and salient potential costs that arise from diversity management efforts are frequently experienced at the level of everyday interactions and transactions. Businesses effectively manage diversity by altering their hiring criteria, implementing comprehensive anti-discrimination policies, or adopting preference policies that promote inclusion. Costs that are related to such workplace diversity management strategies can be incurred at the point of all transactions that occur between employees and decision-makers throughout their ongoing relationship with the organization. These costs of diversity management encompass hiring costs, termination costs, onboarding costs, as well as the long-term financial and operational costs that stem from each of these decisions. Together, they create a complex and multiplicative behavioral economic equation that impacts the entire organization. Moreover, the barriers to entry into these diverse groups can either be exceedingly slight, making it easy for individuals to join, or can be grossly inequitable, creating significant obstacles and disadvantages for certain groups.

New costs arise in any diversity management policy, as decisions made regarding transient interactions within the organization can be significantly influenced by existing competing biases that are often present in the background. Such policies, aimed at mitigating the effects of decision-makers who harbor these biases, typically require the establishment of rigorously structured, rule-based interactions. Examples of this include the implementation of diverse hiring panels and disciplinary boards that provide checks and balances in critical decision-making processes. The financial implications of such policies can become even more pronounced in high-stakes industries such as media, finance, or law, as well as in geographically dispersed offices where the dynamics of transactions can be riskier and the staff may be less well-acquainted with pro-diversity norms and practices. It is during the process of

making these crucial up-front decisions—deciding whom to surround oneself with, what types of diversity criteria to apply in hiring processes, and similar considerations—that additional costs must be incurred, including recruitment costs and related expenditures. However, it is vital to recognize that these costs will be substantially outweighed by benefits such as increased productivity, reduced litigation expenses, decreased turnover among volunteers, and an overall enhancement of the organization's reputation.

Chapter 10. Workplace stress and its management

The study conducted a comprehensive investigation into the various potential sources of stress that may arise in the workplace, focusing primarily on its impact not only on the employee but also on the organization as a whole. Furthermore, it explored the necessary interventions that can be implemented to effectively mitigate the adverse effects of workplace stress. The aspects of workplace stress and the consequent effects on employee performance, particularly within the public sector, were carefully reviewed with a strong emphasis on existing literature related to this critical subject. The wide-ranging impacts of these sources of workplace stress, affecting individual employees as well as the organization in its entirety, were meticulously studied, again relying on a foundation of existing literature. Stressors identified within the workplace environment were systematically categorized into broad potential sources such as environmental, organizational, and social factors, all of which play significant roles in shaping employee experiences. Additionally, taking into account the numerous detrimental effects of stress on employee performance, a wide array of suggestions aimed at mitigating the impact of these harmful stressors was presented. These included various organizational approaches such as the implementation of comprehensive training programs, effective recruitment of skilled personnel, thoughtful redesigning of jobs to balance workloads appropriately, and ensuring there is an open-door policy to facilitate the reporting and management of grievances. Emotional or psychological stress can be described as a profound state of disruption to both the mental and physiological equilibrium of an employee. This disruption may be triggered by either external or internal factors, combined with the inability of the employee to effectively cope with the stressors at play. It represents a critical pre-condition in the dynamic relationship between an employee and the stressors they are facing. When the employee's state of equilibrium is disturbed beyond a certain threshold, they inevitably respond to this disruption, leading to a stressed-out condition in which their production levels, health, and overall behavior are adversely affected. Work-related stress, specifically, has been defined as the type of stress that can significantly detrimentally impact employee performance and behavior within the workplace environment. This particular type of stress often arises due to various environmental stimuli or stressors present in the workplace, generating feelings of threat, fear, pressure, or heightened expectations placed on the employee. Among the myriad impacts of workplace stress, one of the most notable is absenteeism, which is the tendency of an employee

to take sick leaves or personal time off work as a means to escape the overwhelming pressures of work-related stress. Additionally, workplace stressors can lead to a range of emotional ill-health conditions, which in turn may result in impaired judgment, withdrawal from colleagues and activities, aggressiveness, and the display of passive, hostile, or even aggressive behavior when faced with confrontation. The multifaceted nature of workplace stress thus necessitates ongoing examination and proactive management to foster a healthier work environment. (Douvaras & I. Ukpere, 2014)(R. Murphy, 1970)

