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17. Organizational communication

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Table of Content

CHAPTER 1.

1.1. Organizational Structures

The first major theme commonly seen in the various definitions of the word organization has to do with structure. When we talk about how organizations are structured, we are talking primarily about how they function in terms of both what happens within an organization and how an organization functions within its external environment. For our purposes, we will look at structure in terms of four basic processes: external environment, input, throughput, and output *(Figure 1.1)*.

Figure 1.1 Organizational Structures

External Environment

The first factor to consider in thinking about an organization is the external environment in which it exists. The external environment consists of all vendors, competitors, customers, and other stakeholders who can have an impact on the organization itself but exist outside the boundaries of the organization. Changes in the external environment where an organization exists will have an effect on the organization itself. For example, the government might impose new regulations on your industry, and these new regulations will affect how your organization must function. When it comes to how an organization interacts with its external environment, we often refer to two different types of boundaries.

An organization with open boundaries allows for the free flow of information to the organization and is more likely able to adapt to changes that occur within the environment. Closed boundaries, on the other hand, occur when an organization tries to insulate itself from what is occurring within its environment.

Input

The next major aspect of an organization's environment involves inputs. Inputs are those resources that an organization brings in from the external environment in order for the organization to accomplish its goals. Typically, resources can be discussed in three general categories: physical materials, people, and information. First, an organization brings in physical materials that it needs to accomplish its goals. The second type of input necessary from the external environment involves people. An organization relies on skilled workers to accomplish its goals. The final type of input an organization needs is information. Information refers to any data that is necessary for an organization to possess in order to create knowledge.

How do organizations go about acquiring data that can lead to action? There are two types of external environment scanning processes that organizations can employ: proactive and reactive. First,proactive scanning occurs when an organization actively looks for data or existing information that could be transformed into usable knowledge. For example, doing research on your competitors in an effort to stay on top of your market is an example of proactive scanning. Second, reactive scanning occurs when an organization faces a specific problem and then makes sense out of the data/information that arises from the problem, or searches the external environment for data/information that could be useful in addressing the problem. [1]

Throughput

Throughput is what an organization ultimately does, within its own confines, with the inputs it receives. Throughput can range from the use of physical materials, people, and information, to how organizations internally structure themselves to create goal-oriented throughput. While we cannot discuss every possible way an organization can utilize inputs, we should note that the issue of internal organizational structure is very important at this level of an organization. For this reason, we must discuss two ways that organizations commonly structure themselves.

A hierarchy is a categorization system in which individuals/departments are ranked over other individuals/departments based on their respective skills, centrality, and status. First, organizations can place people/departments over others because of specific skill sets. Second, people can be ranked over others because of their centrality to the organization's goals. Lastly, organizations can be organized based on status—an individual's relative position to others as a result of esteem, privilege, or responsibility. When someone gets promoted to a higher position, her or his status increases in terms of a formal hierarchy.

[1] ASTD (2006): Managing organizational knowledge. In: E. Biech (Series ed.: *ASTD Learning System,* Vol. 8. Alexandria, VA: ASTD Press.

Whether that promotion is a result of esteem, privilege, or responsibility doesn't matter at this point; only the elevation within the hierarchy matters.

Now that we've discussed what hierarchy is, let's talk about the two common ways that organizations are typically patterned—flat versus tall hierarchies *(Figure 1.2).*

Figure 1.2 Hierarchies

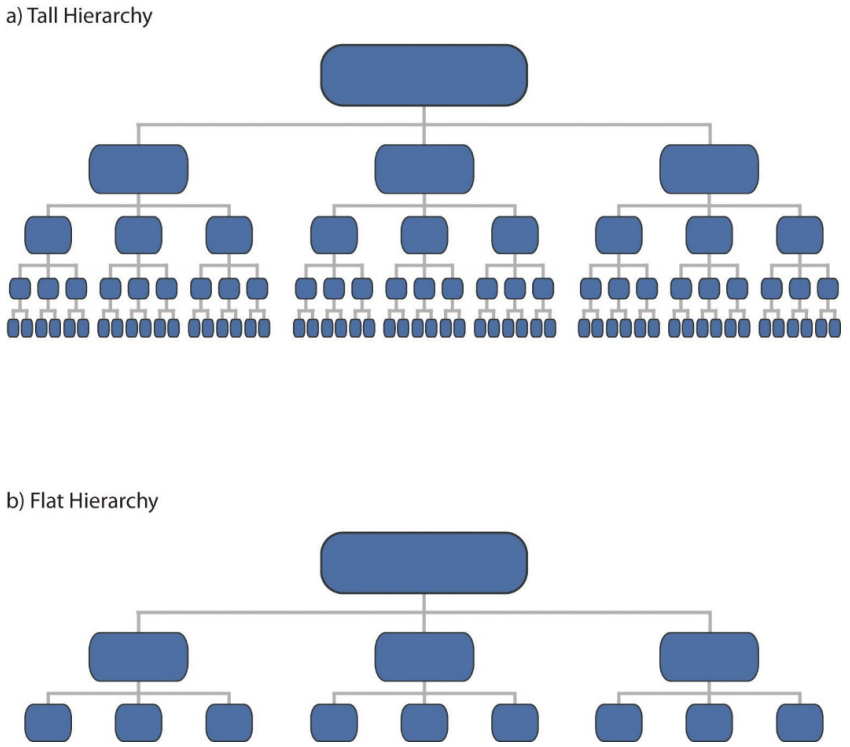


Image A in *Figure 1.2* represents a tall hierarchy, so called because it has many hierarchical layers between those at the bottom and those at the top. Two commonly discussed tall hierarchies are the Catholic Church and the US military. Within the Catholic Church, you have the average parishioner at the bottom of the hierarchy and the Pope at the top. In the US military, you have the average enlisted soldier at the bottom of the hierarchy and the president of the United States, as commander in chief, at the top. In both cases, the people at the bottom have little or no communication with those at the top.

Image B in *Figure 1.2* represents flat hierarchies where only a couple of layers separate those at the bottom and those at the top. Think of organizations like mom-and-pop restaurants. In a typical small restaurant, the owner may also serve as the chef and may have only a handful of waitstaff, table busers, and dish cleaners as employees. In these hierarchies, it is very easy for those at the bottom of the hierarchy to communicate with those at the top.

Output

The final aspect related to organizational structure is output, which is the ultimate product or service that an organization puts back into the external environment. One organization may create the components that go into a TV remote, while another may send to your home the technician who hooks up your cable or satellite. Every organization is designed to produce some kind of service or product for the external environment. Even nonprofit organizations like the American Red Cross are producing a range of both products and services for the external environment.

1.2.

1.2.1.

After structures and goals, people are the final characteristic common to various definitions of the word "organization." In Jason Wrench's original discussion of the three common themes related to people, he discussed interdependency, interaction, and leadership. [34] For our purposes, we also list a fourth notion—control—as an important factor related to the people in an organization.

Interdependency

The first term associated with people in organizations is interdependency, which means mutual dependence, or depending on one another. In organizations, this means people depend on one another to achieve the organization's goals. If one part of the organization stops functioning properly, it will affect the other parts. For example, imagine that you are a copy editor for a New York publisher. If you get behind on your job, then the graphic designers, marketing professionals, printers, and other groups of people will also get behind. At the same time, interdependency can also help an organization. If you work with a solid group of colleagues then, even when something happens to set you back, the others can help pick up the slack and keep the work on schedule. Overall, people impact each other in organizations.

Interaction

Our interactions with others help define and create what is an organization. Without the interactions we have with our coworkers, customers, and other stakeholders, an organization really doesn't exist. For this reason, you can almost say that the "thing" we call an organization doesn't really exist because it's not a physical structure, but rather an outcome of our interactions with others. An organization may have physical objects within it (desks, computers, pencils, etc.), but the actual organization is ultimately the people that make it exist.

At the same time, people within an organization also interact with each other in various roles in an effort to accomplish the organization's goals. People within organizations and people who come in contact with organizations are constantly in a state of interaction.

Control

Organizations are, as Dennis Mumby pointed out, inherently entities that must control the behaviors of members, even while members generally strive to meet their own needs. [35] When one group has one set of needs and desires, and another has a different set of needs and desires, we refer to these groups as being in dialectical tension.

Leadership

The last term associated with people in organizations is leadership. Any organization must have an individual or clearly discernible group that guides the organization toward accomplishing its goals. Without such leadership, individual members of an organization must puzzle over how to accomplish the organization's goals. When leadership is unsettled and people are pulling in different directions, the organization is unlikely to accomplish much. For an organization to thrive, it must have effective leadership that fosters effective "followership."

1.2.2.
Types of Organizations

The last factor to realize in understanding organizations is that there are numerous types of organizations. A good overview of the different systems that have been proposed to categorize organizations is provided by Carper and Snizek. [36] Here we will use the categories proposed by Peter Blau and W. Richard Scott. [37]Blau and Scott created a classification system with four distinct categories: mutual benefit associations, business concerns, service organizations, and commonweal organizations.

Mutual Benefit Associations

The first type of organization is the mutual benefit association, which is focused on providing services to its members. Examples are "political parties, unions, fraternal associations, clubs, veterans' organizations, professional associations, and religious sects." [38] People generally join these types of organizations because of the benefits they receive. When these organizations are first being created, organizational members are generally very involved in the creation of the organization. However, once such an organization has been around for a while, the majority of the members become passive and let the minority run the organization. Whether you belong to a sorority or fraternity or even the forensic team at your college or university, most people belong to at least one mutual benefit association.

Business Concerns

The second type of organization is the business concern, which is focused on doing well for itself. According to Blau and Scott, the "dominant problem of business concerns is that of operating efficiency—the achievement of maximum gain at minimum cost in order to further survival and growth in competition with other organizations." [39] Most for-profit organizations are business concerns. These organizations face problems associated with "maximizing operating efficiency in a competitive situation." [40] Because of their need to cut costs and maintain a competitive advantage, these organizations may even be cold and callous in how they treat employees and customers. Everything from Walmart to the New York Times is a business concern.

Service Organizations

Blau and Scott describe service organizations as those "whose basic function is to serve [their own] clients." [41] Service organizations can include "social-work agencies, hospitals, schools, legal aid societies, and mental health clinics." [42] The basic problem that service organizations face is "the conflict between professional service to clients and administrative procedures [that] are characteristic of service organizations." [43] Often service organizations are steeped in organizational hierarchies and procedures that prohibit providing the easiest and fastest service to potential clients. As a student, you're currently involved in a service organization—namely, your college or university. But most of us also interact with doctors, clinics, dentists, optometrists, and more on a semiregular basis. All these last organizations are profit driven, but their basic purpose is to serve their clients.

Commonweal Organizations

The last type of organization discussed by Blau and Scott is commonweal organizations, whose "prime beneficiary is the public-at-large." [44] Examples include "the State Department, the Bureau of Internal Revenue, military services, police and fire departments, and also the research function as distinguished from the teaching function in universities." [45] All these organizations were created because they represent areas where the general public needs some level of protection or knowledge, or the organization serves the administrative purposes of the government. Overall, the crucial problem posed "by commonweal organizations is the development of democratic mechanisms whereby they can be externally controlled by the public." [46] One reason we pay taxes is so we can have quick and easy access to many commonweal organizations.

In the United States, firefighting has not always been a commonweal organization. Until the mid-1800s, private gangs often controlled firefighting brigades in large towns and cities. These gangs might set fires and then extort building owners for money to put the fires out. On the other hand, some buildings might burn to the ground while firefighting gangs fought over which brigade controlled that neighborhood. One such riot broke out near Cincinnati, Ohio, in 1851 and involved ten rival gangs. Two years later, Cincinnati became the first US city to publicly fund its firefighters. Today, we cannot imagine that firefighting is anything but a common good for all.

1.3.

Now that we've introduced some beginning definitions, let's switch gears. To help you get an initial grasp of "organizational communication," we'll explore three ways of viewing the term and then offer a brief history of the field.

Viewing Organizational Communication

Stanley Deetz argued that defining what is meant by the term *organizational communication* is only half the question: "A more interesting question is, 'What do we see or what are we able to do if we think of organizational communication in one way versus another?' Unlike a definition, the attempt here is not to get it right but to understand our choices." [1] Instead, Deetz recommends that we grasp three different ways to conceptualize organizational communication: as a discipline, as a way to describe organizations, and as a phenomenon within organizations.

Organizational Communication as Discipline

The first way the term *organizational communication* is defined is as a specific subfield of the communication field. However, organizational communication is not an academic area of study unique to the field of communication studies. The ways that people within organizations communicate, and how organizations corporately communicate, are also of interest to fields such as management science, organizational behavior, and industrial psychology. Organizational communication is a uniquediscipline, observed Dennis Mumby and Cynthia Stohl, because it attracts a "community of scholars [who] constitute a disciplinary matrix when they share a set of paradigmatic assumptions about the study of a certain phenomenon." [2] In other words, organizational communication is a discipline because people who study it share certain core ideas about the subject. Mumby and Stohl go on to note, "This does not mean that there is a consensus on every issue, but rather that scholars see objects of study in similar ways, and use the same language game in describing these phenomena." [2]

In fact, you may find your teacher or even yourself disagreeing with our interpretation of certain aspects of organizational communication, which is very much a normal part of any academic discipline.

[1] Deetz, S. (2001): Conceptual foundations. In: Jablin, F. M.–Putnam, L. L. (Eds.): *The new handbook of organizational communication: Advances in theory, research, and methods.* Pp. 3–46. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

[2] Mumby, D.–Stohl, C. (1996): *Disciplining organizational communication studies. Management Communication Quarterly.* (10.), Pp. 50–72. p. 52.

Organizational Communication as Descriptor

The second way we can view the term *organizational communication* is as descriptor for what happens within organizations. Deetz explains, in the same way that psychology, sociology, and economics can be thought of as capable of explaining organizations' processes, communication might also be thought of as a distinct mode of explanation or way of thinking about organizations. As you will quickly see in this book, organizational communication is a hybrid field—people in a variety of different academic areas conduct research on the topic. Scholars in anthropology, business, psychology, sociology, and other academic areas conduct research that is fundamentally about organizational communication. Communication scholars differ in how we approach organizational communication because our training is, first of all, in human communication. So we bring to the study of organizational communication a unique history and set of tools that other scholars do not possess.

Organizational Communication as Phenomenon

The final way one can view the term organizational communication is as a specific phenomenon, or set of phenomena, that occurs within organizations. For example, when two employees get into a conflict at work, they are enacting organizational communication. When the chief financial officer of an organization is delivering a PowerPoint presentation on the latest quarterly earnings to the organization's board of directors, he or she is engaging in organizational communication. The latest advertisement campaign an organization has created for the national media is another example of organizational communication.

CHAPTER 2.

2.1.

To understand classical theories, a brief history of industrialization is necessary. Industrialization, or the Industrial Revolution, refers to the "development and adoption of new and improved production methods that changed America and much of Europe from agrarian to industrial economies." [1] So how did both Europe and America transform themselves from agrarian-, or farming, based economies to industrial ones? To pinpoint a single event or invention that really created the Industrial Revolution is almost impossible. From approximately 1750 to 1850, a variety of innovations in agriculture, manufacturing (both iron and textiles), mining, technology, and transportation altered cultural, economic, political, and social realities. For the first time in history, people stopped working on family farms or in small family-owned businesses and started working for larger organizations that eventually morphed into the modern corporation. While there had been models of large organizations with massive influence, such as the Catholic Church, these organizations had been very limited in number. As more and more people left the family farm or local weaver in hopes of bettering their lives and the lives of their families through employment in larger organizations, new tools and models for managing these workers had to be developed.

Perhaps the most widely known theories of organizational communication are those from the classical period that stemmed out of the Industrial Revolution. The main idea of the classical perspectives of organizational communication is that organizations are similar to machines. Hence if you have a well-built and well-managed machine, then you will have a very productive and effective organization. The assumption is that each employee is part of a large machine, which is the organization. If one part fails, then the entire machine fails.

