

Instructor Materials
to accompany

*Origins and Traditions of Organizational Communication:
A Comprehensive Introduction to the Field*

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Instructor Materials for
Origins and Traditions of Organizational Communication:
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PART I

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION HISTORY

In this section, the origins and history of the field of communication are summarized, providing a comprehensive overview of the field from its inception to the present. Chapter 1 defines the field and its fundamental concepts and explains the emergence of the field, in the context of the emergence of communication studies in general. A set of conceptual models (applied throughout the book) are presented that frame an understanding of conceptual approaches to organization and the reciprocally enabling and constraining relationship between organization and communication. Chapters 2 and 3 present the theoretical and conceptual developments in the 20th and 21st centuries, respectively. Finally, Chapter 4 explains the metatheoretical paradigms that drive ways of knowing in the field, providing overviews of each and analyses of how they approach organizational communication.

CHAPTER 1
Organizing the Study of Organizational Communication
(pp. 3-21)

Anne M. Nicotera

Abstract

This chapter provides an orientation to and definitions of organization and to communication, as well as definitions of organizational communication as a set of phenomena and as a field. It also provides several organizing models to frame the study of organizational communication theory and research. The chapter also provides a history of theorizing about organization, showing how early management theory and social psychological theory come together with other relevant disciplines to crystallize as organizational communication. To provide disciplinary context, this is accompanied by a brief history of Communication as a whole. It will emphasize that those related fields continue their own separate literatures after the intersection with organizational communication, establishing organizational communication as just one academic discipline in the multidisciplinary field of organizational studies. A set of conceptual models is introduced that provide conceptual continuity throughout the book: First, a model that illustrates three ways of understanding organization (as process, structure, or entity); second, a spiraling model illustrating the mutually reflexive interplay between communication and organization.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

Brummans, B. H. J. M. (Ed.). (2018). *The agency of organizing: Perspectives and case studies*. New York: Routledge.

Chapters from this book might be assigned for more advanced students to engage in study of the conceptual operation of agency as a concept in organizational communication theory.

Buzzanell, P. M., & Stohl, C. (1999). The Redding tradition of organizational communication scholarship: W. Charles Redding and his legacy. *Communication Studies*, 50(4), 324-336.

Provides a critical appreciation of the influential work of Charles Redding, widely regarded as the “founding father” of organizational communication.

Craig, R. T. (1999). Communication theory as a field. *Communication Theory*, 9(2), 119–161.

The late 1990s brought a series of conversations and debates regarding the definition of the field and its theoretical contributions. This was an influential essay of the time.

Delia, J. G. (1987). Communication research: A history. In C. R. Berger & S. H. Chaffee (Eds.), *Handbook of communication science* (pp. 20-98). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Provides a history of the Communication field from inception to the 1980s.

Hawes, L. C. (1974). Social collectivities as communication. *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 60(4), 497-502.

An in-depth conceptual treatment of social construction and how it can be conceptualized as communication.

Putnam, L. L., & Cheney, G. (1985). Organizational communication: Historical development and future directions. In T. Benson (Ed.), *Speech communication in the 20th century* (pp. 130-156). Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.

Provides a comprehensive history of the field of organizational communication up to the early 1980s.

Redding, W. C. (1985). Stumbling toward identity: The emergence of organizational communication as a field of study. In R. D. McPhee & P. K. Tompkins (Eds.). *Organizational communication: Traditional themes and new directions* (pp. 15-54). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Redding, W. C., & Tompkins, P. K. (1988). Organizational communication-Past and present tenses. In G. Goldhaber & G. Burnett (Eds.). *Handbook of organizational communication* (pp. 5-34). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

These two chapters can be read as companion pieces. In the 1980s, these essays were regarded as the official history of the field.

Redding, W. C. (1992). Response to Professor Berger's essay: Its meaning for organizational communication. *Communication Monographs*, 59(1), 87-93. [Read with: Berger, C.R. (1991). Communication theories and other curios. *Communication Monographs*, 58(1), 101-113.]

These two essays should be read as companion pieces. Like Craig (1999), this set of essays is a good representation of the 1990s debates about our field's contributions.

Tompkins, P. K. (1993). *Organizational communication imperatives: Lessons of the space program*. Los Angeles: Roxbury.

This book is an excellent historical account of Tompkins' work with NASA, how he came to develop theories of effective organizing based on NASA's Apollo-era organizational practices and principles, and how this applied work contributed to the birth of the field of organizational communication.