10.1. Identifying sources of stress

Stressors are inherently ubiquitous in today's society, significantly impacting the personal and professional lives of a vast majority of people on a daily basis. When we look at a formal definition, stress can be described as "the degree of pressure or tension someone feels when faced with various situations such as difficulties, conflicts, or challenges" that can arise in everyday life. Stressors can be defined as anything that contributes to an increased level of stress in someone's life, manifesting in numerous ways. Specifically, in the context of stress within organizational settings, employees often have to navigate and deal with various workplace stressors that can disrupt their work-life balance. Examples of some common workplace stressors that many employees face include role conflict or ambiguity, task overload, challenging or difficult relationships with co-workers or a supervisor, harsh and uncomfortable environmental conditions, and a lack of clear communication or direction from management or leadership. It stands in the best interest of any organization to actively establish effective practices aimed at helping to reduce or eliminate stressors from the work environment in order to foster a more positive and productive atmosphere. Employees who are able to perform their jobs with minimal exposure to stressors are much more likely to demonstrate greater engagement, job satisfaction, and productivity in their roles. Given the reality that stress is such a prevalent issue in modern society, it is inevitable that employees will struggle with various stressors that have the potential to affect both their personal and professional lives comprehensively. (Collazo & A. Picardi, 2018)

Workplace stress represents a very real struggle that many employees endure on a daily or weekly basis. In fact, it is often far more common than one might initially think. Unfortunately,

many employees may not feel comfortable discussing their workplace stress, which can ultimately lead to feelings of isolation and helplessness. This unwillingness to open up often compounds the stress experienced by employees. Changes in the dynamics of the workforce have resulted in a situation where a significant number of employees are bearing greater responsibilities. These individuals are managing larger workloads without any corresponding increase in compensation or adequate support. This situation has likely caused workers to experience a heightened struggle with various degrees of workplace stress, ultimately leading to a debilitating cycle characterized by anxiety and decreased productivity. Even those employees who are the most seasoned and experienced must invariably deal with different workplace stressors at some point throughout their career journey. Therefore, it is crucial for managers and leaders to develop an understanding of how to recognize the signs of a stressed employee and consequently provide the appropriate support systems to assist them in coping effectively with their stress. Although it may seem to some like one of the more trivial aspects of management, workplace stress is an issue that should never be taken lightly or dismissed as unimportant. The consequences of unchecked or poorly managed workplace stress can lead to severe unhealthy repercussions for individual employees, and it can also result in significant disruptions organization-wide. Luckily, if addressed proactively and with care, there exist not only effective ways to alleviate stress in employees but also strategies that in proactively tackling this issue can lead to overall cost savings. Furthermore, such measures can foster improvements in workplace performance that benefit everyone involved. By creating and nurturing an environment characterized by open communication and supportive resources, organizations can create a healthier and more productive workforce that is capable of thriving even in the face of challenges and adversity.

10.2. Stress management techniques

In modern times, stress and anxiety have increased due to the rapid growth of life. Everyone has become busy saving time and doing various jobs to earn more money which has led to increased workloads without availability of the needed time. The kind of job that a person has also causes the amount of stress because some of them come along with several challenges which require more time and follow up. Businesses also have become more competitive with various companies trying to outdo each other. The operations in an organization cause

competition to the workers because they are all competing for a chance to get a promotion whereby they will work for more pay than others. Competition has brought about a lot of stress as people have to work to impress their superiors in order to remain at the competition. Call centers also cause stress among workers because they are controlled by the time taken when serving clients. Call reps have to finish serving clients at a specified limited time to avoid being penalized. Even the use of computers and employee monitoring has its limitations and disadvantages. Therefore stress is a global problem to all that has to be reduced as much as possible. Stress management techniques have to be employed in ways that will accommodate the available resources and time (R. Murphy, 1970).

Stress management techniques can either be relaxation techniques or cognitive-behavioral strategies. The relaxation techniques are meditation training, environmental planning, muscle relaxation training, biofeedback, breathing control, a hybrid approach training and self-hypnosis training among others. Focused self-regulation training is a hybrid approach which incorporates environmental planning and muscle relaxation training. Cognitive-behavioral strategies include thought stopping and cognitive restructuring which is also known as cognitive restructuring cognitive preparation. Cognitive restructuring and preparation are techniques that involve the use of higher mental thinking to rediscover a better view of future tasks.