In 1913, **Frederick Taylor** published *Principles of Scientific Management,* ushering in a completely new way of understanding the modern organization. [2] Taylor was trained as an engineer and played a prominent role in the idea of scientific management. Scientific management is a management-oriented and production-centered perspective of organizational communication. Taylor believed that the reason most organizations failed was that they lacked successful systematic management. He wrote, the best management is true science resting upon clearly defined laws, rules, and principles, as a foundation. He further noted, under scientific management arbitrary power, arbitrary dictation ceases, and every single subject, large and small, becomes question for scientific investigation, for reduction to law. Taylor believed that any job could be performed better if it was done scientifically. He created time-and-motion studies that resulted in organizational efficiency.

Max Weber and **Henri Fayol** were two other theorists known for their work in the classical perspectives to organizational communication. These two theories focus on the structure of the organization rather than the organizational activities. Many of their ideas are around today.

[1] Taylor, F. (1913): *Principles of scientific management.* New York: Harper.

[2] Eisenberg, E. M.– Goodall, H. L. Jr. (1993): *Organizational communication: Balancing creativity and constraint.* New York: St. Martin's Press.

[3]Weber, M. (1947): *The theory of social and economic organization (A. M. Henderson and T. Parsons, Trans.).* London: Collier MacMillan.

Max Weber defined bureaucracy as the ideals to which organizations should aim and aspire. [3] Weber was influenced by socialist philosophy. He developed the idea of bureaucracy when he noticed several corrupt and unethical behaviors of leaders. He felt that organizational leadership should center on task proficiency and impersonal relationships. Even though many people associate bureaucracy with red tape and ineffective organizations, this is not the outcome of bureaucracy. According to Weber, bureaucracy should be synonymous with order, consistency, reason, and reliability.

Henri Fayol [4] managed a French mining company called Comambault, which he was able to transform from an almost bankrupt organization to a very successful one. Originally, he worked there as an engineer, then moved into management, and later leadership. Similar to Weber, Fayol felt that there needed to be division of labor, hierarchy, and fair practices. All in all, communication in the classical perspective has two functions: control and command. Fayol believed that organizations must limit their communication to precise and explicit words for task design and implementation. Thus communication is not spontaneous and is more centralized in a classical organization.

Fayol also believed there were certain management activities, specifically five activities that are applied to the administration unit of an organization. These activities included planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling.

[3] Weber, M. (1947): *The theory of social and economic organization (A. M. Henderson and T. Parsons, Trans.).* London: Collier MacMillan.

[4] Fayol, H. (1949): *General and industrial management.* London: Pitman.

2.2.

Elton Mayo was a Harvard professor with a huge interest in Frederick Taylor's work. He was interested in learning ways to increase productivity. In 1924, Elton Mayo and his protégé, Fritz Roethlisberger, were awarded a grant by the National Research Council (NRC) of the National Academy of Science to study productivity and lighting at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company. The Hawthorne experiments, as Elton Mayo's body of work became known, are a series of experiments in human relations conducted between 1924 and 1932 at Western Electric Company's Hawthorne Works in Cicero, Illinois.

Illumination Study

The first study at Hawthorne Works was designed to explicitly test various lighting levels and how the lighting levels affected worker productivity. The original hypothesis of the illumination study was that as lighting increased, worker productivity would increase. The opposite was also predicted, as lighting decreased, worker productivity would decrease. The original push behind the study was the electric power industry, who believed that if they could demonstrate the importance of artificial lighting, organizations around the country would adopt artificial lighting in place of natural lighting to ensure worker productivity.

The research began in the fall of 1924 and continued through the spring of 1927 as three different groups of workers were put through the experiment: relay assembly workers, coil-winding workers, and inspectors. [1] After three different testing conditions were concluded, the researchers were perplexed by their findings. It did not matter if the researchers increased or decreased light in the company; the workers' productivity increased. This finding was true even when the researchers turned down the lights to where the workers could barely see. The researchers later realized that lighting did not affect worker productivity; rather, the researchers' presence had an impact. That's why production outcomes were similar to those in the lighting study—because workers were influenced by the attention they got from the researchers. This incident was labeled the Hawthorne effect.

Relay-Assembly Study

To further clarify the impact of a variety of factors on productivity, a second set of tests was designed to evaluate rest periods and work hours on productivity. The goal of this study was to determine how fatigue impacted worker productivity. Six women operators volunteered to participate in the relay-assembly study. The women were given physical examinations at the beginning of the study and then every six weeks to ensure that the experiment was not adversely affecting their health.

[1] Roethlisberger, F. J.–Dickson, W. J. (1939): *Management and the worker.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

The six women were isolated in a separate room away from other Hawthorne workers, where it was easier to measure experimental conditions like output and quality of work, temperature, and humidity. The specific task in the relay-assembly test was an electromagnetic switch consisting of thirty-five parts that had to be put together by hand.

The experimenters introduced a variety of changes to the workers' environment: pay rates, bonuses, lighting, shortened workdays/weeks, rest periods, and so forth. Surprisingly, as the test period quickly spanned from an original testing period of a couple of months to more than two years, no matter what the experimenters did, productivity increased. In fact, productivity increased more than 30 percent during the first two and a half years of the study and then plateaued for the duration of the tests. The physicals the workers received every six weeks also showed that the women had improved physical health and their absenteeism decreased during the study period. Even more important, the women regularly expressed increased job satisfaction.

Once again the researchers were stumped. They quickly tried to determine what was causing the increased productivity and quickly ruled out all the manipulated conditions and settled on something considerably more intangible—employee attitudes.

Employee-Interview Study

In the middle of the relay-assembly studies, a group of Harvard researchers led by Elton Mayo and F. J. Roethlisberger joined the team of engineers at Hawthorne Works to add further expertise and explanation to the studies under way. One of the most important contributions Mayo made was during the follow-up to the illumination and relay studies when workers at Hawthorne Works were interviewed.

From 1928 to 1931, the Harvard researchers interviewed more than twenty-one thousand workers in an attempt to gauge worker morale and determine what job factors impacted both morale and job satisfaction. The researchers predicted, based on the illumination and relay studies, that if they could increase worker morale and satisfaction, then the workers would be more efficient and productive as well. The interview study definitely posed some new challenges for the researchers. Mayo thought that the *"experience itself was unusual; there are few people in this world who have had the experience of finding someone intelligent, attentive, and eager to listen without interruption to all that he or she has to say."* [2] To this end, Mayo trained a series of interviewers to listen and not give advice as they took descriptive notes of what was being told to them by the workers.

[2] Mayo, E. (1945): *The social problems of an industrial civilization.* Boston: Harvard Business School. P. 163.

Bank-Wiring Observation Study

One of the findings of the interview study was that workers tended to create an informal standard for output that was predetermined by the group but never clearly stated. These productivity standards were never really in line with the ones communicated by either efficiency engineers or managers. To examine the influence of informal group rules on worker productivity, Mayo and his team created the bank-wiring observation study.

Fourteen bank wiremen (nine wirers, three smolders [individuals who fused metal parts together using high temperatures], and two inspectors) were placed in a room and told to complete their individual tasks. The men in the room were putting together automatic telephone exchange components that consisted of three thousand to six thousand individual terminals that had to be wired. The workers spent a lot of time on their feet. To ensure that the men were not affected by the Hawthorne effect, the researchers never let the men know they were being studied. However, a researcher named W. Lloyd Warner, a trained anthropologist with an interest in group behavior, was present in the room, but he acted like a disinterested spectator and had little direct interaction with the wiremen. In the experimental condition, pay incentives and productivity measures were removed to see how the workers would react. Over time, the workers started to artificially restrict their output and an average output level was established for the group that was below company targets. Interestingly enough, the man who was considered the most admired of the group also demonstrated the most resentment toward management and slowed his productivity the most, which led to cascading productivity of all the other men in the group.

The researchers ultimately concluded that the wiremen created their own productivity norms without ever verbally communicating them to each other. For the first time, the researchers had clear evidence that within any organization there exists an informal organization that often constrains individual employee behavior. The bank-wiring observation study was stopped in spring of 1932 as layoffs occurred at Hawthorne Works because of the worsening Great Depression.

Conclusion

The Hawthorne Studies and the research of Mayo and Roethlisberger reinvented how organizations think about and manage workers. Contrary to Taylor's perspective, Mayo and Roethlisberger felt that interpersonal relationships were important. Moreover, they thought that society is composed of groups and not just individuals; individuals do not act independently with their own interests but are influenced by others; and most workers' decisions are more emotional than rational. We cannot overstress the importance that Mayo and Roethlisberger have had on management theory and organizational academics. Overall, these studies demonstrated the importance that communication has in subordinate-supervisor interactions, the importance of peer relationships, and the importance of informal organizations.

While the Hawthorne Studies revolutionized management theory, they were also quite problematic. For example, most of the major studies in this series consisted of very small samples of workers (six in the relay study and thirteen in the bank-wiring study), so these results are definitely suspect from a scientific vantage point. Furthermore, some people would argue that Hawthorne effects were really the result of workers who were afraid of unemployment rather than communication relationships. [3] Regardless of potential errors of the studies, the conclusion that Mayo, Roethlisberger, and Dickson found was quite extraordinary. Relationships have a significant impact on the quality of organizational performance.

[3] Rice, B. (1982): The Hawthorne defect: Persistence of a flawed theory. *Psychology Today,* 16., (2.), Pp. 70–74.

2.3.

You were introduced to the research of Elton Mayo and Kurt Lewin under the banner of human-relations theories. In this section, we're going to further our understanding of theory in organizations by examining those theoretical perspectives that fall into the human-resources camp.

The notion of human resources as a general category for a variety of management-related theories was originally proposed by Raymond Miles. [1] First and foremost, Miles's human-resource theories posit that all workers are reservoirs of untapped resources. Miles believed that every worker comes into an organization with a variety of resources that management can tap into if they try: *"These resources include not only physical skills and energy, but also creative ability and the capacity for responsible, self-directed, self-controlled behavior."* [2]

Under this perspective then, managers should not be focused on controlling employees or getting them to "buy in" to decisions, which are the hallmarks of scientific management and human relations. Instead, the primary task of management should be the creation of a working environment that fosters employee creativity and risk taking in an effort to maximize and tap into the resources employees bring to the job. As such, communication in this perspective must be constant and bidirectional, and participation in decision making must include both management and workers. Miles explains that his human resources model *"recognized the untapped potential of most organizational members and advocated participation as a means of achieving direct improvement in individual and organizational performance."* [3] To help us understand human resources, we will describe how human resources differ from human relations and discuss some key people in human resources.

Human-Relations versus Human-Resources Theories

To understand the notions of human relations and human resources is to understand Raymond Miles's [4] original ideas on both concepts. Miles, as explained earlier, articulated a very clear theoretical perspective that was high on communication, high on tapping into employee resources, and high on employee input in decision making. These ideas were not his, but he did create a clear categorization scheme where he delineated between two groups of researchers whom he labeled "human relations" and "human resources." Although Miles believes these two groups exist, he also admits that these groups exist primarily in how managers interpret and apply various the ideas of various innovators within the field of management, so the researchers who fall into the human-relations camp often discuss concepts that seem to fall within Miles's own human-resources framework.

Table provides a list of the major differences that Miles believed existed between human relations and human resources.

TÁBLÁZATOT A TANANYGBAN MEGTALÁLJA A HALLGATÓ.

CHAPTER 3.

3.1.

The assumption that an organization is an object with an independent existence—that is to say, it has an "objective" rather than "subjective" reality—is characteristic of the postpositive (sometimes called positivist or functionalist) tradition in organizational communication scholarship. In this section we will review the postpositive perspective and then, as alternatives, introduce the interpretive, critical, and postmodern perspectives on organizations. Each approach to how we conceive of organizations involves different assumptions. For theorists, their assumptions imply three decisions: ontology, epistemology, and axiology.

Ontology: How things Exist

Our ontology is how we think about the nature of being. Do we think of an organization as having its own existence and own behaviors that continue independently of the various managers and employees who come and go over time? Or do we believe these individuals create and continuously recreate the organization and therefore drive its behaviors? Or is our concept of the organization, and our expectations for the form it should take and what it should do, determined by larger historical and cultural forces?

Epistemology: How Things Are Known

Our epistemology is our philosophy of how things come to be known. Do we believe that knowledge about an organization is attained by observing collective actions and measuring aggregate behaviors? Or by listening to individual members of an organization and interpreting organizational life on their terms? Or by tracing the historical and cultural forces that have shaped people's expectations for what an organization should be and the roles that managers and employees should play?

Axiology: What is Worth Knowing

Our axiology is what we believe is worth knowing, a decision that involves a value judgment. Many social scientists believe that only empirical evidence, or what can be directly and impartially observed and measured, is worth knowing. Others ask whether any research is truly value neutral or can be based on "just the facts." Does not the choice of research method influence what is found? Indeed, is not a decision to accept only what can be measured in itself a value judgment? Where some scholars strive to produce impartial knowledge that organizational management can use to improve results, others believe such a goal implicitly supports the current system and those in power. Furthermore, where some researchers measure aggregate responses, others strive to hear organizational members on their own terms while giving voice to the powerless and thereby effecting social change.

All three issues—ontology, epistemology, and axiology—are deeply implicated in both classical and modern theories of organizational communication.

3.2.

The communication is quite a complicated process which has many particles, many variables, and many parts which we have to consider. Let's now focus on the communication theory itself and to talk about Robert Craig's seven traditions of communication theory. He starts with the notion that many, many definitions of communication exist.

Craig divides seven traditions:

1) cybernetic,
2) socio-psychological,
3) socio-cultural,
4) critical,
5) rhetorical,
6) phenomenological,
7) semiotic.

Cybernetic tradition is communication as a sort of information process. So here, we focus on the system, we focus at individuals or organizations and the channels which are used in order to transmit the message. Communication within this tradition is always goal-oriented. And the sender has an initial goal before he creates the message and utilizes particular communication channel to transmit it or send it. Still, what is received by the receiver and decoded initially is different from the sender's message.

Socio-psychological tradition sees communication as interpersonal interaction. It lies under this umbrella of behavioural approach, focusing on stimuli and reaction. So here, we speak about cause and effect relationships within the communicative process. It's all about expression, interaction, and influence. It originates in psychology and sociology, it tends to be quite objective. And the theorists from the socio-psychological tradition are quite objective.

Socio-cultural tradition sees communication as symbolic process in reproduction or production of social order. It's all about context, culture, and social practices. So, if we were focusing in the previous tradition at the level of an individual or a group in the way how would they respond to the different stimuli. Here, we place an enormous importance on the context, and the way how the society operates itself. So, the social practices which are our everyday routines and the way how we understand and see the world, they are created due to the interaction. So, individuals tend to talk to each other and while they are communicating, they create the shared meaning and the shared understanding on what the world is and what this particular situation is.

Language and ideology are two main focuses of the critical tradition, as scholars believe that the group who controls the language can actually be dominant within the given society. Ideology for critical scholars is very important, as it's embedded and that it also reproduces through the different tools and through the different forms of media. That's why critical scholars are focusing on media itself as mass form of communication which transmits the ideology to the broader publics. And after all, this ideology through media becomes a part of the overall discourse.

When you come to the public presentations, you use all your public speaking. This is rhetorical tradition, and it originates in ancient Greece as we know that the most of the important steps and important suggestions on the way how to structure your public speech were developed. It's all about rhetoric, and the way how we can influence through verbal and nonverbal communication.

The phenomenological tradition, says that communication process can be seen and perceived differently by different people. So, communication as experience of self and others through the dialog is a key focus of this tradition. We consider stem points and perceptions of different people in different situations within the given context. So, if we try to understand how the minority group, understand the reality and how do they conduct their communication? We would better understand the consequences of side interactions.

Phenomenological traditions questioning rhetoric and semiotics. As the signs and symbols can be seen differently by people with different backgrounds and rhetoric as the art of public speaking does not usually work the same different audiences.