Tompkins, P. K. (2005). *Apollo, Challenger, Columbia: The decline of the space program*. Los Angeles: Roxbury.

Tompkins' second NASA book chronicles the changes in organizational communication practices at NASA in the shuttle era, providing an organizational communication analysis of the US space program's decline. These books demonstrate the practical applications of organizational communication theory and are highly recommended reading for practitioners.

Concepts with Definitions

Agency – The capability to exert some degree of control over the social relations in which one is enmeshed; implies the ability to transform those social relations

Communication as human action – Human action is inherently communicative because the fundamental nature of humanity is that it is defined by social action

Culture – a negotiated set of shared symbolic systems that guide individuals' behaviors and incline them to function as a group

Organization – one of three meanings: the process of organizing; the state of a set of organized structures; or a socially constructed entity that is attributed agency, bestows its agency, and eclipses the identities of the members from whose actions it is constructed

Redding's triple alliance – During WWII, the combined efforts of the military, academia and training-within-industry to engage in the study of effective communication for the purposes of organizing and coordinating human activity

Reflexivity – a spiraling process of self-defining and self-construction through unfolding interactions

Social collective – a group whose communication among members is patterned in such a way that it defines, or determines, membership in the group

Social construction – A process of knowledge generation through interaction that creates joint understandings of the world, which then form the basis for shared assumptions about reality

Discussion Questions

1. Using concrete examples, explain how *organization* and *communication* are related?
2. Using an organization with which you are very familiar, illustrate O₁, O₂, and O₃. Explain how this organization possesses all three of the fundamental characteristics of entitative being. Then trace how the three expressions (organizing, organized, and organization) are interrelated in actual occurrences.
3. How do we continue to see Redding's *triple alliance* in the field today?
4. How might the conceptualization presented here of organization and organizational communication be applied to social networks? Are social networks examples of organizational communication in action? Why or why not?

Practitioners' Corner

Communication practitioners and their work vary considerably. Communication practitioners may serve any combination of a number of functions: information dissemination, education, training, development, promotion, marketing, customer relations, and so on. These various functions are served across a wide variety of contexts, including corporate, government, nonprofit, and educational settings. Each chapter of this book will include a *Practitioner's Corner*. Some of these will be suggestions for application of the material; some will be case studies illustrating application. Some chapters will provide more concrete applications than others, depending on the subject matter. This first chapter is necessarily abstract, but it provides a uniquely insightful vocabulary for communication practitioners to think through important issues.

All communication professionals have at least two fundamental things in common: They must act as agents of someone/something other than themselves and they must bridge the socially constructed organizational boundary that divides their audiences into *internal* and *external* publics. The abstract definitional material in this chapter can be helpful to the practitioner in several ways across these two commonalities. Underlying these implications are important questions of agency.

- *First, the communication practitioner is an agent who is professionally obligated to represent the interests of some entity.* Conceptualizing who/what constitutes that entity brings an important set of ethical considerations. Every communication professional must

wrestle with the question of whose interests are primary to the task at hand. The practitioner must ask herself: Whose interests do I represent? The organization (O_3)? The stockholders? The public? Which public? What are the limits on that representation? The theoretic construction of O_1 , O_2 , and O_3 provide a language to assist the practitioner in thinking through these questions to both devise strategy and create a code of ethics.

- Representing *the organization* to a set of “external” publics is a very different task than representing one “internal” group to another, or representing *the organization* to its internal audiences. Who is accountable for actions attributed to O_3 ? Should that information be revealed to message recipients? How? When representing the entitative being, it is crucial to remember that the organization has no conscience of its own. Moreover, when the corporate body is the entity represented, the identities of those humans who are actually responsible and accountable for organizational actions are obfuscated. These implications of the construct O_3 have profound impact on considerations for ethical communication.
- Strategic messaging can be very nuanced. For example, in public health communication, when is it best to attribute a message to *the CDC* or *the Department of Health and Human Services*, or *The Surgeon General’s Office* rather than to the individual persons in charge of the project or announcement at hand? Thinking through the meaning and persuasive power of attributions using the theoretic considerations offered here can be helpful in the design of effective messages that accomplish ethical purposes.
- *Second, the line that divides “external” and “internal” publics is fluid and socially constructed.* In practice, organizational boundary is enforced, with audiences (or publics) divided into internal and external groups. Construction of strategic messaging is enhanced when the practitioner remembers that the boundaries are a human construction.
 - “Outsiders” can become “insiders” – carrying with them the memory of previous messaging. Are there inconsistencies between internal and external messaging? How might these inconsistencies be best addressed to successfully transition newcomers into “insider” roles?
 - “Insiders” simultaneously occupy “outsider” roles. Corporate employees are members of the public with families. Military officers and soldiers are consumers of goods. Public health officers drink from municipal water sources and breathe air from the same atmosphere as everyone else. Any construction of messages designed for internal audiences must be mindful of these blurs in the organizational boundary. Is it important for internal messaging to remain internal? How is “internal” defined, and how is this best communicated to the recipients? Given the ubiquity of social media, are leaks possible? How damaging might such leaks be? To whom? Is any training necessary to prevent them? Harkening back to the first point – whose interests does the practitioner serve in these matters?