Some of the techniques that are more prevalent and easy to learn are explained in this project which aims at proving that stress management techniques will reduce stress and anxiety when trained to the workers of the institution. Since stress management techniques make good use of resources available to various institutions and since they will blend with job requirements without any faulty time or convenience issues, they will be used to achieve the goal of this project hence allowing the full study of how to actively manage stress in order to live a better and happy life.

Chapter 11. Performance appraisal and feedback

As organizations continue to embrace new strategies and adapt their structures, they are increasingly recognizing that the assessments and feedback provided to employees regarding their performance play a critical role in the overall success of competence development. Performance evaluation serves as the vital starting point for numerous initiatives aimed at developing the competencies not just of individual employees, but also enhancing the capabilities of the organization as a whole. Therefore, it is essential for organizations to invest time and resources into developing feasible, valid, and reliable appraisal tools that can effectively assess current managerial competencies, as well as the particular context in which performance occurs. The implementation of these new and improved appraisal tools must be pursued in conjunction with well-defined procedures designed to ensure acceptance across the organization and promote significant changes in behavior at all levels. This systematic approach aims to standardize and formalize the performance monitoring and appraisal process, all the while enhancing the sense of ownership among line managers and employees alike. By incorporating this framework, organizations can adequately support their workforce's growth and development, making sure that everyone is aligned with the organization's goals and standards. Through this commitment to performance evaluation and feedback, organizations stand to gain a clearer understanding of their strengths and areas for improvement, ultimately fostering an environment conducive to continuous growth and efficiency. (Mosquera et al., 2018)

360-degree feedback is one relatively new approach that can capitalize on the presence of many talented employees through more comprehensive use of the individual rating judgments that they make of one another. A year of 360-degree feedback appraisals can open supervisors to important sources of input about their effectiveness and behavior that they might not have had otherwise. Before organizations introduce 360-degree feedback also need to consider their managerial appraisal needs and the congruence of these needs to the proposal (Sajjad Hosain, 2016). Assuming the organization already has valid assessment criteria and an efficient appraisal process in place, in answering the query. Organizations also need to contemplate on the feasibility of implementing the appraisal plan. It is necessary to establish whether the organization already has the necessary competencies in terms of HRM department structure,

qualifications, experience and management interest before attempting an implementation. Consideration also needs to be given to the support by the top management of the appraisal proposal.

360-degree feedback does work, if implemented in an efficient manner. Most importantly, by providing supervisors with a reliable understanding of how they are viewed by employees working in different roles, the knowledge of performance is disclosed more broadly, leading to potential behavior change. Subtle violations of the appraisal process, in the appraisal framework, the primary rater, the content of the performance assessment, and the feedback feedforward session most likely impact the perceived fairness of the feedback process, leading to ambiguous opinions about whether the feedback should be enacted or discarded.

11.1. Methods of performance appraisal

Performance appraisal is a systematic evaluation of the performance of employees and a formal provision of feedback. Performance is measured by evaluative ratings on work attributes and behaviors deemed essential to the effective performance of a particular job or role. In some organizations, those appraisal data serve as a basis for improvement plans for employees, and for making salary increases, promotions, and discharges. According to this multi-faceted nature, performance appraisal methods are discussed. Four categories of performance data are firstly introduced: (1) input data, (2) process data, (3) output data, and (4) contextual data. Followed are their typical methods of appraisal.

Input measures are crucial characteristics that an organization considers as significant contributors to superior employee performance. These include various factors, such as an individual's ability, professional background, and specific training experiences. It is widely believed that a good match between the characteristics of an employee and the requirements laid out in job descriptions creates a foundation for favorable performance in relation to work processes and expectations. By focusing on work characteristics, organizations can better understand and enhance overall productivity and satisfaction levels. Typical data sources utilized in this appraisal category consist of self-appraisals, standardized test scores, and peer appraisals, each providing unique insights into an employee's capabilities and areas for improvement. Input-based methods systematically algorithmically assess the degree of

alignment between these input characteristics and the described behaviors required for specific job roles. The global reputation of consideration given to input data must also be acknowledged, as it plays a pivotal role in shaping overall employee evaluations. Moreover, it is important to exercise caution and ensure that the appraisal focus is clearly defined and properly trained. This approach aids in accurately measuring employee input data while minimizing the potential influence of unrelated factors and categories. By concentrating on these input measures, organizations can better support their employees' development and performance, ultimately leading to a more effective and engaged workforce. Thus, understanding and applying input measures responsibly is essential for driving superior employee performance. (Chen et al., 2009)