The semiotic tradition, is related to the signs and symbols as communication seen as sharing meaning through system of signs. What does it mean? If we get into the conversation of two people who know each other quite well, we might not completely understand what's going on or we can misinterpret this conversation. Because these people would already have a list of already spoken. So, they have special names and special different jargon for the situations and for the previous experiences they already have. And us trying to understand what are the signs and what are the symbols within the interaction is quite essential and important. Representation and transmission of the meaning is always given through the signs and symbols.

To summarize: we have seven traditions and each one of them sees communication differently. Cybernetic tradition, it's all about the linear or not linear process but about the system through which we transmit our message. Socio-psychological tradition, focusing at an individual and this behavioural aspect of his communicating practices. Socio-cultural tradition would rely on the context and the culture and the way how do we reproduce this culture throughout the communication. Critical tradition is all about ideology and discourse. Rhetorical tradition is the art of public speaking. This communication is an art of public speaking. Phenomenological tradition is focusing on the way how do we understand the experiences of other people and the experiences of the communication practices themselves. Semiotic tradition, all about science and symbols which we can decode or which we will fail to decode.

CHAPTER 4.

4.1. Downward Communication

Downward communication consists of messages that start at the top of the hierarchy and are transmitted down the hierarchy to the lowest rungs of the hierarchy. Downward communication can be considered a top-to-bottom approach for organizational communication.

Types of Downward Communication

While numerous typologies examine the various types of messages transmitted down a hierarchy from management, the most commonly cited typology was created by Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn [1]. Katz's and Kahn's typology breaks downward communication into five distinct types: job instructions, job rationales, procedures and practices, feedback, and indoctrination.

– **Job Instructions:** The first type of message that management commonly communicates to employees is job instructions, or how management wants an employee to perform her or his job. Often this type of downward communication occurs through training. Depending on the difficulty of the job, communicating to an employee how to perform her or his job could take days, months, or years. Some organizations will even send employees outside the organization for more specialized training.

– **Job Rationales:** A job rationale is a basic statement of the purpose of a specific job and how that job relates to the overarching goal of the organization. Every job should help the organization achieve its goals, so understanding how one's position fits into the larger scheme of the organization is very important.

– **Procedures and Practices:** Procedures and practices typically come in the form of an employee manual or handbook when you start working within an organization. Procedures are sequences of steps to be followed in a given situation. Practices, on the other hand, are behaviors people should do habitually. There are procedures and practices related to policies (courses of action taken in the organization), rules (standards or directives governing behavior), and benefits (payment and entitlements one receives with the job).

– **Feedback:** Providing feedback to one's subordinates is a very important feature of any supervisory position [2]. Employees can grow and become more proficient with their jobs only if they are receiving feedback from those above them. This feedback needs to contain both positive and negative feedback. Positive feedback occurs when a supervisor explains to a subordinate what he or she is doing well, whereas negative feedback occurs when a supervisor explains to a subordinate areas that need improvement.

– **Employee Indoctrination:** Indoctrination is the process of instilling an employee with a partisan or ideological point of view. Specifically, organizations use indoctrination messages in order to help new members adopt ideological stances related to the organization's culture and goals. The ultimate goal of organizational indoctrination is organizational identification.

[1] Katz, D.–Kahn, R. L. (1966): *The social psychology of organizations.* New York: Wiley.

[2] Redding, W. C. (1972): *Communication with the organization: An interpretive review of theory and research.* New York: Industrial Communication Council.

4.2. Types of Upward Communication

While numerous typologies examine the various types of messages transmitted up a hierarchy, the most commonly cited typology was created by Katz and Kahn [1]. Katz and Kahn's typology breaks upward communication into four distinct types: information about the subordinate herself or himself, information about coworkers and their problems, information about organizational policies and procedures, and information about the task at hand.

– Information about the Subordinate: Information that can be communicated upwardly about oneself typically falls into one of two categories: personal information and professional information. Personal information that can be communicated upwardly involves information that is more intimate in nature. Professional information that can be communicated upwardly involves issues related to job performance or problems related to work.

– Information about Coworkers and Their Problems: Often managers are completely removed from what is actually going on with their subordinates, because the managers' attentions are not completely focused on their subordinates. Despite what subordinates often think, managers have their own workloads that must be taken care of in addition to their managerial duties. For this reason, managers are often simply unaware of what is going on with their subordinates. In order to combat this lack of clarity, managers often rely on subordinates to report problems

– People can become very adept at hiding what they don't know and can't do when necessary. Others will only actively work when they are under immediate supervision; however, once the supervision leaves, the individuals stop working. The only way a supervisor has any chance of finding out about either of these situations is to rely on other subordinates to report what's happening. To help with this process, many organizations have actually initiated anonymous complaint/report phone lines. Individuals who see someone behaving in a dangerous or unethical manner can anonymously call the phone line and leave a message about the problem, and the organization can then start an internal investigation.

– Organizational Procedures and Practices: Within any organization there are procedures and practices related to policies (courses of action taken in the organization), rules (standards or directives governing behavior), and benefits (payment and entitlements one receives with the job). Upward communication about procedures and practices can help management see where policies, rules, and benefits can be more influential or streamlined. Often, management creates procedures and practices for how things ought to be accomplished without ever having to implement the procedure or practice themselves. The only way management can know if the procedures and practices are causing unneeded stress or loss of resources is if the people who have to enact those procedures and practices explain the problem.

[1] Katz, D.–Kahn, R. L. (1966): *The social psychology of organizations.* New York: Wiley.

– **Task at Hand:** This last form of upward communication is specifically directed to communicate information to management that helps an individual complete her or his job. Types of messages that could fall into this category include asking for more information, asking to have a task clarified, asking for additional resources to complete the task, keeping a supervisor informed of a timetable for completion, or explaining the current status of a project. All these different types of messages enable the subordinate to either ask questions about the task or inform his or her supervisor about the task.

4.3. Types of Horizontal/Lateral Communication

According to Randy Hirokawa, there are four functions to horizontal communication: task coordination, problem solving, sharing of information, and conflict resolution. [1] The function of horizontal/lateral communication is to help organizational members coordinate tasks to help the system achieve its goals. Often people in different departments are completely unaware of how their department impacts another department's ability to function. When different departments are brought together and shown how each department helps the organization strive for its goals, departments are able to ascertain how they can actually help each other more effectively.

The second function of horizontal/lateral communication is to allow organizational members to solve problems. The basic process of "brainstorming" is always more effective when you have numerous departments thinking about how to solve specific problems. For example, if your entire organization is having problems with recycling, it wouldn't be beneficial if members from only one department got together to talk about the problem. When there are systemwide problems facing an organization, the organization needs systemwide solutions.

The third function of horizontal/lateral communication is sharing information among organizational members. As we've already mentioned in this chapter, there are numerous reasons individuals may be reluctant to share information, but when people hoard information the overall organization suffers. The need for sharing can be explained in this way: "It is through the sharing of information that organizational members become aware of the activities of the organization and their collegues [sic]." [1]

The final function of horizontal/lateral communication is conflict resolution. When individuals are in conflict, the easiest way to solve the conflict is through direct interaction. Often, simple conflicts are a result of misunderstandings that can become exacerbated if not handled quickly and efficiently. For this reason, "In the presence of conflict between organizational members within a department or section, the ability to discuss the matter of concern can often lead to a resolution of the conflict." [1] If an organization opts to utilize Fayol's ideas of horizontal communication, "One would have to go half-way around the organizational hierarchy to get a message to a collegue [sic] if one were to remove horizontal channels." [1] As always, the more direct the path of communication is, the more likely the message will remain uncorrupted.

[1] Hirokawa, R. Y. (1979): Communication and the managerial function: Some suggestions for improving organizational communication. *Communication.* 8., Pp. 83–95.

4.4. Types of Informal Communication Networks

In this section, we will discuss how informal communication networks pass information from person to person. Keith Davis found four basic types of informal communication networks: single strand, gossip, probability, and cluster. [1]

The first type of informal communication network described by Davis is the **single-strand communication network** *(Figure 3a).* In a single-strand network, the process of communication is very linear, and information travels from one person to the next person. The best way to think of this type of informal communication network is like a relay race. But instead of passing a baton between runners, some type of information is passed from person to person. This communication network represents the traditional notion of serialized transmission.

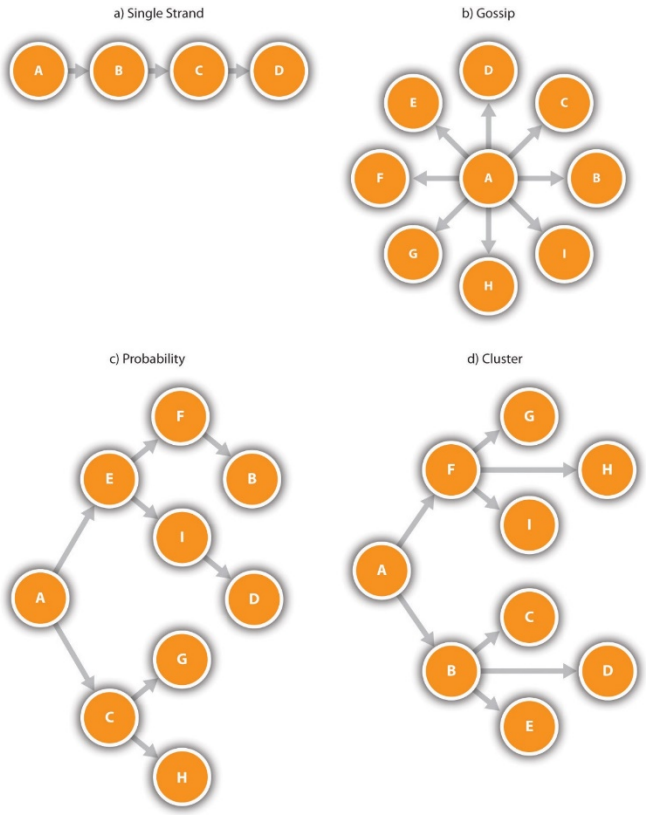
The second type of informal communication network Davis discussed was the **gossip communication network** *(Figure3b)***.** In a gossip network, you have one individual who serves as the source of the message and who transmits the message to a number of people directly.

The third type of informal communication described by Davis is referred to as the **probability communication network** *(Figure3c).* In a probability communication network, you have one individual as the primary source of the message, who randomly selects people within her or his communication network to communicate the message. These secondary people then randomly pick other people in the communication network to pass along the message. Think of this type of informal communication network as really annoying Internet spam. In the case of Internet spam, someone creates the e-mail and then sends it to random people who then feel the need to forward it to other people, and so on. There is no way for the source of the message to truly track where the message has been sent after it is communicated, because the transmission is random.

The final form of informal communication network described by Davis is the **cluster network** *(Figure3d)*. Cluster networks are considerably more systematic than probability networks. In the case of a cluster network, the source of the message chooses a number of preselected people with whom to communicate a message. The secondary people then pass on the message to a group of people who have also been preselected to receive the message. This type of network is the origin of the telephone tree. In a telephone tree, one person calls two people. Those two people then are expected to call three other people. Those three people are then also expected to call three other people. Before you know it, everyone who is on the telephone tree has received the message.

[1] Davis, K. (1969): Grapevine communication among lower and middle managers. *Personnel Journal,* 48., Pp. 269–272.

Figure1


a) Single Strand
A
B
C
D
b) Gossip
D
E
C
F
A
B
G
I
H
c) Probability
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d) Cluster
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CHAPTER 5.

5.1. The definition of culture [1]

The concept of culture comes from the Latin word "colore," whose meaning is "to do." The expression "cultura agri" refers to the care of, and working on the natural environment. The first mention of the expression may be found in Cicero's Tusculanae dispitationes (1st century BC), who uses the term "cultura animi" or "care of the soul."

Today, the concept of culture refers not as much to a process but a phenomenon that is inherent to social existence; it is a consequence and interpretive reality of social life. This approach reflects cultural anthropologists and their definitions, while culture has been studied by sociologists, psychologists, and communication theorists alike.

Anthropological approaches look at culture as a way of life. E. B. Tylor's definition proposes that culture is a complex whole that includes knowledges, abilities, preconceptions, art, morality (and a host of other things) that people learn as a result of their socialization in a society (1997, 108). Until 1952, more than 400 definitions of culture have been created (Niedermuller 1999). This great number also shows the variability of culture and the approaches that may study it from the perspective of different scholarly disciplines.

Some of the recent definitions of culture include the following:
– Geert Hofstede understands culture as the collective programming behind thinking.

– Fons Trompenaars thinks culture is the kind of method by which a group of people solve their problems and decide their dilemmas. These two authors approach the notion of culture from the perspective of its components. According to these approaches, culture consists of explicit and implicit components and behavioral patterns, which are mediated by symbols.

– Clifford Geertz approaches culture through symbols, and argues that culture is culture consists of patterns that are historically transmitted through symbols and their meanings. It is a system
of inherited concepts expressed in symbolic forms through which people communicate, and create their attitudes and knowledges (Geertz 1997).

Therefore, social sciences use the definitions of culture and the concept of culture in broad terms. In this sense, the concept of culture includes institutions, values, experiences, symbols, and forms of expression in a society. This, the definition of culture includes the interfaces of symbols, habits and values that are passed on from generation to generation (Niedermuller 1999: 98–102).

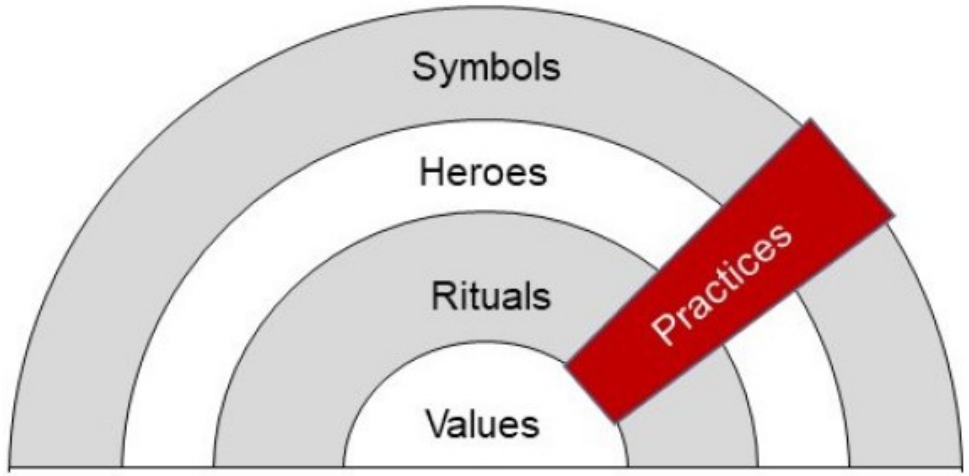
[1] Based on Korpics (2011).

5.2. Models of culture [1]

In order to understand intercultural conflicts, we need to review models of culture that explore some cultural specificities and create a typology on their basis. We will present three models

Onion model

Most people associate culture with the cultural idiosyncrasies of a given community, which contains tangible (material) and symbolic elements (values, philosophies, ideologies), as well as behavior patterns.



According to this approach, culture has tangible and visible aspects; however, just like the layers of an onion, it also has aspects that are not visible readily.

[1] Based on Bíró–Serfőző (2003).

We may imagine the layers of culture like the layers of an onion:

Symbols: Words, gestures of objects that have a unique meaning; these meanings are familiar to those who are in the same culture. These meanings and symbols may be created anew, and old ones may disappear.

Heroes: Living or dead people, real or imagined, who have characteristic features that given culture appreciates, and who serve as role models.

Rituals: activities that are technically superfluous for the pursuit of some goal, which however are important in a given culture for some reason, and therefore they execute it.

In order to get down to the bottom, where presuppositions and values lie, we must first get through the outer layers if we want to reach down to the deeper understanding of culture. Those meanings deep down are not easy to identify, which means it is hard to change values and presuppositions which dwell down here.

5.3.

Organizational culture is further refined in the 11 culture dimensions elaborated by Robbins [1] as amended by Bakacsi [2] which is based on features determining feelings of the members towards the organizational culture.