While all of these questions can be thoughtfully considered without the organizational communication theoretical framework presented in this chapter, the framework does provide a useful language for the practitioner to think through these issues. The framework provides both the genesis of important questions and a language with which to formulate answers. Who am I? Where do I sit in the organizational construction? Whose interests do I represent? How can we best organize (O_1) to create organized structures (O_2) to achieve the goals of the organization (O_3)? A communication professional in any context will be better prepared to more effectively strategize and implement communication plans having thought through these kinds of questions.

CHAPTER 2
Developments in the 20th Century
(pp. 22-44)

Anne M. Nicotera

Abstract

This chapter provides an overview of developments in the field from its formation in the late 1960s to the turn of the 21st century, including both theoretical shifts and trends in research topics. In the 1970s organizational communication theory and research were focused on understanding organizational communication processes scientifically with a structural-functional approach and a managerial bias. The 1980s brought an interpretive turn, accompanied by an enduring attention to culture and the mutual influence between self and society. The 1990s saw a groundswell of critical theory, with an accompanying period of self-reflection of the field itself. The chapter covers a number of theoretical traditions and conceptual trends, including structural-functionalism, systems theory, sensemaking, organizational culture, critical theory, and narrative. Important paradigmatic turns (i.e., interpretive, critical, and naturalistic) are discussed.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

- Barker, J. R. (1993). Tightening the iron cage: Concertive control in self-managing teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 38(3), 408–437.
*Analysis of this case study evolved to create concertive control theory. The study is good example of how critical-interpretive research can bring unique insight to organizational communication *in situ*.*
- Dailey, S. L., & Browning, L. (2014). Retelling stories in organizations: Understanding the functions of narrative repetition. *Academy of Management Review*, 39(1), 22-43.
This article is an exemplary illustration of the continuing influence of the organizational culture foundations laid in the 1980s.
- Krone, K. (2005). Trends in organizational communication research: Sustaining the discipline, sustaining ourselves. *Communication Studies*, 56(1), 95-105.
This article is the text of a speech, which provides a first-person account of the field.
- Martin, J., Feldman, M. S., Hatch, M. J., & Sitkin, S. B. (1983). The uniqueness paradox in organizational stories. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 28(3), 438-453.
- Mumby, D. K. (1987). The political function of narrative in organizations. *Communication Monographs*, 54(2), 113- 127.
These articles can be read as companion pieces. Martin, et al., is an interpretation of the IBM story, and Mumby re-examines the analysis with critical theory. Reading them together reveals the power of a critical lens.
- Pacanowsky, M. E., & O'Donnell-Trujillo, N. (1983). Organizational communication as cultural performance. *Communication Monographs*, 50(1), 126-147.

Representing one of the earliest programs of interpretive research in organizational communication, this article is a perfect example of using data to derive theory. The excerpts of data provided are compelling and interesting.

Putnam, L. L. (1982). Paradigms for organizational communication research: An overview and synthesis. *Western Journal of Speech Communication*, 46(2), 192-206.

In this early explanation of the distinctions among theoretical paradigms, Putnam clearly explains the underlying dimensions differentiating positivism/functionalism, interpretivism, and critical-interpretivism.

Putnam, L. L. (1983). The interpretive perspective: An alternative to functionalism. In L.L. Putnam & M. Pacanowsky (Eds.), *Communication and organizations: An interpretive approach* (pp. 31-54). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Traditionally used as a first reading on interpretivism, this chapter clearly lays out the problems posed by functionalism and the ways an interpretive approach provides conceptual advantages.