Process appraisal methods estimate the characteristics of employee behaviors throughout the performance process, including units of time or order of execution. The focus of consideration turns to the details on the behaviors instead of attributes. Process data are those continuously generated via the timeliness monitoring of a performance activity, as the need of business operations, such as unit time on a procedure and orderly execution of steps. Timeliness is a key focus for employee performance. Process-based validity designs an approach evaluating the fulfillment of job behavior descriptions as a result of timeliness monitoring of activities. Executed steps and time spent are both regarded as key evidences for controlling and rectifying behaviors of an organization.

11.2. Providing constructive feedback

Performance feedback is important for improvement (Schamberger & Manjarrez, 2017). When done right, feedback matches an employee's performance with the company's goals. It tells employees how to improve their work. Workers want feedback, but many don't get it in a helpful way. When managers think feedback helps employees' performance, most are doing it wrong. Managers should shift from negative feedback on performance errors to future performance suggestions. With the right feedback, employees learn how to change for the better. Managers should focus on the future and what employees can do to improve. They should specify future steps for improvement. Every employee wants it right but thinks they don’t have control over it. Employees rarely think feedback means they are not doing well.

Feedback should answer what they should do next. It must be ongoing, mainly in the informal space, to be effective for learning, improvement, and motivation. Feedback should give a sense of hope and a persuasive commitment to achieving it. Companies still use infrequent appraisals despite the massive importance of day-to-day feedback. Research shows a serious gap between how employees want to receive performance information and how it is given. Employee need and desire is to receive feedback with a future intention. Employees want help in moving to the next step of performance attainment with the information given (Gnepp et al., 2020). Unfortunately, what they get is far from what they need. Recently used past-focused feedback aims to inform workers what they should improve regarding past performance without suggesting anything regarding future performance. Organizations increasingly recognize regular feedback as paramount. However, most systems fail to provide beneficial information. Feedback is often past-focused, stating what was done wrong instead of what can be done better next. Employees want to know how to achieve outcomes to pursue future goals. Constructive feedback should focus on suggesting performance improvements regardless of past mistakes. When giving feedback, open the conversation. It is often hard to give unfavorable reviews and constructive criticism. A blunt delivery of what is wrong may cause the employee to feel anxious, apprehensive, or even defensive. Feedback should be a two-way street, allowing for questions and responses. Managers should create a review process that welcomes ideas and input from the other person. Softening the position with "I notice situations where…" starts with a context they can understand without feeling attacked. It must be a conversation about how to improve, not a proclamatory decree from on high. It should be asked, "What did you think of your results?". Many performance hurdles don't occur in isolation or are pure individual failures. Expecting an immediate response is also unrealistic. Asking for input about specific performance aspects often uncovers areas of concern and the need for help. The two must be in this together. Clarity and specificity lead to working on the right issue, making it easier to find steps forward together.

Chapter 12. Employee engagement and retention

Engagement and retention issues have been an acute focus area for many organizations and have led to untold hours and dollars worth of research and development in the area of employee engagement (Malia Ulfig, 2019). Employee engagement has been described as the emotional commitment to the organization, which implies that engaged employees are more willing to expend discretionary effort on behalf of the organization. It is critical to address employee engagement, for many organizations are finding it difficult to retain their most talented people and the turnover costs can be staggering and debilitating. Managers of human capital should consider implementation of initiatives that will increase their engagement. Higher engagement levels have financial implications in terms of retention costs, performance outputs, customer satisfaction, and enhanced stockholder earnings.

Given the significance of the engagement phenomenon in businesses today, there are a vast number of engagement indexes and assessments on the market today that organizations can utilize to identify their levels of employee engagement. Additionally, there are a significant number of engagement initiatives from which managers can choose to improve the engagement levels of their employees once a serious issue has been identified. However, before jumping into the narrowing of potential assessments or initiatives, it is critical to step back and assess the situational context, the organizational culture, the gap between the current state and desired state, and the potential return on investment in order to identify the best choice to fit the organization’s unique needs and context.