The organization is characterized by the following key dimensions:

1. **Identification with the position or the organization:** Two extremes of this dimension represent identification with the whole organization or certain working groups or a position.

2. **Focus on the individual or the group:** Focus on individual or group targets. Individual focus is rather characterized by the support of freedom, independence, responsibility, while group focus by group targets.

3. **Human orientation:** Dimension of a task or relationship oriented leadership. It also characterizes the relationship of the leaders and the employees. To what extent are the leaders attentive to the consequences of the solution of organizational tasks on people?

4. **Internal dependence or independence:** It relates to the level of integration. It determines the independence of organizational units and the level of central co ordination and centralization.

5. **Strong or weak control:** It relates to the level of regulation and the direct supervision of the control of the employees.

6. **Risk taking or risk avoidance**: It relates to the tolerance regarding uncertainty of the organization. How much risk taking and innovation is expected or supported, and how much uncertainty is tolerated?

7. **Performance orientation:** It is characteristic of the system of awards. How much the system of awards builds on performance and how much it takes other factors into account?

8. **Conflict tolerance:** It characterizes the leadership and the organization from the aspect of how much the open undertaking of disaccording views is allowed or encouraged.

[1] Robbins, S. P. (1993): *Organizational behavior,* Prentice-Hall International, Inc. Englewood: Cliffs, NJ.

[2]Bakacsi, Gy. (1996): *Szervezeti magatartás és vezetés.* [Organizational behavior and leadership] Budapest: Közgazdasági és jogi Tankönyvkiadó.

9. **Goal or means orientation:** It is characteristic of the leadership based on a focus on organizational results or the process of achieving the targets.

10. **Open or closed system:** It is characteristic of the relationship of the organization and the environment. In this dimension, reacting skills to external changes of the organization or its absence appears.

11. **Short or long term time orientation:** It reflects the outlooks of the future planning of the organization.

CHAPTER 6.

6.1. Factors affecting organizational climate

Thus organizational climate is the perceptional environment prevailing in an organization based on which employees do their work. It will have a major impact on the smooth flow in the management of an organization.

Six factors which can affect organizational climate are:

1. **Organization structure:** Ideas on the extent of organizational constraints, rules and regulations.
2. **Individual responsibility:** Having a sense of autonomy of being one's own boss.
3. **Rewards:** Commensurate rewards to recognize performance.
4. **Risk and risk taking:** The degree of challenge and risk to be sustained by the incumbent.
5. **Warmth and support:** Feelings of general good fellowship and helpfulness prevailing in work settings.
6. **Tolerance and conflict:** Degree of confidence that the climate can tolerate differing opinions.

Management plays an important role in shaping the climate the organization. It does so by determining organizational goals, laying down organizational structure and pattern of communication and decision-making processes and also shaping of organizational norms and values. Besides, management also has direct control over the physical environment under which the employees work. In fact, management's control over these comments means that management has the ability to affect changes in climate through adjustments in any of the components. Given the nature of the make-up of an organisation's climate, the real effect of any action by management can never be accurately predicted. Nonetheless, management must take the initiative in improving the subordinate-manager relationship and the organizational climate. The role of mangers in establishing a favorable climate is primarily action-oriented while the employees' role is one of reaction. The employees also exert their influence on organizational environment. They do so by trying to control their environment and bring about changes that will make their lot more endurable.

The following techniques may be helpful in improving the organisational climate:

1. **Open Communication:** There should be two-way communication in the organization so that the employees know what is going on and react to it. The management can modify its decisions on the basis of employees reactions.

2. **Concern for People:** The management should show concern for the workers. It should work for their welfare and improvement of working conditions. It should also be interested in human resource development.

3. **Participative Decision-making**: The employees should be involved in goal setting and taking decisions influencing their lot. They will feel committed to the organisation and show co-operative attitude.

4. **Change in Policies:** The management can influence organization climate by changing policies, procedures and rules. This may take time, but the change is long lasting if the workers see the change in policies procedure sand rules as favorable to them.

5. **Technological Changes:** It is often said that workers resist changes. But where technological changes will improve the working conditions of the employees, the change is easily accepted. There will be a better climate if the management adopts improved methods of work in consultation with the employees.

6.2.

Organisational climate can be said to relate to the prevailing atmosphere surrounding the organisation, to the level of morale, and to the strength of feelings of belonging, care and goodwill among members. According to Tagiuri and Litwin, organisational climate is relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organisation that:

– is experienced by its members;

– influences their behaviour;

– can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics of the organisation.

Hodgetts has classified organisational climate into two major categories. He has given an analogy with an iceberg where there is a part of the iceberg that can be seen from the surface and another part that is under water and is not visible. The visible part that can be observed or measured include the structure of hierarchy, goals and objectives of the organisation, performance standards and evaluations, technological state of the operations and so on. The second category contains factors that are not visible and quantifiable and include such subjective areas as supportiveness, employees' feelings and attitudes, values, morale, personal and social interaction with peers, subordinates and superiors and a sense of satisfaction with the job.

6.2.1. Dimensions of organisational climate

There have been many studies on dimensions of organisational climate. Such studies have helped us to understand what do influence organisational climate. Likert has proposed six dimensions of organisational climate: leadership, motivation, communication, decisions, goals, and control.

Litwin and Stringer have proposed seven dimensions of organisational climate: conformity, responsibility, standards, rewards, organisational clarity, warmth and support, and leadership. They have also emphasized motivational framework of organisational climate.

Motivational framework of climate include motives of:

– Achievement: concern for excellence;

– Expert Influence: concern for making impact on others;

– Control: concern for power and orderliness;

– Extension: concern for others, and for macro issues;

– Dependency: concern for being in close touch with others in a significant way;

– Affiliation: concern for building and maintaining close personal relationships.

On the basis of review of various studies and discussions with managers, Pareek has identified twelve processes of organisational climate. Let us learn them briefly.

– Orientation: Priority of members may range between concern to adhere to established rules, to concern for excellence and achievement.

– Interpersonal Relationships: Depending on the pattern of relationship it may lead to climate of clique formation, or climate of control, or a climate of dependency etc.

– Supervision: Depending on supervisory style, the climate may be of extension or it may be of affiliation.

– Problems: Problems may be taken as an opportunity or irritants; manager may solve problems alone or jointly by the superior and the subordinates.

– Management of Mistakes: Attitudes towards mistakes may be of tolerance or of annoyance; such attitudes contribute to organisational climate.

– Conflict Management: Conflict may be perceived as opportunity or as threat; such perceptions influence organisational climate.

– Communication: Direction, dispersement, mode and type of communication influence climate of an organisation.

– Decision Making: Levels at which decisions are taken, degree of participation in decision making are the issues, which influence organisational climate.

– Trust: Degree of trust or its absence influence organisational climate. Management of Rewards: Perception about what is rewarded in the organisation influences the organisational climate. Risk

– Taking: It is an important determinant of climate.

– Innovation and Change: Styles of managing change and innovations are critical in establishing climate.

CHAPTER 7.

7.1.

John Baird defined group as "a collection of more than two persons who perceive themselves as a group, possess a common fate, have organizational structire, and communicate over time to achieve personal and group goals." [1] In essence, a group is two or more individuals who communicate with each other to attain their goal. For example a book about on organizational communication, a group in this context will have specific goals, influence, and interactions. These specific goals might be to have an advertising campaign completed, financial portfolios on all the organization's clients completed, or updating new technology programs on all the computers in the organization. Influences that groups might have include helping management understand the importance of having a day-care facility on site or assisting managers in acquiring potential resources for employees. Interactions might include coworkers being informed about specific changes in the organization or warnings that employees should be aware of. Notice that the key importance in these definitions is the word **communication.** For instance, five people waiting for the bus is not a group. They all have the same goal: to get on the bus. However, each person is not influencing the others, and they do not have to communicate with each other. Group members need to be able to communicate with each other. Organizations will often use groups to accomplish organizational goals. Work groups are created to perform tasks in an efficient and effective manner. Problem-solving groups are used to discuss organizational dilemmas. These groups will convene to examine, analyze, and disseminate information.

Groups might include people who have similar roles or tasks, such as all medical nurses. Groups can eventually become teams. The main difference is that teams need to support each team member. It takes a lot of characteristics for a group to become a team. The main difference is that in a team each individual is responsible not only for her or his own efforts and contributions to the group but also for the collective outcome of the group. Moreover, the emphasis is not on the individual but on the team. Hence, the communication is different, because in teams, people want to discuss and come to a conclusion about how to solve the problem. In groups, the main reason people communicate is to share information without much discussion.

Bruce Tuckman's model of groups is well known for explaining how teams develop. He noted that the stages of team development are forming, storming, norming, and performing. [2] Tuckman realizes that groups will have many differences in assumptions, values, and goals. This model addresses the groups' need to examine and resolve certain questions before the group can work together effectively. In this model it is important for team members to recognize that before the team can move forward from one stage to another, they need to make sure that the core issues are being met. If the team does not move forward, then it means that certain issues are not being satisfactorily met. This model also helps team leaders identify signs that issues need to be addressed appropriately before the team can actually perform their task effectively.

It is important to note that the stages can overlap and that a group can repeat the stages. Some groups may go through the stages very quickly, while others may be in one stage for a very long time. Communication can be used as a tool to advance the work of teams and even be used to analyze and overcome problems. By learning the different stages, we can make sure that our communication can be effective. We are sure that you can think back on group projects you have worked on and recognize the storming and forming phases are real. If you are involved with groups where forming and storming are preventing you from accomplishing the task at hand, you need to address your group and their concerns before you can move forward.

[1] Baird, J. E. Jr. (1977): *The dynamics of organizational communication.* New York: Harper & Row. P. 9.

[2] Tuckman, B. W. (1965): Developmental sequences in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin.* 63., (6.), Pp. 384–399.

7.2. Team Performance Model

The Team Performance Model developed by Allan Drexler, David Sibbet, and Russ Forrester (2009). [1] The model consists of seven stages that illustrate how a team can be formed and then complete a task: orientation, trust building, goal clarification, commitment, implementation, high performance, and renewal *(Figure 1)*.

[1] Drexler, A–Sibbet, D. –Forrester, R. (2009): *The team performance model.* San Francisco: Grove Consultants.

Stage 1: Orientation

In this beginning phase, group members come together and ascertain the task or directive at hand. Most of the time, these individuals do not have a work history with the other people on the team. Hence, group members may question their purpose with the group. For that reason, team members must be informed about how the group was formed and the reason why each person was selected for that task. Drexler et al noted that if a certain individual feels unsatisfied for being on this team, then they will experience puzzlement, indecision, and possibly fear. Moreover, if certain members feel disconnected from the group, then they will focus on this disconnection and possibly make the other group members feel uncomfortable. The disconnected group member may become more reserved and detached from the group. In some conditions, the disconnected group member might make some uncalled-for comments and possibly never attain much value in the team's mission. For instance, one of the writers of this book was asked to be on a group analyzing other graduate programs. It was very nerve-racking, because none of the group members knew each other or why they were put together. The team leader explained that we were selected based on our experiences, and we could provide the best input.

Once the orientation stage is settled, group members are in the process of becoming a team. Everyone in the group has a new perception of the group as a team, and they use terms like "us," feel a connection with the group's purpose, and think about the team's possibilities for achievement.

Stage 2: Trust Building

Most everyone will agree that trust is an essential element for team performance. A team is interdependent. Thus, group members have to be able to give up control and reliance on others so that they can execute their task. Think about all the people you trust and how over time this trust has allowed you to know those people even better. In the previous example about the group analyzing graduate programs, each person in the group had a specific task and a deadline. Each member had to trust the other members to complete their tasks, otherwise the group would fail and not be able to accomplish their goal. The same holds true in teams.

The development of trust allows teams to create more efficiency. If teams lack trust, then they will be more guarded of others and not be willing to communicate the truth. Teams that lack trust will also lack integrity because group members are not expressing their true feelings and opinions. The result is that these behaviors hinder the legitimacy and genuineness of the work. At the same time, lack of trust will prevent cooperation and collaboration among the group members.

Stage 3: Goal Clarification

In this stage, team members are trying to figure out the team's ultimate goal(s) and their agenda. Team members create a shared vision with clear and concise goals. They have explicit assumptions with each other about the goal. In the previous example, it was at this stage that certain group members were wary about their comments and were worried their comments would not be taken seriously. The team leader had to meet with the group again to reassure them that their comments were valuable for the success of the organization. At this stage, some members become apathetic or skeptical about the goal. In addition, there may be some extraneous competition among group members. The key factor in this stage is to make sure all group members know the goal or expected outcome for the group.

Stage 4: Commitment

After the group is clear in their goal, there needs to be some communication about certain roles. Group members need to collectively decide how resources such as time and effort will be allocated and utilized for maximum efficiency. Each member realizes that her or his comments are important, so they work harder to accomplish the goal. There will be group members who become dependent on others to complete their task, which will delay the outcome. There will also be some resistance from group members who may have different perceptions as to how their time and effort could be used best.

Stage 5: Implementation

Once the decision is made on how each person will contribute to the group's goal, there will be a better sense of the execution of that goal. Teams are informed with all the basic information of who, what, when, where, and why. Teams can move forward and implement the task. They can put all their resources, comments, and input together and finalize their task. There may be conflicts at this stage. Team members may miss deadlines and may feel nonallied in the team's main object. If group members can figure out what works best, then work can be completed.

Stage 6: High Performance

When all group members know when and who is doing what toward their team's goals, a group reaches a state of high performance. They may realize that the methods have been performed well, and then they can be more flexible. They are more likely to marvel at their progress and possibly surpass expectations. In this stage, there is more interaction and synergy. Disgruntled team members may feel disharmony or overburdened, so it is important that the team be able to adapt and accommodate all group members to be able to perform effectively. After the group gets into a groove and is committed to finishing the task, they will be amazed at the results.

Stage 7: Renewal

After the team has completed their task, they may ask whether it is worth it to continue or add new members. The team needs time to reflect on whether they should continue, stop, or form a new team. Often, team members will feel burnout or boredom after the task has been completed. The team needs to take time to celebrate the completion of their goals and recognize key team members. In the previous example, the team leader took everyone out to dinner to celebrate a job well done.

The benefit of this model is that it allows us to understand the communication situations that can occur during each phase. The model illustrates the importance of having such conversations at each stage.

Figure 1 Team Performance Model

7.3. Types of teams

Work Team

A work team is a group of workers, usually appointed, who strive to carry out a specific task or series of tasks. Richard Wellins, William Byham, and Jeanne Wilson defined work teams as *"an intact group of employees who are responsible for a 'whole work process or segment that delivers a product or service to an internal or external customer." [1]* When we work for an organization, our supervisors and/or managers will usually assign work teams for us. These teams can differ in type and size. These groups are vital to the organization's longevity and overall success.

Cohen and Bailey noted that work teams are viewed as the ideal way to make decisions in organizations. This is because work teams have flexibility, originality, and adaptability.

There are many advantages to work teams, including the following:

– Empowerment of members to have a more straightforward part in the decision-making process

– The development of a more multiskilled workforce than a deskilled workforce

– The advancement of stronger team synergies that produce more creativity in decision making

– The subordination of the individual's agenda to the task

– Better decisions by grouping talented team members together.

– Better autonomy due to direct supervision

– More commitment to the organization and its goals

– Overall higher productivity levels [2]

[1] Wellins, R.–Byham, W.–Wilson, J. (1991): *Empowered teams.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. P. 3.

[2] Mumby, D. K. (2013): *Organization communication: A critical approach.* Los Angeles: Sage.

Parallel Team

Collateral organizations are also called parallel teams. These are groups that are usually created *"outside regular authority and communication structures to identify and work on problems that the formal organization is unwilling or unable to deal with."* [3] For instance, an organization like a university can hire a parallel team to create better advertising and marketing campaigns and let them focus on educating students. Parallel teams can be very beneficial because they usually happen outside the organization itself.