Weick, K. E. (1993). The collapse of sensemaking in organizations: The Mann Gulch disaster. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 38(4), 628-652.

One of many case studies written by Weick, this analyzes sensemaking and organizational decision-making during the Mann Gulch fire disaster, resulting in wide-scale loss of life among the firefighters. Weick examines disintegration of role structure and sensemaking and discusses resilience that makes groups less vulnerable.

Concepts with Definitions

Variable-analytic research – Deductive research that reduces complex abstract concepts to concrete measurable variables and examines relationships among those variables with statistical testing.

Structural functionalism – A form of systems theory dominant across the social sciences in the 1970s; assumes that reality is external and that human beings encounter the social world as receivers of that reality; assumes organizations are unified in the pursuit of common goals through a cooperative system. Follows variable-analytic research practices.

Positivism – A philosophy of science that relies heavily on deductive reasoning and seeks to apply the tenets of scientific method to the social sciences. (Covered in Chapter 4.)

Systems theory principles – Hierarchical ordering; interdependence; permeability; nonsummativity (holism); equifinality; negative entropy; requisite variety.

Interpretivism and its roots – A philosophy of social science that relies heavily on inductive reasoning, grounded in observation as a starting point for extracting theory, and on qualitative methods allowing rich description of lived experience. Its roots are German Idealism, hermeneutics, phenomenology, and symbolic interactionism.

Organizational communication as cultural performance – A set of theoretical concepts that define organizational culture not as something organizations *have* but something they *are*, with communication the means by which members perform culture.

Postmodernism – A body of theory that rejects the received view of structural-functionalism and positivism; focuses on the ways in which organizational realities are constituted by interaction, and are thus multiple competing truths; rejects the idea that any explanation of human social life can be universally applied.

Ideology - The legitimized dominant system of reality that directs our recognition of what exists (reality), what is good (values), and what is possible (agency).

Hegemony - The ability of one class to articulate the interests of other social groups to its own; ideology controls through active consent, so that the dominated are complicit in their own domination.

Naturalization – The reification of hierarchical power relationships, as they are made concrete through action and social practices and then accepted as normal and natural.

Praxis – The obligation of critical theorists to take some action to resist or reverse the hegemonic system and emancipate at least some members of the dominated class.

The naturalistic paradigm – An interpretive research perspective that requires we study things in their natural settings, interpreting phenomena according to the meanings people bring to them.

Discussion Questions

1. Consider the paradigmatic shifts in the field from 1970 to 2000. Can you identify shifts in society and organizational phenomena that may be connected?
2. Identify an organizational system and give examples of its properties (nonsummativity, equifinality, openness, etc.).
3. Think of a time when you and co-workers were faced with a new or confusing situation. Apply Weick's theory of sensemaking to your subsequent interactions. Can you identify the enactment-selection-retention cycle?
4. How is critical theory in organizational communication an expansion of interpretivism?

Practitioners' Corner

It falls to a communication professional to figure out how to strategically communicate within and among groups, and how to guide that group in its communication strategy to external stakeholders. Perhaps the most important body of theory in this chapter for the communication practitioner is Weick's theory of organization. Communication professionals are often tasked with designing strategies that meet the need for stakeholders to act in concert in a context of equivocal environments and diverse views of the problems at hand.

All organizational action depends on processes of social sensemaking. Communication professionals are positioned to facilitate processes of problem analysis and solution-creation engaging Weickian concepts. Through a purposeful process explicitly guiding a group through dialogue that explicates the seven properties of sensemaking, a skilled facilitator can provide opportunities for mutual understanding. As you will learn in Chapter 15, thorough problem analysis is a crucial function for group problem-solving. Working relationships and organizational resilience improve when mutual understandings are achieved. A good understanding of Weickian theory and how to apply it is of great utility for a communication practitioner. Reading Weickian case studies (e.g., the 1993 Mann Gulch article in the recommended supplementary readings list) is highly recommended. While sensemaking is retrospective, a purposeful sensemaking process that actively engages Weickian concepts provides organizational learning to prevent repetition of mistakes improve organizational resilience.