Individual responses to engagement inquiries may be either positive or negative. While higher levels of positive constituent ratings for items in the assessments correlate positively with improved organizational performance, there is a very real risk associated with lower ratings. It is important to consider the devastation controlling thoughts and actions of low ratings could have on an organization. Regardless of the results, an action plan for moving forward is critical as organizational cultures are based upon the beliefs and actions of top leaders. Essentially, there is a risk that any behaviors not conducive to higher engagement will erode the confidence of employees in their organization and, left unabated, will erode performance outputs.

12.1. Factors influencing engagement

Work engagement is the degree of absorption or involvement employees have in the work they do, whereas personal resources refer to characteristics inherent within the employee that are generally regarded as positive and self-evaluative. In the relationship between the different types of resources and work engagement, the separate influence of other factors was neglected.

More specifically, factors influencing work engagement were divided into personal resources and organizational resources. Organizations play a pivotal role in creating the conditions under which their employees thrive and flourish at work (P. Mason, 2010). The majority of research on work engagement is focused on work-related aspects or organizational resources, such that there is an absence of research on how personal resources or what personality-related factors influence work engagement.

In addition, existing research focuses on factors influencing work engagement in isolation without accounting for the possible interplay between organizational resources and personal resources. Furthermore, the focus of research has been restricted to the investigation of work resources as antecedents of work engagement, whereas opposing resource-oriented approaches such as personal resources have largely been overlooked. Regardless, the present investigation will be the first of its kind to consider multiple personal and organizational resources in the same empirical analysis, allowing the researcher to investigate – merely and clearly – the limiting scope of either perspective in isolation or jointly.

12.2. Strategies for retention

Persistent employee turnover creates a disruptive environment with added costs and lost productivity (Krzan Merla, 2018). The resources necessary to help lead an organization are also needed to maintain direction. Those resources are people. As organizations establish training programs for their people, the items learned and the person’s aptitudes and interests combine to create intellectual capital. Creating a valuedurables and then losing it is wasteful. Business managers need a systemic understanding of the reasons employees choose to leave and strategies to shape their retention. The accumulated knowledge gained about the nature and assumptions surrounding the consequences of turnover was used to explore disparities in employee turnover, a business challenge faced by managers. Significant contributions were

made to both research and practice. First were findings related to business managers' perspectives on employee turnover. Unique strategies developed and incorporated by business managers using a systemic approach to organizational commitment to retain employees were identified. Four staff development strategies were identified: the value of the employee in relation to the business's mission, a just controversy process, a management and supervisory framework, and policies to explain workplace behavior. Each of these had supporting mechanisms, specific implementation practices, and staffing processes. Utilizing these strategies helped reduce turnover. The findings were presented to practitioners. Through perspective sharing, custom strategies incorporating those from this study as well as additional ideas, resulting from the creativity, passion, and drive of participants, would result. Business managers emphasized that management selection practices could ease turnover retention risks. Better consideration of fundamental management competencies could reduce personal, corporate, and employee-to-employee misalignment. Empathy, encouragement, evaluation, and motivating skills are important. Managers also mentioned peer relationships and workplace culture as important factors. Heavy workload, lack of communication, questioning, and openness issues were cited as reasons to leave. Selection practices providing greater insight into peer-team fit could ease operating culture concerns. Finally, some attendees viewed the management growth opportunity docket as something that should continue to be considered. There was a desire for older, senior staff, and sound judgment issues to be formally recognized with controlling turn.

12.3. Challenges in measuring engagement and retention

The complex nature of employee engagement and the challenges associated with measuring, understanding, and capturing it have been documented by (Van Jaarsveld, 2013) and the need for organizations to better understand how to engage in a meaningful way has been detailed in numerous studies. Measuring engagement has proven to be a challenge for organizations across industries. The difficulty in measuring engagement stems not only from the lack of widely-accepted measures for capturing it but as Jones discusses, it is also difficult to state what engagement is and to quantify its degree. Discrepancy between parents who respond to engagement measures but do not act in a way indicating engagement and lack of agreed upon definition leading to a lack of agreement regarding its components is described. Satisfaction,

commitment, and loyalty have all been commonly used as measures of engagement. With regards to retention, Sharma argues that employee retention refers to myriad factors affecting the pipeline of talent flowing out of the organization. Tan compared employee-related factors, career-related factors, and company-related factors regarding their influence on employee retention and Holdsworth by asking employees of non-retail organizations where they would go if they had to leave their current job and their reasons for leaving created a dichotomy between cultural values and career prospects.