Project Team

Another type of team is called the project team. These are work groups created for a particular task. [4] Project teams often use individuals with specialized skills to achieve a goal in a predetermined amount of time. Some examples of project teams might include creating a new model or determining the best application for technology. Usually, project team members are selected for their experience and/or expertise in a specific area. Robert Keller discovered that teams with challenging tasks were more likely to process information more resourcefully, in turn creating a better quality outcome. These teams are usually created very quickly and with a detailed objective. Oftentimes, these group members do not have time to spend on getting to know the other members.

Management Team

Another type of team is called the management team. [5] These teams consist of employees who have the highest organizational management levels and have the duty of maintaining the organization. These members possess leadership and authoritative powers that are given to them by shareholders and/or a board of directors. You'll notice that all the organizational positions in The C-Suite sidebar start with the word *chief.* Because the word chief is listed in all these positions, the group of executives who embody these different roles are often referred to as the *C-suite* in organizational literature. Some of the positions that are part of a management team can be seen in the sidebar.

Overall, the organization management team has many key individuals who maintain the organization's mission and goals. These individuals must communicate with each other so that the organization can run effectively and efficiently. Moreover, they must be able to handle crises and resolve problems successfully for the organization's prosperity and future success.

[3] Fisher, D. (2000): *Communication in organizations.* (2nd ed.). New York: Jaico.

[4] Keller, R. (1994): Technology-information processing fit of contingency theory. *Academy of Management.* 37., (1.), Pp. 167–179.

[5] Menz, M. (2012): Functional top management team members: A review, synthesis, and research agenda. *Journal of Management.* 38., (1.), Pp. 45–80.

CHAPTER 8.

8.1. Leadership and Management

Leadership is probably the single most discussed topic in business literature today. An effective leader can inspire an organization to produce better-quality products, ensure first-rate service to its customers, and make amazing profits for its stockholders. An ineffective leader, on the other hand, can not only negatively impact products, services, and profits but also bring down an organization to the point of ruin. It should be no surprise that organizational leaders are very important and leave a lasting legacy, not just on the companies they run, but also on society as a whole.

Management

When one hears the word management, there is an immediate corporatization of the concept that tends to accompany the term. However, management (the noun) and manage (the verb) are very important parts of any organization. With the rise of the modern corporation during the Industrial Revolution, there was a decent amount of research examining how one should manage. For our purposes, we define the term manage as the communicative process in which an individual or group of individuals helps those below them in an organizational, hierarchical structure to accomplish the organization's goals. Notice that the term is communication focused and active, meaning that managing is something active and ongoing. Therefore, management refers to those individuals who use communication to help an organization achieve its goals through the proper utilization of organizational resources (e.g., employees, facilities, and the like). Theodore Levitt describes management thus: *"Management consists of the rational assessment of a situation and the systematic selection of goals and purposes (what is to be done?); the systematic development of strategies to achieve these goals; the marshaling of the required resources; the rational design, organization, direction, and control of the activities required to attain the selected purposes; and, finally, the motivating and rewarding of people to do the work."* [1] Notice that management is focused on the day-to-day accomplishment of an organization's goals. Furthermore, management must rally their employees to accomplish these goals through motivation, rewards, and/or punishments. Lastly, management must ensure that they have the necessary resources to enable their employees to accomplish the organization's goals.

Leadership

Where management is focused on accomplishing the organization's goals, leadership is ultimately envisioning and articulating those goals to everyone. Michael Hackman and Craig Johnson define leadership from a communication perspective in this fashion: *"Leadership is human (symbolic) communication, which modifies the attitudes and behaviors of others in order to meet shared group goals and needs."* [2] From this perspective, leadership is less about simply getting goals accomplished and more about influencing the attitudes and behaviors necessary to meet the organization's goals and needs.

[1] Levitt, T. (1976): Management and the post industrial society. *The Public Interest. Pp.* 69–103. P. 72.

[2] Hackman, M. S.– Johnson, C. E. (2009): Leadership: A communication perspective (5th ed.). *Long Grove, IL: Waveland.* P. 11.

Management versus Leadership

How do we distinguish between management and leadership? One of the first researchers to really distinguish between management and leadership was Abraham Zaleznik, who wrote that organizations often are caught between two conflicting needs: *"one, for managers to maintain the balance of operations, and one for leaders to create new approaches and imagine new areas to explore."* [3] Notice Zaleznik argues that management is about maintaining the path of the organization and about handling the day-to-day operations of the organization. Leadership, on the other hand, is about creativity, innovation, and vision for the organization. While leaders often get the bulk of notoriety, we would be remiss not to remind you that every effective leader has a team of managers and employees who help the leader accomplish the organization's goals. As such, leadership and management are symbiotic, and both are highly necessary for an organization to accomplish its basic goals.

[3] Zaleznik, A. (1977): Managers and leaders: Are they different? *Harvard Business Review*. 55., (3.), Pp. 67–78. P. 67.

8.2. Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory

Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard is also divided into task (leader directive behavior) and relational (leader supportive behavior) dimensions. [1] However, Hersey and Blanchard's theory of leadership starts with the basic notion that not all followers need the same task- or relationship-based leadership, so the type of leadership a leader should utilize with a follower depends on the follower's readiness. Figure 1 shows the basic model.

Figure 1 Situational Leadership Model

[1] Hersey, P.– Blanchard, K. H. (1969): Life cycle theory of leadership. *Training and Development Journal.* 23., (5.), Pp. 26–34.

In the basic model seen in Figure 1, you have both dimensions of leadership behavior (supportive and directive). Based on these two dimensions, Hersey and Blanchard propose four basic types of leadership that leaders can employ with various followers depending on the situational needs of the followers: directing, coaching, supporting, and delegating. [2]

Directing

The first type of leader discussed in Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory is the directing leader (originally termed telling). A directing leader is needed by followers who lack both the skill and the motivation to perform a task. Hersey and Blanchard recommend against supportive behavior at this point, because the supporting behavior may be perceived as a reward by the follower. Instead, these followers need a lot of task-directed communication and oversight.

Coaching

The second type of leader discussed in Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory is the coaching leader (originally termed selling). The coaching leader is necessary when followers have a high need for direction and a high need of support. Followers who are unable to perform or lack the confidence to perform the task but are committed to the task and/or organization need a coaching leader. In this case, the leader needs to have more direct control over the follower's attempt to accomplish the task, but the leader should also provide a lot of encouragement along the way.

Supporting

Next, you have followers who still require low levels of direction from leaders but who need more support from their leaders. Hersey and Blanchard see these followers as individuals who more often than not have requisite skills but still need their leader for motivation. As such, supporting leaders should set about creating organizational environments that foster these followers' motivations.

[1] Hersey, P.– Blanchard, K. H.– Johnson, D. E. (2000): *Management of organizational behavior: Leading human resources* (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.

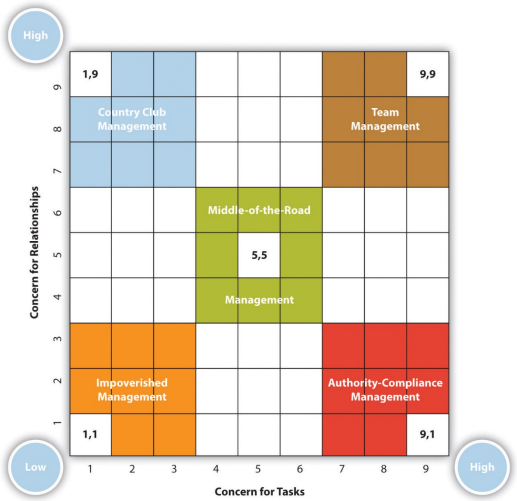
Delegating

Lastly, when a follower is both motivated and skilled, he or she needs a delegating leader. In this case, a leader can easily delegate tasks to this individual with the expectation that the follower will accomplish the tasks. However, leaders should not completely avoid supportive behavior because if a follower feels that he or she is being completely ignored, the relationship between the leader and follower could sour.

Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid

The first major relational approach we are going to discuss is Blake and Mouton's managerial grid. While the grid is called a "managerial" grid, the subtitle clearly specifies that it is a tool for effective leadership. In the original grid created in 1965, the two researchers were concerned with whether or not a leader was concerned with her or his followers or with production. In the version we've recreated for you in *Figure 7.3,* we've relabeled the two as "concern for relationships" and "concern for tasks" to be consistent with other leadership theories we've discussed in this chapter. The basic idea is that on each line of the axis (x-axis refers to task-focused leadership; y-axis refers to relationship-focused leadership), there are nine steps. Where an individual leader's focus for both relationships and tasks lies will dictate where he or she falls as a leader on the managerial grid. As such, we end up with five basicmanagement styles: impoverished, authority compliance, country club, team, and middle of the road. Let's look at each of these in turn.

Figure 7.3 Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid



Impoverished Management

The basic approach a leader takes under the impoverished management style is completely hands off. This leader places someone in a job or assigns that person a task and then just expects it to be accomplished without any kind of oversight. In Blake and Mouton's words, "The person managing 1,1 has learned to 'be out of it,' while remaining in the organization…[this manager's] imprint is like a shadow on the sand. It passes over the ground, but leaves no permanent mark."

Authority-Compliance Management

The second leader is at the 9,1 coordinates in the leadership grid. The authority-compliance management style has a high concern for tasks but a low concern for establishing or fostering relationships with her or his followers. Consider this leader the closest to Frederick Taylor's scientific-management style of leadership. All the decision making is done by the leader and then dictated to her or his followers. Furthermore, this type of leader is very likely to micromanage or closely oversee and criticize followers as they set about accomplishing the tasks given to them.

Country Club Management

The third style of manager is called the country club management style and is the polar opposite of the authority-compliance manager. In this case, the manager is almost completely concerned with establishing or fostering relationships with her or his followers, and the task(s) needing to be accomplished disappears into the background. When assigning tasks to be accomplished, this leader empowers her or his followers and believes that the followers will accomplish the task and do it well without any kind of oversight. This type of leader also adheres to the advice of Thumper from the classic Disney movie *Bambi:* "If you can't say anything nice, don't say anything at all."

Team Management

The next leadership style is at the high ends of concern for both task and relationships and is referred to as the team-management style. This type of leader realizes that *"effective integration of people with production is possible by involving them and their ideas in determining the conditions and strategies of work. Needs of people to think, to apply mental effort in productive work and to establish sound and mature relationships with one another are utilized to accomplish organizational requirements."* Under this type of management, leaders believe that it is their purpose as leaders to foster environments that will encourage creativity, task accomplishment, and employee morale/motivation. This form of management is probably most closely aligned with Douglas McGregor's Theory Y, which was discussed in *Chapter 3.*

Middle-of-the-Road Management

The final form of management discussed by Blake and Mouton was what has been deemed the middle-of-the-road management style. The reasoning behind this style of management is the assumption that *"people are practical, they realize some effort will have to be exerted on the job. Also, by yielding some push for production and considering attitudes and feelings, people accept the situation and are more or less 'satisfied.'"* [27] In the day-to-day practicality of this approach, these leaders believe that any kind of extreme is not realistic, so finding some middle balance is ideal. If, and when, an imbalance occurs, these leaders seek out ways to eliminate the imbalance and get back to some state of moderation.

Greenleaf's Servant Leadership

In 1970, Robert Greenleaf wrote a self-published book titled The Servant as Leader. In this book, Greenleaf proposed a new way of understanding and talking about leadership. Greenleaf argued that effective and ethical leaders are ones who start from a position of servitude toward both the organization and its stakeholders. When someone approaches leadership from this perspective, how she or he will view herself or himself is radically changed from someone who sees the role of organizations fundamentally differently from those who do not. Servant leaders approach the world from the basic idea that the role of organizations is to produce a better tomorrow. As such, servant leaders fundamentally see their role as a leader as one that has been bestowed upon and entrusted to them. However, Greenleaf's notion that someone approaches leadership from this servanthood perspective is one that is more inherently a personality trait than it is a management style.

Another contemporary drawn to Greenleaf's ideas of servant leadership was Larry Spears. Spears originally came to read Greenleaf's writings about servant leadership while working on the staff of *Friends Journal*, a Quaker publication. He eventually left his position to become the CEO of the Greenleaf Center. In 2008, Spears left the Greenleaf Center to create the Spears Center for Servant Leadership.

One of Spears's (1998, 2002) most notable contributions to the literature on servant leadership has been the ten characteristics of a servant leader:

1. **Listening.** The extent to which a leader listens to both her or his followers' wills and her or his own internal voice coupled with periods of reflection.
2. **Empathy.** The ability to accept people as individuals while also rejecting their inappropriate behavior and subpar performance.
3. **Healing.** The extent to which a leader has the ability to help people who have suffered from crushed spirits and emotional injuries to heal and become whole again.
4. **Awareness.** The extent to which a leader is self-aware and has the ability to see situations holistically.

5. **Persuasion.** The extent to which a leader relies on her or his ability to convince others to a position instead of using her or his position of authority to coerce others.

6. **Conceptualization**. The extent to which a leader can develop her or his ability, along with her or his followers' ability, to think big and "dream great dreams."

7. **Foresight.** The extent to which a leader has the ability to see the lessons of the past, the realities of the present, and potential consequences of decisions in the future.

8. **Stewardship.** The extent to which a leader sees every individual's part in the whole while making a commitment to, first and foremost, serve.

9. **Commitment to the growth of people.** The extent to which a leader sees the potential of all organization members and helps them nurture their personal, professional, and spiritual growth.

10. **Building community**. The extent to which a leader identifies the means of building a community among members of the organization and its various stakeholders.

Although there has been quite a bit of buy-in within corporate America, there really is a lack of objective research examining the effectiveness of servant leadership. Denise Linda Parris and Jon Welty Peachey (2013) set out to examine the degree to which scholarly research supported the theoretical assumptions of servant leadership. The researchers analyzed eleven qualitative studies, twenty-seven quantitative studies, and one mixed-methods study for a total of thirty-nine studies that were published in academic, peer-reviewed journals from 2004 to 2011.

Without going into too much detail at this point, here are some of the major conclusions the researchers came to after analyzing the thirty-nine studies:

– Servant-leadership (SL) is accepted and practiced in multiple cultures.

– Spears's notions of ten factors of servant leadership are a strong explanation of the concept.

– SL leads to increases in both leadership trust and organizational trust.

– SL fosters organizational citizenship behaviors.

– SL leads to increases in both collaboration and team effectiveness.

– SL leads to an increase in job satisfaction and commitment.

– SL creates a positive work climate that fosters employee creativity and helping behaviors.

– SL decreases employee turnover.

As you can see from these eight findings, servant leadership has a number of different positive outcomes in the organizational environment.

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5. **Persuasion.** The extent to which a leader relies on her or his ability to convince others to a position instead of using her or his position of authority to coerce others.

[1] Greenleaf, R. K. (1970): *The servant as leader.* Indianapolis, IN: Robert K. Greenleaf Center.

[2] Spears, L. C. (2010): Character and servant leadership: Ten characteristics of effective, caring leaders. *Journal of Virtues & Leadership.* 1., (1.), Pp. 25–30.

6. **Conceptualization.** The extent to which a leader can develop her or his ability, along with her or his followers' ability, to think big and "dream great dreams."

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[3] Parris, D. L.–Peache, J. W. (2013): A systematic literature review of servant leadership theory in organizational contexts. *Journal of Business Ethics.* 113., Pp. 377–393.

– SL leads to an increase in job satisfaction and commitment.

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CHAPTER 9.