For example, imagine you work as a communication director for a financial services organization. You are tasked with leading both internal and external communication. The

company is about to launch a new online dashboard for its clients that will allow easier access to account information and more immediate customer-initiated changes to accounts. Just as the product is to be launched, a new federal regulation for data security is announced that will fundamentally alter the product and inevitably delay the rollout, as a re-design would be necessary to make the product compliant with the new law. No one expected the bill to be passed. The teaser advertising has already been made public, and customer service representatives have promised the opportunity to existing customers. The product is particularly attractive to high-balance account holders, some of whom have previously expressed frustration about the existing online portal. Your management team fears they will lose their most valuable customers as a result of any delay. The team responsible for regulatory compliance are scratching their heads about how to provide the ease offered the clients while maintaining compliance with the new regulation. You have been tasked to assign people on your team to bring internal stakeholders to the table to discuss the problem and assign others to design an external communication strategy.

Let's examine the external communication problem first. Like all organizational crises, the stakes are high for the organization's PR team. Yet, from a Weickian perspective, the external communication demands are unequivocal. While the situation itself is fraught with ambiguity, how to communicate about it to clients is not. First, the communication problem is straightforward: Customers will be disappointed in the delay and potential cancellation of the product. Potential customers may be scared away. Second, the consequences are clear: A good strategy will keep customers and attract new ones. Third, and most importantly, sound principles for such communication are standard in the field – this is not a new kind of problem. These principles, embedded in PR practice, exist as Weickian causal maps. Knowing this, you assign people from your team who are well-versed in communicating unexpected and unwanted change to clients and who are well-versed in marketing to attract new business. Employing assembly rules, you select individuals who have performed well on such tasks in the past. These individuals will follow proven principles, informing customers of a delay, communicating the situation as it evolves, and delivering advertising sensitive to this crisis. Depending on the outcome, your strategy will either perpetuate those causal maps or create new ones through naturally-occurring processes of retrospective sensemaking.

The internal problem-solving here is another story. This is an equivocal information environment. Do the new requirements actually protect data security? Is it possible to alter the product to be compliant, or is there too much contradiction between customer freedom and data control? Will the new law be enforced or challenged? Should we just cancel the project? Should we delay to see how things play out? Should we work on alteration of the product?

The various internal stakeholder groups will naturally employ communication cycles to discover plausible understandings of the environment. Data security programmers are immobile – caught up in complaining to one another about the stupidity of the regulations, enacted by “dinosaurs who don't know how the Internet actually works.” The client relations team is divided – some want something to deliver to clients to keep them, while others point out that the company's competitors whose existing online portals are suddenly noncompliant have much larger problems and won't attract customers away. The legal team is convinced the law will be challenged successfully by competitors whose online portals were used as benchmarks in the design process. The web designers have jumped the gun and are already working on changing the dashboard's access protocols to get ahead of the competition – poorly, because they are not communicating with the data security programmers.

Your task is to get these groups communicating thoughtfully with one another in a purposeful process of sensemaking to arrive at the most plausible understanding of the current status and where to go from there. Let's examine the seven properties of sensemaking and how they are playing out here.

- *Sensemaking is grounded in identity construction.* Note how each of these groups is engaging in identity-based sensemaking, rooted in their self-preservation and revealing the cultures of their various professions.
- *Sensemaking is retrospective.* All are trying to get their heads around, in different ways, the unexpected turn of events.
- *Sensemaking is enactive of sensible environments.* All are trying to make sense of what comes next.
- *Sensemaking is social.* All of this is taking place through conversations within the groups. Your challenge is to create an opportunity for dialogue among the groups.
- *Sensemaking is ongoing.* No matter what you do, people will continue in their own sensemaking processes. A facilitated dialogue with a focus on mutual goals can provide far better decision-making capability.
- *Sensemaking is focused on and by extracted cues.* Note how each group is focusing on different cues unique to their interests and expertise. A dialogue among them brings information about cues they hadn't extracted, changing their overall understanding.
- *Sensemaking is driven by plausibility rather than accuracy.* In the end, the strategy enacted will be that which makes the most sense to the decision-makers at the executive level – regardless of what any individual stakeholder group feels is best. Your challenge is to unearth all the potentially plausible solutions from an open dialogue.

Such a process of Weickian *enactment* fills in information gaps, provides opportunities for learning, and improves organizational resilience. When a decision is made based on the *selection* of the most plausible sense made, whatever happens will be preserved in the organizational causal map (*retention*), to provide interpretive schemes and assembly rules evoked by similar occurrences in the future.