Two studies considered the approach of using qualitative data collection methods to garner a richer understanding of engagement. (Edward King, 2017) used interviews to discover the need for a sense of purpose, inequities, feeling valued, and the historical influence of engagement. Jones targeted a different problem, creating a measure of engagement reflective of teachers' idiosyncratic definitions and capturing their work experience. Teacher retention-specific studies have also encountered difficulty in measurement. Hurst chose to measure ability to get a teaching job based on advertisement, qualifications, logistics, and credentialing, and measured fit and morale with a set of named factors and direct correlation to prospective exit intention. The breadth of retention compared to the narrow lens of engagement and the difficulty of accurately observing exit intention at discrete points in time leaves the retention-focused studies' methods more difficult to apply.

Survey limitations

Surveys can be an effective measurement tool for gauging employee engagement, yet many are executed poorly (Edward King, 2017). The "one size fits all" nature of most surveys demands that all employees respond to the same questions. When designing a survey, it is likely a good idea to engage in small group discussions with a panel of employees. Having input from employees in the survey design process may better capture the voice of the varying populations within the organization. The input of a diverse panel gives rise to wording and experiences that may be missed in a more homogeneous group. If the pen is passed off to someone outside of the organization or the area of focus, the results may not be representative of the organization or create a perception of distrust amongst employees. One of the most important reasons to gather input in the design of the survey questions relates to a common pitfall of ambiguity in wording. Even slightly different wording can change the meaning of a

question and lead employees to answer differently than intended. For example, a measuring question that considers intent to stay may be worded “Do you see yourself working at this organization in one year?” However, an employee may have a variety of different reasons for leaving; therefore, without knowing the context behind the answer, it is impossible to evaluate either the organization’s or the employee’s position.

Another limitation of surveys is the common occurrence of survey fatigue. Rarely does one leave a company that pushes for more “pulse checks” and surveys after being behind the curve for a while. Employees are often inundated with surveys gauging everything from onboarding processes to organizational restructuring. It is only natural for the response rates to decrease as employees feel that these surveys are not acting in their best interest. Along with decreased response rates comes the absence of reliability in the completion of the survey. It is another natural tendency for employees to either quit answering open-ended questions or provide random jumbled letters in their responses. In order to remedy some of these issues, organizations need to move more towards a holistic approach of eliciting feedback from employees. Surveys need to be accompanied by qualitative measures, such as focus groups or interviews, to follow up the survey results. By conducting interviews with employees surrounding sensitive topics, closed-off information will be more likely to be divulged.

The previously stated pitfalls of poorly designed surveys point to a general inability to get an accurate picture of employee engagement. Some thought needs to be put towards questions that do not just linearly point to engagement but also allow for the subjective nature of engagement. A few of these may include: What do you feel is great about this organization? What are areas for growth? In regards to this organization, I feel... and so forth. Conclusively, there is a plethora of actionable knowledge to be gained through the conversations surrounding the open-ended responses of a well-designed survey. However, if the design lacks forethought, these opportunities are lost.

Data Interpretation Challenges

Organizations that conduct employee engagement initiatives are faced with the challenge of interpreting the data collected through these strategies. A misconception regarding employee engagement initiatives is the idea that once the organization conducts a survey or activity to gather employee sentiment, real change will automatically follow. Organizations must make

the distinction that data gathering and data interpretation are two separate processes. Although the data collecting process is important, organizations must have a clear framework for the analysis and application of the data that was gathered to truly benefit from the effort (Edward King, 2017). Without a clear process for and commitment to data analysis and interpretation, organizations become victims of misplacement of trust in their initiatives. Because of this, employees will cease to respond to surveys or engagement opportunities, or worse, begin spreading negativity internally and externally regarding the organization as a whole.

Employee engagement initiatives often generate data sets that are too fragmented to generate actionable insights. The fragmentation of data arises from a lack of standardization in approach or question design. In organizations wherein several leaders independently launch employee feedback opportunities, the data collected may be so diverse that it is impossible to aggregate and recognize any meaningful trends. Well-intentioned gap analyses can become futile, leading to wasted money and time, as it is not feasible to draw conclusions regarding employee sentiment in an organization with data collected in too many unique avenues. Additionally, when organizations don't collaborate on a focused approach to best gather input, leaders often cause dissonance in perceptions of employee sentiment across the organization and become impacted by the halo effect. The halo effect occurs when strong quantitative responses are misinterpreted as strong qualitative responses. Meaning that even if employees respond positively to data generation opportunities, leaders should not automatically assume confirmation of well-executed programs or initiatives. Misunderstanding the results of quantitative data at their surface can encourage leaders to celebrate flawed conclusions, maladapteredly view employees as engaged, or overestimate strong response sentiment.