9.1. Chaleff's Styles of Followership

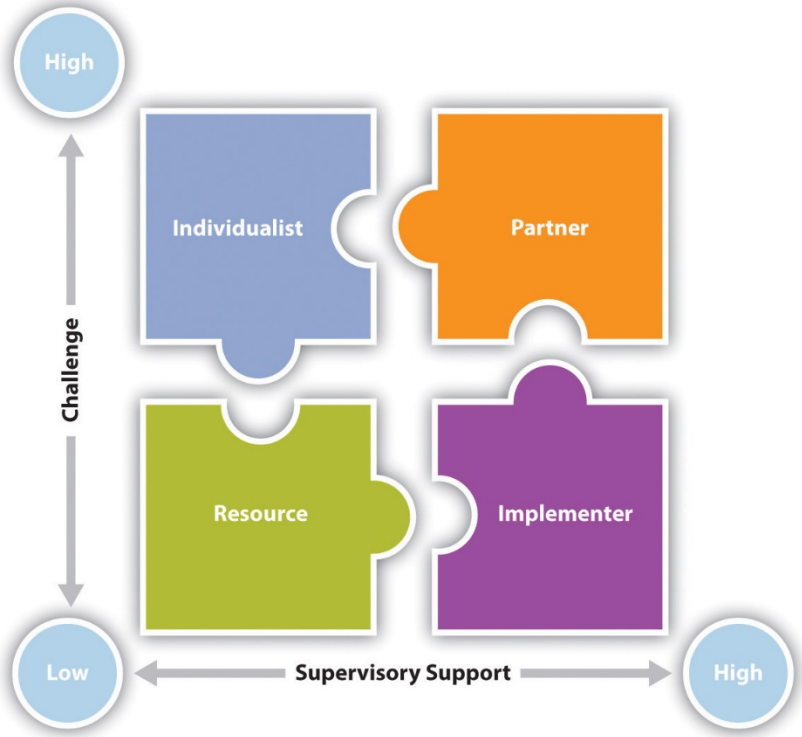
As a basic concept, followership is the act or condition under which an individual helps or supports a leader in the accomplishment of organizational goals. However, Jon Howell and Maria Mendez defined followership less in terms of a straightforward definition and more as different roles followership can take. First, followership can take an interactive role, which means that a follower's role is to complement and support her or his leader in accomplishing organizational goals. Second, followership can be an independent role, where followers act independently of their leaders with little necessity for oversight or management. Lastly, followership can take on a shifting role perspective, where followership is seen as less a concrete title or position than a state one embodies depending on the tasks at hand. In some situations, an individual may be a leader and in others a follower, depending on the context of the organizational goals. The rest of this section examines a series of different perspectives in the literature involving organizational followership: Ira Chaleff's styles of followership, Roger Adair's 4-D followership model, and McCroskey and Richmond's organizational orientations.

Chaleff's Styles of Followership

One of the first models for understanding the nature of leader-follower interactions from the follower's perspective is Ira Chaleff's styles of followership he discussed in his groundbreaking book, *The Courageous Follower.* [1] Based on the title of the book, Chaleff's perspective is that followership is an act of courage that someone decides to do. As such, he sees followership as having the courage to engage in two different behaviors: the courage to support the leader and the courage to challenge the leader's behavior and/or policies. Figure 1 demonstrates what happens when you combine the courage to challenge and support.

[1] Chaleff, I. (2003): *The courageous follower* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Barrett–Koehler.

Figure 1 Styles of Followership



Resource

The first follower style discussed by Chaleff is the resource. The resource is someone who will not challenge or support the leader. This follower basically does the minimal amount to keep her or his job, but nothing more.

Individualist

The second followership style is the individualist. This individual will provide little to no support for her or his leader but has no problem challenging the leader's behavior and policies. This individual is generally very argumentative and/or aggressive in her or his behavior. While this individual will often speak out when no one else will, people see this person as inherently contrarian, so her or his ideas are generally marginalized.

Implementer

The third followership style is the implementer. The implementer is more than happy to support her or his leader in any way possible, but the implementer will not challenge the leader's behavior and/or policies even when the leader is making costly mistakes. The implementer simply sees it as her or his job to follow orders, not to question those orders. While this kind of pure followership may be great in the military, it can be very harmful in the corporate world.

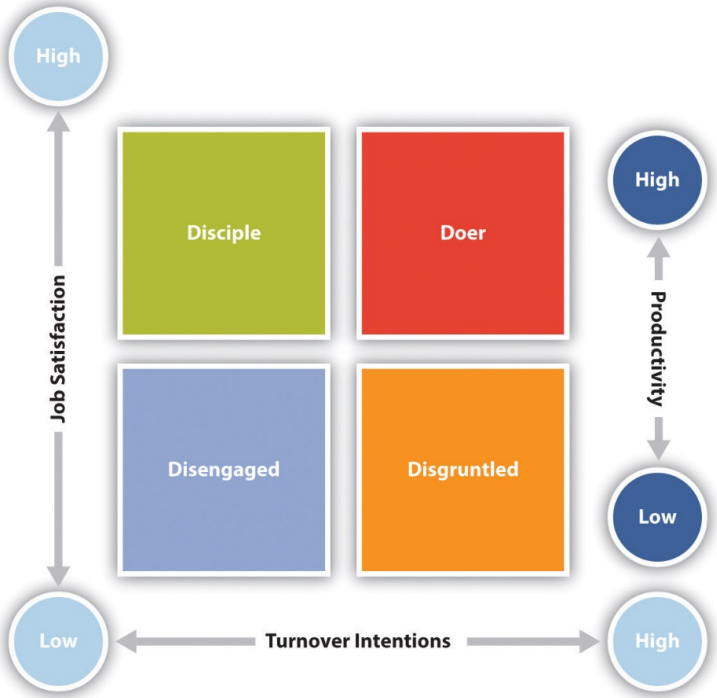
Partner

The final type of followership is the partner. Partner followership occurs when a follower is both supportive and challenging. This type of follower believes that he or she has a stake in a leader's decisions, so he or she will act accordingly. If the partner thinks a leader's decision is unwise, he or she will have no problem clearly dissenting within the organizational environment. At the same time, these followers will ultimately provide the most (and most informed) support possible to their leader.

9.2. Adair's 4-D Followership Model

In 2008, Roger Adair proposed the 4-D followership model to help explain the types of people who exist within an organization. [1] The basic model Adair proposed for understanding followers examines a follower's level of job satisfaction and her or his productivity. Based on the combination of job satisfaction and productivity, Adair demonstrates the likelihood that someone will decide to leave the organization. The basic model can be seen in *Figure 1*.

Figure 1 Followership Model



[1] Adair, R. (2008): Developing great leaders, one follower at a time. In: Riggio, R. E.–Chaleff, I.–Lipman-Blumen, J. (Eds.): *The art of followership: How great followers create great leaders and organizations.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. Pp. 137–153.

Disgruntled

The first type of follower is called the disgruntled follower. He or she has low levels of job satisfaction and is not overly productive at work. These followers have typically encountered some event within the organization that has left them feeling detached, angry, or displeased. Maybe this person was passed up for a job promotion, or he or she is being bullied in the workplace. Whatever the initial trigger, these individuals are toxic to the work environment. If the disgruntled follower is caught early on in her or his downward slip into this state, there is a chance to pull her or him away from the disgruntled cliff. Unfortunately, too many leaders do not notice the signs early on, and these followers either end up reacting negatively in the workplace or jump ship as soon as they get an offer.

Disengaged

The second type of follower is someone who is disengaged, or someone who doesn't see the value in her or his work, so she or he opts to do the minimum necessary to ensure employment. Often, these individuals perceive their work as meaningless or not really helping the organization achieve its basic goals, so they basically tune out. People who are disengaged likely become so because the original expectations they had for the job are simply not met, so they may feel lied to by the organization, which can lead to low levels of organizational commitment.

Doer

The third type of follower is called the doer. Doers "are motivated, excited to be part of the team. They are enterprising people, and overall are considered high producers. The only real issue with these employees is that no matter where they go in an organization, the grass always looks greener elsewhere." [1] A doer often starts as someone who is upwardly mobile in the organization and becomes a doer when one of two things occurs. First, doers want more out of life, and if they don't feel that there is a continued possibility for upward mobility within an organization, they are very likely to jump ship. Second, if a doer does not feel he or she is receiving adequate recognition for contributions to the organization, then the doer will find someone to provide that affirmation.

[1] Adair, R. (2008): Developing great leaders, one follower at a time. In: Riggio, R. E.–Chaleff, I.–Lipman-Blumen, J. (Eds.): *The art of followership: How great followers create great leaders and organizations.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. P. 145.

Disciple

The last type of follower is the disciple, and this individual is highly satisfied and highly productive. In an ideal world, only disciples would fall under leaders because they have no problem sacrificing their personal lives for the betterment of the organization. These workers are true believers, both in their work and in the overarching goals of the organization. While some people may remain disciples for a lifetime, many more workers start as disciples and quickly become disengageds, disgruntleds, or doers. This generally happens because an organization's own employees, processes, or systems do not encourage disciple behavior and eventually wear the disciple down to the point where his or her sunny organizational outlook becomes one filled with clouds.

CHAPTER 10.

10.1. The Recruitment Process

Recruitment takes a lot of economic and human resources to do effectively. Unfortunately, some organizations do not adequately think through the basic strategies for recruiting to ensure the maximum benefits of the recruitment process. Maybe an organization is more concerned with filling a position than finding the best person for the job. Other organizations end up with people who have exaggerated their qualifications to get the job. According James Breaugh, employee recruitment encompasses four specific actions on the part of an organization:

1. Bring a job opening to the attention of potential job candidates who do not currently work for the organization.

2. Influence whether these individuals apply for the opening.

3. Affect whether they maintain interest in the position until a job offer is extended.

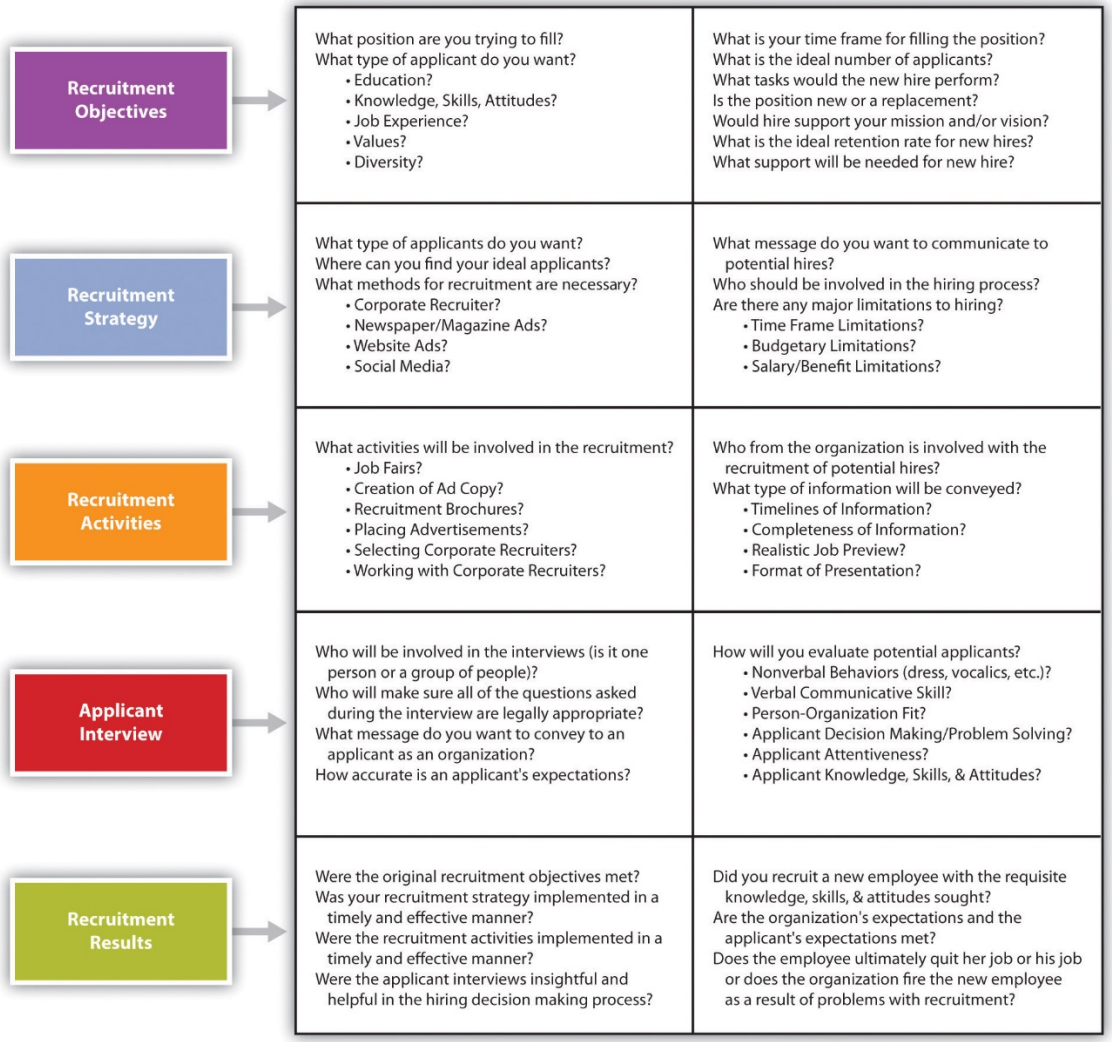
4. Influence whether a job offer is accepted. [1]

To help organizations think through effective employee recruitment, James Breaugh, Therese Macan, and Dana Grambow proposed a simple five-step model for understanding recruitment in modern organizations, which can be seen in Figure 1. [2]

[1] Breaugh, J. A. (2008): Employee recruitment, current knowledge and important areas for future research. *Human Resource Management Review,* 18., Pp. 103–104.

[2] Breaugh, J. A.–Macan, T. H.–Grambow, D. M. (2008): Employee recruitment: Current knowledge and directions for future research. In: Hodgkinson, G. P.–Ford, J. K. (Eds.): *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*. 23., Pp. 45–82. New York: Wiley.

Figure 1 Model of Employee Recruitment



10.2. Socialization

To help us understand organizational socialization, we're going to look at the basic stages of organizational socialization originally discussed by Frederic Jablin. [1] Jablin proposed that organizational socialization can be broken into three distinct parts: anticipatory socialization, organizational entry and assimilation, and organizational disengagement/exit *(Figure 1)*. To help us understand socialization, we will explore the first two forms of socialization (anticipatory and organizational entry/assimilation) in this section and organizational disengagement/exit in the next section.

Figure 1 Organizational Socialization

Anticipatory Socialization

The first part of socialization is referred to as *anticipatory socialization*, or the period before an individual actually joins an organization. To help us understand anticipatory socialization, let's examine the two types of anticipatory socialization discussed by Frederic Jablin: vocational and

The recruiting and reconnaissance process and the selection process involve all the steps discussed previously in *Figure 1*. When we look at this process from the perspective of the applicant, we see that applicants have to find job advertisements or be approached by corporate recruiters. The applicant needs to ascertain whether the job description is a good fit for her or his educational background, skill set, and cultural preferences. During the organizational anticipatory socialization stage, both the applicant and the organization are making determinations of person-organization fit.

Organizational Entry and Assimilation

The second major step in organizational socialization involves the entry and assimilation of new organization members. Frederic Jablin proposed a three-step process when attempting to understand organizational entry and assimilation: preentry, entry, and metamorphosis. [1]

[1] Jablin, F. M. (2001): Organizational entry, assimilation, and disengagement/exit. In: Jablin, F. M.–Putnam, L. L. (Eds.): *The new handbook of organizational communication: Advances in theory, research, and methods.* Thousand Oaks: Sage. Pp. 732–818.

10.3 Methods of Socialization

Now that we've explored the basic steps involved in the organizational entry and assimilation process, let's explore a number of issues related to socialization in the workplace. To help us explore methods of socialization, we're first going to explore *socialization resources theory* (SRT), then we'll examine the toolbox that most organizations use for assimilating new members, and lastly, we'll discuss the communication strategies that new employees and organizations use during the assimilation process.

Alan Saks and Jamie Gruman recently created an integrated approach for understanding effective organizational socialization, which they deemed socialization resources theory. The basic premise of socialization resources theory is that during a period of stress (e.g., entering a new organization), the availability of resources to that individual will determine her or his ability to cope with the stressful situation, which will in turn help the individual adjust and successfully socialize within the organization. To help explain how effective socialization works, Saks and Gruman developed a list of seventeen resource dimensions that have been shown in both the academic and practitioner literatures on organizational socialization to facilitate effective organizational socialization.

további infók a tananyagban…

10.4. Types of Organizational Disengagement

Disengagement is the process an individual goes through when considering a separation and then separating herself or himself from an organization. [1] For our purposes, we will examine disengagement in terms of either a voluntary process or an involuntary process.

Whether someone is going through voluntary or involuntary disengagement, Frederic Jablin proposed the general steps that he or she will take are generally fourfold: preannouncement, announcement of exit, actual exit, and postexit. [1] Let's look at each of these steps.

Preannouncement Step

Communication during the preannouncement step of disengagement involves any cues or signals one consciously or unconsciously sends when dissatisfied with particular people, work, or the organization. Consciously sent cues and signals may include decreased productivity or increased incidences of absenteeism or lateness. These cues send the message that you are officially starting to "check out." Dissatisfied coworkers may also start to have conversations with their families and friends about the possibility of finding a new job long before they have started to disengage in the workplace itself.

Announcement of Exit Step

Eventually, the dissatisfied organization member will officially make it known that he or she is leaving (voluntary disengagement), or the organization will make it known that the organization member will be leaving (involuntary disengagement), which occurs in the announcement of exit step. It is not uncommon for people to roll out an announcement of exit over a period of weeks or even months, depending on the nature of the job. One of our coauthors once had a letter of resignation sitting in his desk waiting to be sent to his immediate superior thirty days prior to his intended last day of work. His secretary knew that he had accepted another position two months prior, but she had been the only organization member to know that he was leaving. Unfortunately, he let it slip a week early to his most vocal coworker that he wouldn't be around long enough to work on a project and that she should probably assign someone else the task. Within ten minutes, he started receiving phone calls from coworkers, and within twenty-four hours, the organization was already having phone conferences determining what would happen to his position post voluntary turnover. Obviously, this announcement did not go as originally planned.

[1] Jablin, F. M. (2001): Organizational entry, assimilation, and disengagement/exit. In: Jablin, F. M.–Putnam, L. L. (Eds.): *The new handbook of organizational communication: Advances in theory, research, and methods.* Thousand Oaks: Sage. Pp. 732–818.

Actual Exit Step

Finally, the individual leaves the organization, which is referred to as the actual exit step. The period from which an individual announces exit to when he or she exits the organization can happen in a matter of minutes to months, depending on whether the exit is voluntary or involuntary and the postexit plans of the person taking leave. If the parting is amicable, it's possible there will be celebrations to honor the person as he or she leaves (retirement or going-away parties). If the parting is not amicable, the person may simply not be there one day, and coworkers will speak in hushed tones about the person's exit.

Postexit Step

The final step in organizational disengagement is the postexit step. When someone finally leaves an organization (whether voluntarily or involuntarily), those who are left behind need to deal with her or his absence. For example, who has to take on the person's workload? Will the organization rehire for that position or let the position go unfilled for a period? These are basic questions that organization members ask as they attempt to understand how the work environment has altered because the person has left the organization.

CHAPTER 11.

11.1. THE DEFINITION AND LEVELS OF CONFLICT

Today, the concept of conflict is mainly approached in two different ways. A basic premise of the literature on conflict management is that conflict is not necessarily evil. While ancient and medieval thinkers mostly believed that the ideal social structure eliminates conflict, it is an emotionally contaminated situation that harms coexistence. It was perhaps Karl Marx who first proposed that conflicts helped societies progress. Like with society, conflict may have a benign effect on the individual, too.

The following are some of the opportunities carried by conflict:

– Opportunity to improve: This means knowledge of ourselves and our boundaries, and growing self-confidence and self-respect.

– Opportunity to deepen relationships: If we manage conflict well, the situation may well deepen the relationship and make it more profound.

– Opportunity to decrease tension: Through verbalization, we may bring tension to lower levels.

– Opportunity to assert my interests: Conflict gives us the opportunity to stand up for my interests.

– Opportunity for self-reflection: Feedback to ourselves.

– Breaking monotony: Conflicts make life interesting and more colorful.

11.1.1. The nature and definition of conflict

In a conflict situation, there is disagreement between two parties, and their interests clash. Often, they are followed by emotions, which do not necessarily come from the subject or stake of the conflict, but rather from the personalities of those involved, their emotional states, and the environment. Conflicts may range from different viewpoints to open confrontation and aggressive behaviors.

We hardly ever encounter conflicts in their pure state. Most of the time we perceive a detail, a presence, an element of it. It helps to understand the situation if we look at conflict as a process, not just a phenomenon. This helps us understand it, and we may make decisions about the necessity and manner of intervention.

The word "conflict" comes from Latin, and means "disagreement, confrontation." The original and current usage of the word helps us grasp the phenomenon that various disciplines try to approach in their own ways. Since we are concerned here most of all with social, interpersonal conflict, we may define it as follows: a kind of *interaction where there are incompatible views among participants.* For participants, this kind of interaction causes injury, and it is mostly emotionally overheated. [1]

We also need to distinguish between two kinds of conflicts: closed and open conflict.

By *closed or hidden* conflict, we mean the first level of conflict. At this level, some tension emerges for some reason in the participants, disagreements come to light, although they are not yet voiced. During this situation, the person experiencing tension has a decision to make: either to accept the situation and try to coexist with it without verbalizing it (hidden conflict), or express their position to the other.

By open conflict we mean the full display of disagreements. We allow ourselves and the other to express their thoughts in an open discussion. A constructive, open discussion has the potential to resolve the conflict.

For better conceptual clarification, we must mention the difference between internal and closed conflict. They are often confused, while they are by no means the same.

We call internal or intrapersonal conflict that takes place inside the individual, and has no external manifestations. These are typically about conflicts between the individual's values, or conflicts about decisions. [1]

[1] Glasl, F. (2009): *Konfliktmanagement. Ein Handbuch für Führungskräfte, Beraterinnen und Berater*. Bern: Haupt.

11.2. TYPES OF CONFLICTS

In order to manage conflict situations, it is important to be able to identify the type of conflict. Intrapersonal conflicts during direct interaction have been typologized in many ways. In the following, we will review the most practicable one.

11.2.2. Based on the nature of conflict

We may distinguish between six types of conflicts:

Veridical conflict: In this type of conflict, participants pursue incompatible objectives. The departure in this conflict is the mistrust between individuals, the minimization of harm, and the maximization of gain. In order to resolve these conflicts, the parties must reconsider their interests, identify common interests, and once again establish trust.

Contingent conflict: If the interests of the parties are not defined in the right way, a kind of pseudo-conflict may emerge. In this case, the parties may exploit opportunities only by cooperating; however, they are unwilling to cooperate. Cooperation between individuals might lead to optimal solutions, although this might take time. If cooperation is lacking, the winning party may enjoy immediate gains.

Displaced conflict: In this kind of conflict participants, and also observers, often misdiagnose the cause of the conflict; they see symptoms rather than real causes of conflict. Often in these cases, intergroup conflicts become interpersonal ones. The conflict that emerges as a result of the diverging interests of two groups might surface in a conflict between two group members, while the real reason had nothing to do with the individuals.

Misattributed conflict: This type of conflict refers to the classic "divide and rule" kind of approach, where the parties that get into conflict had originally no disagreements at all. It is easy to generate these kinds of conflicts; however, there is always the danger that they turn real.

Latent conflict: In this type of conflict, participants often do not encounter any conflict at all. However, conflict may lie in historical inequalities, fossilized disagreements, and ideological structures. Such is for example the conflict between men and women, which has deep roots in society. The unearthing of latent conflicts may prevent them from bursting forth and causing greater destruction.

False conflict: The basic departure of these conflicts is misunderstanding. They emerge typically as a result of inefficient or incongruous communication, which leads to a lack of information. The danger of a false conflict is that it may turn into a real one. It is best countered by immediate and authentic communication, and the full disclosure of information.

Csepeli categorized conflicts on the basis of motivations that move people, organizing them into four basic types of conflict. These four types revolve around conflict of interest, conflicting values, conflicting viewpoints, and conflicting styles or tastes. Conflicts of interest are always about the pursuit of some important advantage. This might mean economic interests, territory, power, money, or prestige. This type of conflict is solely motivated by the acquisition of ownership. The solution of this kind of conflict rests in the identification of mutual interests, and the acceptance of cooperation. In case of conflicting values, we may identify conflicting values, ideologies, or norms. These kinds of conflicts are harder to resolve, because of the importance of these views and values for individuals. Conflicts of viewpoints have to do with opinions and attitudes. Conflicts of style and taste are manifestations of false and misplaced conflicts, as explained above.

We may also typify conflicts based on whether they are present overtly or covertly in a given society. Two levels may be identified here. We may speak of objective conflicts, and relational conflicts. When it regards the exchange of information, data, and acts, we may speak of objective levels. The conflicts here concern the disagreement with, or questioning of data and facts. It is at this level that official communication, or professional communication takes place, or for example it means the exchange of information in education. As opposed to this, at the level of relations, conflicts have an emotional relevance. These conflicts often complement the objective level, as the relational level expresses the affective and attitudinal relevance of communication. At this level, conflict is also mirrored by body language, gestures, mimicry, and proxemics, often in an unconscious form.

11.3. CONFLICTS IN THE ORGANIZATION [1]

As a result of the division of labor in an organization, statuses and dynamic functions emerge, which correspond to certain behavioral patterns. We call these roles, too, similarly to those roles that exist in classrooms or other groups. The carriers of roles (teachers, civil volunteers, director, city hall representative, or any role) carry out a set of activities within the organization. While doing that, they interact with carriers of other roles (inside and outside of the organization).

The more complex the relationships, the interactions and impacts, the greater the dependency between individuals, and the more strictly they need to follow the requirements ordered to their roles. It is easy to see how complicated interpersonal and inter-organizational relationships increase the chance for conflict.

The *actors* mentioned get in conflict within their roles if the behavior prescribed by their roles *does not function* well in different relations. For example, when teachers face different expectations from students, parents, maintenance management and the director.

While there is no perfectly conflict-free world, *internal* conflict does have recognizable and corrigible factors. It is mostly the less obvious, less well-defined and commonly shared role requirements, the unclear expectations that cause a given actor's internal role conflicts. The institutional workplace regulations, the mercurial expectations from the leadership or from the environment, lead to internal role conflicts, psychological pressure, and even neurotic reactions.

The role conflicts of employees are nuanced and driven by the interests of the organization or the department, as well as the competing interests within the organization.

Conflict may emerge *between the various roles* of the individual, as all of us have various roles at the same time (parent, teacher, employee, volunteer etc.). We may often encounter situations in everyday life when these roles are in contradiction, when it is impossible to fulfill them all at the same time.

Within the organizational unit, conflicts emerge when there is a relatively *homogenous group* in certain ways (function, tasks). This may happen for example when within faculty, artistic or music groups competing visions emerge about the place methods, financial needs, and assessment of students. These conflicts are particularly exacerbated by the fact that viewpoints and arguments are not black or white. That is, all interested parties bring reasonable arguments and positions.

Conflicts between organizational units, in other words inter-group conflicts are perhaps the most conspicuous. When we speak of cooperation, when we hold cooperation-development training in an organization, this is one of the most frequent topics.

[1] Based on Rudas (2014).

There may occur other, not necessarily inter-group conflicts within an organization. These are mostly *conflicts of power*, which usually hide the particular interests of individuals. These conflicts are often wrapped into ideologies and values, which makes it difficult to see the real interests, values, and emotions. Conflicts like these often become a terrain of in-fighting between people of hierarchical relationships or equal rank alike.

Every organization is surrounded by an environment that gets in conflict with this or that member. Here a source of conflict may be relationships with maintenance authorities, umbrella organizations, or controlling bodies that feel their interests have been violated by the workings of the organization.

Intrapersonal conflict may be best demonstrated by the impact of work, and particularly of talent care, on the psychological states of the individual. Those who are generally more anxious, unbalanced, struggle with personal issues or have a distorted self-image react more sensitively to stressful situations, the less tactful impositions of the environment, or heightened performance. It seems obvious that these situations may require most self-analysis and development, and well as tips for stress management and conflict management.

As far as *interpersonal* conflicts are concerned, these are present everywhere if there are competing interests, differing value systems, and emotional confrontation between individuals. With some exaggeration, we could say that there is nothing outside of interpersonal relationships. Even inter-group or inter-organizational conflicts are carried and represented by individuals.

Group, organization and organizational unit exist only to the extent that they are a sum of individuals. Therefore, any form of conflict management must be directed at individuals and group members, even if this is not immediately obvious for actors. The same way, disharmonies between individuals may be traced back to interpersonal impacts, and their management has to happen through interpersonal relations, too.

Whatever the size of the organization (micro, mezzo or macro), we cannot disregard its internal duality. While there are authors who draw a sharp line between *formal* (institutional) and *informal* (unofficial, non-institutional) organizations that work in a parallel and alternative universe, this is not quite the case. Formal and informal systems, or from another viewpoint, formal and informal powers exist together, intersecting each other, conditioning each other; they are by definition in some kind of symbiosis in the organizations they share.

In the *formal* rule system of the organization some kind of system of roles (for example institutional regulations) determines the place of members, status and roles. In theory, therefore, anyone may fulfill any role, because the workings of the organization is independent of personal factors and interpersonal relations. The formal system may be quite understood through patterns and rules that structure the organization. At the level of formal systems, chance is reduced to the minimum; predictability and accountability, on the other hand, are elevated to the maximum.

Those who have ever worked at a workplace (economic, military, educational or public service), know well that the advantages of the formal structure sound better than they are in reality; in fact, they materialize only in a fraction of the cases. Because it is precisely the *informal* system (whether it is inside of the institution, or between institutions of hierarchical and collaborative orders), which is able to *override* formal rules, relationships, statuses and roles—at least some of them.

The *regulation* of informal systems is way more relaxed than that of formal systems. Here, individuals actively shape roles, there are no, or there are not always formally prescribed roles. Inter-organizational and intra-organizational strategical and tactical relations are interwoven with interpersonal relationships, likes and dislikes, former acquaintances, ad hoc deals and agreements. Informal systems are characterized by flexibility and spontaneity, which may have its own advantages and disadvantages.

Informality may confront formal systems not only inside of the organization, but also outside of it. External impacts, particularly the external relationships of members, their interests, values and emotional commitments may also impact the organization in hidden ways – or its inter-organizational processes. These conflicts may be difficult to identify, but they may be resolved if identified.

CHAPTER 12.

12.1.

A negotiation is a bargaining process between two or more conflicting parties who must find common ground in an effort to reconcile or compromise on an agreed-upon resolution to the conflict. Let's start by breaking this definition down. First, we see negotiation as a bargaining process. Linda Putman and Marshall Scott Poole posited that

"Bargaining constitutes a unique form of conflict management in that participants negotiate mutually shared rules and then cooperate within these rules to gain a competitive advantage over their opponent…Bargaining, then differs from other forms of conflict in its emphasis on proposal exchanges as a basis for reaching joint settlement in cooperative-competitive situations." [1]

In other words, negotiation requires everyone in a conflict situation to communicate and come to a resolution. Negotiation or bargaining is a means to an end to conflict. It has been noted that organizations spend a lot of time and money to negotiate intergroup and interorganizational conflicts.

Second, a negotiation involves two or more conflicting parties. Notice that a negotiation process can involve two parties or even ten parties all seated at the table attempting to come to a resolution to the conflict at hand. Specifically, these different parties come to the negotiating table with their own aims, interests, needs, values, and viewpoints. These differences represented at a negotiating table can make the negotiating process highly complex. For example, one of our coauthors is on the board of directors for a medium-sized nonprofit. As a large organization, there are many different groups of individuals governed by various unions. One of the unions was always attempting to get special items for their union that the other unions didn't have. For obvious reasons, not allowing all the stakeholders the same allowances becomes an issue of equity in an organization. As such, management's stance (the side our coauthor was on) was that if they could not offer specific perks to all their workers, then it was simply not fair to offer it to some. One of the biggest sticking points was a raise. Financially, the organization could not provide an organization-wide raise and still maintain its financial viability. On one hand, you have a group of workers who see the benefit of more money in their pockets. On the other, you have management looking at issues of equity and financial solvency.