When organizations fail to create guard rails around their data generation processes, the context surrounding the data comes to be misconstrued. When organizational leaders offer a survey to employees without proper introduction or context, it unintentionally creates a gap in trust and skews perceptions of employee sentiment. An employee's threshold for susceptibility to being foolishly honest about their opinions and aspirations is contingent upon the day's events surrounding the timing of the survey. Additionally, when large initiatives are rolled out, organizations often fail to make full days or weeks worth of data collection too overwhelming. Employees naturally become numb to long surveys, or the response time allotted is not able to feasibly keep up with the influx of input that students and staff would like to input.

Another consequence of poorly designed employee engagement initiatives is that they often incorporate a feedback loop and fail to examine the circumstances of the feedback in a thorough manner. Organizations will publically glean positive responses to why the organization is a great place to work and what may benefit improvement opportunities. By utilizing this, the organization is opened up for scrutiny as employees can respond to popular items and things brought to light that have been overlooked. When approached irresponsibly, this can lead to backlash against the organization and unify disgruntled employees. Many organizations opt to omit qualitative feedback to allow free expression but unintentionally bury valuable data for leaders on topics that employees feel passionate enough about to speak as they paint red-on-white pictures of examples.

To better navigate employee sentiment generation as organizations gather data during engagement initiatives, they must involve diverse stakeholders in deciding how to interpret the data. This should be done to ensure that multiple viewpoints are considered. When the decision on how to interpret the data is made until after the data is interpreted, leaders may overlook important points and perform dangerously incomplete analyses. To exemplify, an organization may opt to use a hybrid method to analyze their data and base conclusions on top three rankings. Because rankings vary a great amount depending on who first sees the data, it's feasible that all of the same issues regarding data fragmentation mentioned in chapter two could arise, and less obvious discrepancies in interpretations may occur.

Chapter 13. The future of organizational behavior

In the global, knowledge-intensive economy, technology is advancing rapidly and firms are faced with unprecedented challenges. In response, first, many organizations have been downsizing by laying off employees, which affect many employees' behaviors and attitudes, as well as organizational performance. Second, the magnification of work-life conflicts and its consequences for both workers and organizations have drawn more attention than ever. Third, continuous changing environments and organizational restructuring give rise to worries about managers and employees of organizations. The local, national, and international impact of the event of September 11, 2001 on both employment and individual behaviors was clearly felt. This is not the first but definitely not the last time to rethink the future – and past – of OB as an academic and practical field in the global economy in which most well-known companies are under increased pressures and challenges. OB means "understanding and application of organizational behavior - the dynamics of people and organizational behavior" (Luthans, 2002). In the early 90's, with a burgeoning peer-reviewed literature base in OB, it also means the growth of a substantial new academy other than books originally written in management, organizational psychology, and social psychology. Now, it gets into another threshold crossing with an increasingly sophisticated literature in OB.

Similar and different contents are to be undertaken with this editorial. Verdant issues in OB and relevant challenges are presented in somewhat likening themes as an 前 rumination for an acceptable future. In addition, a guest editorial to address some possible future focuses in OB is offered. The ultimate purpose is to garner OB scholars' attention so that the collective thoughts to envisage the future of OB could be blogged and shared with OB communities all over the world. The past literature reviewed indicates that at least three major focuses have been prevalent in mainstream OB research: not but limited to, employees' well-being, contextual factors and change, and individuals' behaviors and sociality. By the theme, "the future of organizational behavior", invited writers from academic and practitioner communities, but not limited to ad hoc argument, are welcomed to share their thoughts and insights on any relevant topics as a new platform to articulate OB issues in solutions and preventions.

13.1. Trends in organizational behavior

The study of organizational behavior (OB) is a complex and nuanced field, addressing how people behave in relevant organizations. Practitioners in the field also work to enhance organizational performance by fostering desirable behaviors (Ehsan Kashani, 2019). These behaviors range from motivation, interpersonal, and leadership processes to collective-level phenomena, like culture, climate, and change. Overall, OB can be thought of as a multi-disciplinary area of inquiry focused on the behavior of individuals (or groups of individuals) in work settings.