The last part of the definition of negotiation we've provided is the necessity of finding common ground. Going back to our example, most people who work for nonprofit agencies do so because they believe in the mission of the agency. As part of the negotiation process, the group ultimately had to focus on what was in the best interests of the organization's mission, in this case helping children who had been removed from their homes for a variety of different reasons. The management team's goal in the negotiation process was to focus on the needs of the clients first. From this perspective, the management team demonstrated what would happen to various services if an across-the-board raise were implemented. As you can imagine, many corners would be cut, and a number of activities that directly benefited the clients would get cut as a result.

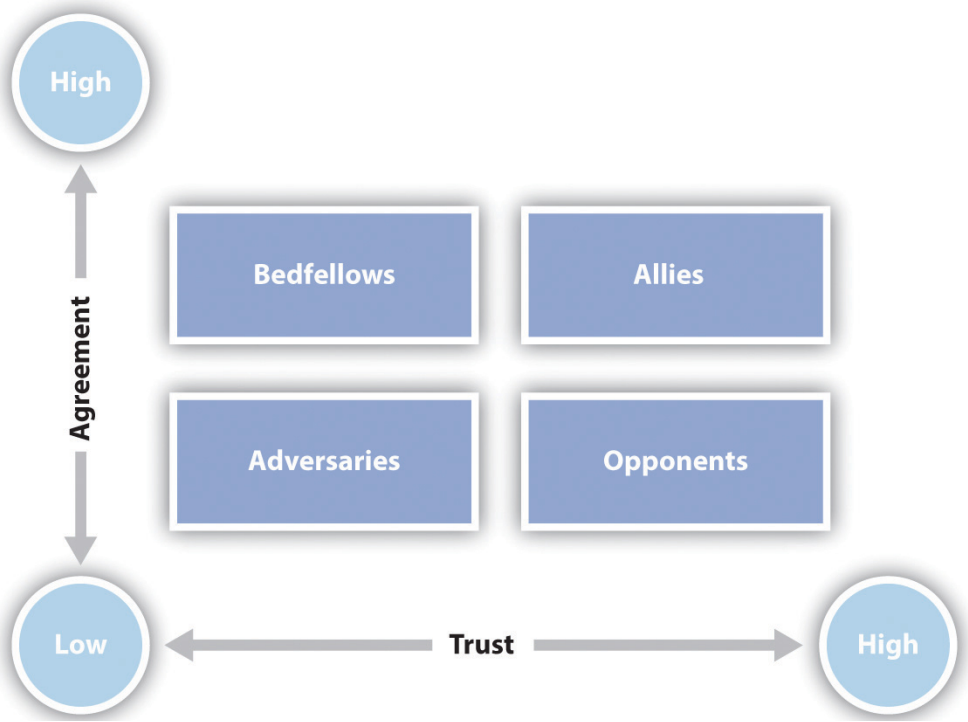
[1] Putnam, L. L.–Poole, M. S. (1987): Conflict and negotiation. In: Jablin, F. M.–Putnam, L. L.–Roberts, K. H.–Porter, W. L. (Eds.): *Handbook of organizational communication: An interdisciplinary perspective.* Newbury Park: Sage. p. 563. Pp. 549–599.

The final part of the negotiation process is reaching the point of reconciliation and compromise in an effort to come to a desired resolution of the conflict. Going back to our example, although the management team stood firm against the raise, they made other concessions to the union (and ultimately the whole organization). Although neither side was 100 percent satisfied with the resolution, they were in agreement about the compromise that was made. One of the biggest mistakes that many novice negotiators make is an all-or-nothing strategy. In most instances, this negotiating strategy can seriously backfire on the negotiators. To help us further understand why these strategies are problematic, let's examine two different negotiation strategies: distributive and integrative.

12.2. Four Types of Players in a Negotiation [1]

When you negotiate with others in a conflict, you need to be able to influence the other parties on two dimensions: trust and agreement. People will either agree or disagree at the same time that they will either trust or distrust the conflict resolution. Agreement is the idea that we can concur in and consent to the goal or objective of our conflict. Trust is the idea of fairness and impartiality in the decision-making process. Determining if parties are high or low in terms of agreement and trust will impact the type of player in negotiation, which is displayed on *Figure 12.9.* These players include bedfellows, allies, adversaries, and opponents. [2]

Figure 12.9 Four Types of Players in Negotiation



[1] Based on Wrench–Punyanunt–Carter–Ward Sr. (2015).

[2]Block, P. (1991): The empowered manager: *Positive political skills at work.* San Francisco: Jossey–Bass.

Bedfellows

People who highly agree with us but with whom we have a low level of trust are termed bedfellows. These individuals like our objectives and purpose but may not be willing to fully commit to our decision. With bedfellows, it is important to be genuine and authentic with your purpose to gain their trust. It is also crucial to provide evidence that they should trust us, because it will help resolve the conflict faster and better. It is best to be direct and clear with bedfellows. In return, you must state that you expect bedfellows to follow suit. Just as in an interpersonal relationship, with bedfellows, you must find different ways to get them to trust you. Once the trust is there, the conflict resolution can be negotiated in an advantageous and favorable manner.

Allies

When there is high trust and high agreement in our goal, other parties become our allies. In this situation, allies are like our friends. We need to keep them informed about the decision. They become integral players in the effective functioning of the organization. It is important to provide allies with all sorts of information, especially the negative or unfavorable news. Allies support our decisions, and we need to maintain the same level of trust with them. It is also important to allow our allies to provide comments regarding their concerns or hesitations about our decision.

Adversaries

When there is a low level of trust and agreement, we are dealing with adversaries. These are the most challenging types of individuals to deal with in terms of conflict resolution. We will have to spend the most energy and time trying to convince these individuals about our intentions and purpose. People tend to become adversaries when we have failed at negotiating trust or agreement. Thus the very first thing we need to do is figure out if there is truly a lack of trust and/or agreement. We need to communicate with these individuals and try to build up both trust and agreement. The way to deal with adversaries is to communicate your intentions, understand your adversaries' concerns, address any problems, and devise a plan to work together. Sometimes our adversary is our boss and no matter what brilliant idea you come up with, it is always shot down, because the boss might feel that you are too young, inexperienced, or unqualified to accomplish it. It is important to find ways to build trust and help your boss perceive that you assent to his or her opinions.

Opponents

When there are high levels of trust but very low agreement, the parties are known as opponents. Opponents may not fully agree with our objectives, decisions, or intentions. However, opponents want a high-trust relationship. They trust us as individuals but might be very skeptical about the outcome of the conflict decision. In this case, opponents will help the organization become stronger and more effective by finding better ways to reach the resolution. The main element when dealing with opponents is communication. We need to be able to understand why they feel the way they do and how to fix the problem. The best example of this type is the customer-corporation scenario, where a very reputable corporation, such as a bank, might propose new ways for customers to deposit their money electronically. The loyal customer might believe in this bank because it has been around for years, and the customer has a strong history with it. But the customer may be wary of scams from electronic mediums or ways for hackers to get their financial records.

12.3. Third-Party Interventions [1]

Even though all parties involved in the negotiation may want to come to a resolution, sometimes the groups just reach an impasse and need to bring in someone to help. Sometimes organizations do not know how to deal with conflict. Hence organizations might look to third parties to intervene. There are many different types of interventions. In this section, we review three prominent kinds of third-party interventions: arbitration, mediation, and group process consultation. These interventions are also illustrated in *Figure 1.*

Figure 1. Third-Party Interventions

Arbitration

Arbitration is a way to resolve conflict without using the legal system. [2] Arbitration uses a third party to review the arguments made by all parties involved and then implements a legally binding and enforceable decision. Arbitration is typically used for commercial disputes, especially in matters dealing with international business transactions. For instance, arbitration might be used to settle a dispute between a manufacturer and a customer about a product failure. If the two parties canot agree why the product failed, an arbitrator might decide on the evidence presented that the failure was caused by the user's lack of regular preventive maintenance rather than by a manufacturer's defect.

[1] Based on Wrench–Punyanunt-Carter–Ward Sr. (2015).

[2] Buhring-Uhle, C.–Kirchhoff, L.–Scherer, G. (2006): *Arbitration and mediation in international business* (2nd Ed.). Alphen aan den Rijn: Kluwer Law Press.

[3] Boulle, L. (1996): *Mediation: Principles, process, practice.* Sydney: Butterworth.

Mediation

You might have heard of mediation in terms of legal matters. [3] It is a way to resolve conflict among parties to have a definite outcome. In mediation, you will have a mediator(s) – usually a third, external party – to figure out a resolution. Mediation is typically more structured than other types of interventions. Mediators truly behave as a third party without taking sides. They try to facilitate the conversation rather than trying to dominate. Mediators try to help both parties come to an amicable agreement. Mediation is beneficial for a variety of reasons. First, the cost of a mediator is usually less than that of an attorney because it does not take as much time. When dealing with an attorney or court case, the procedure becomes quite costly. Second, confidentiality is a key factor in mediation. In a court hearing, the discussions are often public domain, but mediation allows for confidentiality. Third, compliance is a benefit to mediation because everyone is truly working together to get an agreement. Fourth, mediation allows for control over the resolution. In a court situation, a judge or jury may make the final decision, but in mediation, the parties come to an agreement. Fifth, mediators provide support, because they are usually well trained to deal with such circumstances. They are usually very helpful and can assist both parties in recognizing their differences and their similarities.

Group Process Consultation

The last type of third-party mediation is group process consultation. This helps the organization become aware of the conflict and provides a deeper understanding of the problem. In this process, the organization finds more productive and efficient ways that the employees can work together. An outside trainer or consultant will observe the communication behaviors among the employees in their current state. Afterward, the trainer will provide insights or advice to the organization to help identify the behaviors that are hindering their success. The trainer or consultant will provide suggestions for improving how the organization functions and communicates. This type of mediation does not require a third party to make a decision or help the group come to a decision. Rather, group process consultations give recommendations and guidance to help the organization prevent conflicts.

[3] Boulle, L. (1996): *Mediation: Principles, process, practice.* Sydney: Butterworth.

CHAPTER 13.

13.1.

Strategic communication is a term used to encompass a variety of communication-related professions, such as public relations, brand communication, internal communication and corporate communication.

Strategic communications uses message development with high levels of planning and research of audience behaviors and perceptions to fulfill the organization's mission. The messages are created to target specific audiences and help position an organization's communication goals with its structural goals.

Strategic communication can be delivered through a range of sources, including press releases, social media, radio and television advertisements, internal messages, interviews, white papers, and more.

Basic Elements of Strategic Communications

1. Organization's mission statement as the blueprint for your communications
2. Identifying key themes
3. Maintaining consistent messages for organizational strategies and business objectives
4. Keeping messages clear and simple

Why is Strategic Communication Important?

In order for strategic communications to be effective, senior leadership needs to be aligned and connected across the board to embrace communication tactics and core company messaging.

According to Shayna Englin, who teaches public relations and corporate communications at Georgetown, "being strategic means communicating the best message, through the right channels, measured against well-considered organizational and communications-specific goals. It's the difference between doing communications stuff, and doing the right communications stuff."

Developing a strategy and plan lays the groundwork for fulfilling a purpose and allocating resources towards the greater goals. As social media and the expansion of media becomes more prevalent, it can become easy to shift attention away from the initial efforts.

Impressions and follower count don't mean anything at the end of the day if they are not driving brand awareness or sales towards the company goals. Strategic communication is a coordinated effort of communication to influence consumers and in commercial use is geared towards the promotion of products.

Strategic communications is about developing and creating a plan with a goal in mind. By framing and constructing a narrative around the organization's thought leadership, it emphasizes what is important to the organization and creates brand recognition. This in turn builds the reputation and adds credibility.

13.2. Change management

13.2.1. What is Change?

Change refers to the alteration of existing conditions. It is a process whereby the substance, nature, direction, or any other feature of a thing, person or history takes a new direction. The most famous statement about change comes from the ancient Greek philosopher Heraclitus:

"No man ever steps in the same river twice, for it's not the same river and he's not the same man."

This quote means that the river I stepped into yesterday is no longer the same river: the passage of time has caused that its substance is different, the water of yesterday is gone, its temperature might have changed, etc. Furthermore, I am not quite the same person as I was yesterday, either: I have grown a day older, and may have experienced things that make me different, even if just ever so slightly, than I was yesterday. I may be in a different mood, and may have new knowledges and experiences. Heraclitus' quote also refers to the fact that for the river to stay the same, it must flow continuously; therefore, existence is predicated upon constant change. Indeed, Heraclitus famously said, *"There is nothing permanent except change."*

Heraclitus' quote is about the constancy and omnipresence of change. Even those who claim to be highly conservative and resist change have to accommodate change to some degree. Change is everywhere: in human personal development, in the evolution of species, the passage of historical time, changes in society and culture, and technological change. We will briefly review some of these changes here.

Other insights about change from historical personages [1]:

1. "The measure of intelligence is the ability to change" – Albert Einstein
2. "The greatest discovery of all time is that a person can change his future by merely changing his attitude" – *Oprah Winfrey*
3. "Change is the law of life, and those who look only to the past and present are certain to miss the future" – *John F. Kennedy*
4. "Everyone thinks of changing the world, but no one thinks of changing himself." – *Leo Tolstoy*

[1] Source: https://blog.hubspot.com/sales/quotes-about-change

5. "Every great dream begins with a dreamer. Always remember, you have within you the strength, the patience, and the passion to reach for the stars to change the world." – *Harriet Tubman*
6. "To improve is to change; to be perfect is to change often." – *Winston Churchill*
7. "I can't change the direction of the wind, but I can adjust my sails to always reach my destination." – *Jimmy Dean*
8. "If you don't like something, change it. If you can't change it, change your attitude." – *Maya Angelou*
9. "Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world." – *Nelson Mandela*
10. "The secret of change is to focus all of your energy not on fighting the old, but on building the new" – *Socrates*

13.3. Crisis Communication

There are plenty of definitions for a crisis. For this entry, the definition reflects key points found in the various discussions of what constitutes a crisis. A crisis is defined here as a significant threat to operations that can have negative consequences if not handled properly. In crisis management, the threat is the potential damage a crisis can inflict on an organization, its stakeholders, and an industry. A crisis can create three related threats: (1) public safety, (2) financial loss, and (3) reputation loss. Some crises, such as industrial accidents and product harm, can result in injuries and even loss of lives. Crises can create financial loss by disrupting operations, creating a loss of market share/purchase intentions, or spawning lawsuits related to the crisis. As Dilenschneider (2000) noted in The Corporate Communications Bible, all crises threaten to tarnish an organization's reputation. A crisis reflects poorly on an organization and will damage a reputation to some degree. Clearly these three threats are interrelated. Injuries or deaths will result in financial and reputation loss while reputations have a financial impact on organizations.

Effective crisis management handles the threats sequentially. The primary concern in a crisis has to be public safety. A failure to address public safety intensifies the damage from a crisis. Reputation and financial concerns are considered after public safety has been remedied. Ultimately, crisis management is designed to protect an organization and its stakeholders from threats and/or reduce the impact felt by threats.

Crisis management is a process designed to prevent or lessen the damage a crisis can inflict on an organization and its stakeholders. As a process, crisis management is not just one thing. Crisis management can be divided into three phases: (1) pre-crisis, (2) crisis response, and (3) post-crisis. The pre-crisis phase is concerned with prevention and preparation. The crisis response phase is when management must actually respond to a crisis. The post-crisis phase looks for ways to better prepare for the next crisis and fulfills commitments made during the crisis phase including follow-up information. The tri-part view of crisis management serves as the organizing framework for this entry.

Figure 1. Stages of Crises Communication [1]

[1] https://www.pagecentertraining.psu.edu/public-relations-ethics/ethics-in-crisis-management/lesson-1-prominent-ethical-issues-in-crisis-situations/crisis-communication/