One fundamental trend is that, as OB scholars, there is a yearning to reduce the study of individual behavior in organizations to two possible outcomes: performance (i.e., "how efficient," projects/ideas/people are optimal performance measures), and well-being (i.e., "how desirable," the output of the process samples seeking a meaningful existence, shared dream(s), etc.). This dichotomy has provided a wider space to differentiate in the research purposes, so one can ask questions such as "How can people perform better?" (balancing both "how well" and "how efficient") and "How can they be happier?" (balancing both "how nice" and "how desirable"). As a trend, performance is usually the overarching outcome of interest; OB-as-performance scholars predominantly look for ways to make individual(s) do more and better. Individual performance is then linked to group performance through various means, where the total outcome of performance is in turn utilized as an indicator of the performance of teams and organizations (Bal, 2019).

13.2. The impact of technology on organizations

Change is part of organizational life. It is inevitable and an outcome of organizational growth. Over the years, organizations have realized that to survive and be successful, they must change. Organizations exist within an environment where globalization drives dynamism in the business environment, and no organization is immune to the effects of globalization. How organizations decide to survive in the face of globalization is crucial. Globalization forces organizations to compete differently; thus, competition transcends national borders. Competition is no longer defined by national indices alone; competition now includes organization-based variables such as strategizing and policies to compete worldwide (Adeniji

et al., 2018). A stiff browser of local and world competitors has emerged, and organizations can now compete with their competitors based in different countries. The impact of globalization on policy, strategy, and productivity is enormous. Like every other organization in Nigeria, the Nigerian Breweries PLC is not immune to the effects of globalization. It now competes not only with local manufacturers or industries but also with world-famous organizations, which affects boardroom decisions, policy formulations, and strategies.

The forces of globalization, competition, and advancement in technology affect a large number of organizations because it is imperative for organizations to devise new ways of strategizing and policy formulation for survival and improve performance. Technological change is one of the major environmental forces that affect organizations all over the world. The quality and number of products and services delivered are determined by the level of technology. The level of technology is also determined by the end-users of such products. With the level of technological development in Nigeria, most products and services rendered by manufacturing companies, banks, and telecommunication companies do not meet the standard requirements of the end-users (Demir, 2019). This does not only affect the organizations but also the living states of the groups and individuals. Technological change is a major threat to organizations in terms of production, job security, and employee performance. It is one of the factors endangering the performance of employees, particularly in Nigeria, where it is not welcomed with open arms, especially in the manufacturing sector.

Conclusion

Managing organizations is one of the most complex activities known for humanity. Therefore, it is natural for scholars and executives to explore and deepen their understanding of this beautiful, complicated, and full of nuances phenomenon. Understanding and restructuring the organizational behavior realm is a necessity, if not a must, in the dynamically equivocal 21st-century organizational context. Despite all practical and scientific attempts, and presumably for many more years, the complexities of human and organizational behavior will stay an enigma worthy of contemplation (Ehsan Kashani, 2019). Certain explanations of the behavior of things and plants exist; hence people can predict their behaviors to some extent. But due to the infinite unknowns of the human brain, the ignorance toward human nature, the contradictions in the behavioral interpretations and implications, and the additional indirect influence of many unexplainable variables, even the simplest behavior of a group of people cannot be intuitively predicted. Organizations should be the centers of their continuous improvement; this is the first principle of the discipline of organizational behavior management (OBM). This principle is the result of two cause-and-effect relationships: first, in each era at any stage in life, a person or group must be superior and focus above everything else, and second, on such a superior ground, success must be guaranteed by controlling behavior. As existence and survival are updates of these expected achievements, a person or organization that owns them will always pursue controlling behavior; hence it comparatively raises more awareness and prediction toward the explained phenomenon and has more importance as brilliance or genius. This is neither a good nor a bad truth; rather it is a pure fact that is beneficial only to those with inherently good volition. The term 'behavior' connotes almost everything about entities or organs (specifically, all physically observable words, gestures, postures, movements of any entity, etc.). But things and plants never perform actions that affect their inner identity definition directly or optically; they only change themselves without controlling, affecting, manipulating, or altering anything else.

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