CHAPTER 3
Developments in the 21st Century
(pp. 45-70)

Anne M. Nicotera

Abstract

This chapter provides an overview of developments in the field from the late 1990s to the present, including both theoretical shifts and trends in research topics. The 21st century is marked by the increasing interdisciplinarity; the discursive turn; the maturation of structurational approaches; and the development of theory in communicative constitution of organization (CCO). A number of specific theories within these traditions are discussed. The field's self-reflection of the 1990s is characterized by growing paradigmatic plurality and interdisciplinarity that flourishes well into the 21st century. The most sweeping development of this period was the discursive turn, with an accompanying burgeoning interest in contradiction and paradox. Structuration theory and CCO perspectives are also covered.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

Canary, H. E., & C. A. Tarin. (2017) Structuration theory. In C.R. Scott & L. Lewis, *The International Encyclopedia of Organizational Communication* (pp. ***-***). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

This essay provides an accessible and thorough overview of structuration theory as it has been developed in organizational communication.

Cooren, F., Matte, F., Benoit-Barné, C., & Brummans, B. H. J. M. (2012). Communication as ventriloquism: A grounded-in-action approach to the study of organizational tensions. *Communication Monographs*, 80(3), 255-277.

Using field work case studies from an extensive ethnographic study, Cooren and colleagues examine how organizational tensions are communicatively constituted and how they can be managed through awareness of every day constitution.

Fairhurst, G. T., & Putnam, L. L. (2004). Organizations as discursive constructions. *Communication Theory*, 14(1), 5-26.

This conceptual essay provides a deep analysis of the various discursive approaches in the field.

Lammers, J. C., & Garcia, M. A. (2017). Institutional theory approaches. In C.R. Scott & L. Lewis, *The International Encyclopedia of Organizational Communication* (pp. ***). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

This essay provides an accessible and thorough overview of structuration theory as it has been developed in organizational communication.

Schoeneborn, D., & Blaschke, S. (2014). The three schools of CCO thinking: Interactive dialogue and systematic comparison. *Management Communication Quarterly*. 28(2): 285–316.

This essay provides a unique view of CCO theory, through a dialogue among the major theorists from each school of thought.

Concepts with Definitions

Discourse/discourse (big D, little d) – Discourse refers not only to talk and social texts but also to enduring systems of thought. It is distinguished from *communication* as a medium for social interaction by its particular language emphasis. With a lower-case d, discourse is activity; whereas with an upper-case D, Discourse(s) is an enduring set of broad social structures and processes.

Organization as object – A discursive orientation that casts the organization as stable and pre-existing, with discursive features or outcomes (artifacts).

Organization as becoming – A discursive orientation to organization that foregrounds agency explicitly focusing on discourse as constitutive of organizing.

Organization as grounded in action – Whereas an object perspective foregrounds structure at the expense of human agency and a becoming perspective foregrounds agency at the expense of structure, an action perspective treats action and structure as mutually constitutive.

Structuration - The process by which social structures are produced and reproduced in social practice. Structure is both the medium and outcome of social interaction, referred to as the *duality of structure*. Social structures are conceptualized as culturally based repositories of meaning - unobservable *rules and resources* that generate systems, which are defined as observable patterns of behavior. There are three structural modalities: signification, legitimation, and domination. These modalities allow us to act via the assignment of three different kinds of meaning to every act/utterance. We assign denotative meaning to the act (signification), judge its appropriateness (legitimation), and ascertain our places in a hierarchy of power (dominance).

Agency – The capability to exert some degree of control over the social relations in which one is enmeshed; implies the ability to transform those social relations

Communicative constitution of organization – A multidisciplinary body of theory that examines the mutually constitutive relationship between communication and organization. Three major schools of thought are Four Flows Theory, the Montreal School, and Luhmann's social systems theory.

Institutional theory – A multidisciplinary body of theory that examines the ways in which large social structures influence daily life

Discussion Questions

1. What is discourse? Why is it important to contemporary organizational communication theory?
2. Choose a common organizational practice (e.g., budget requests, annual performance reviews) and trace its structuration. Identify the practice, its place in a system of practices, the underlying structure, rules, resources, and other structural concepts. Can you trace the structural C-O cycle through this practice?
3. How are the three theoretical traditions of CCO consistent with one another? How do they disagree?
4. What is the role of social construction in structuration theory and CCO?
5. What is the difference between CCO theory and institutional theory? How do they intersect?

Practitioners' Corner

At first glance, it may seem that developments in organizational communication in the 21st century have been more philosophical than practical. Yet, as always, organizational communication remains centered on daily experiences of organizational life. The structuration and CCO perspectives exemplify contemporary organizational communication theory as both abstract and immediately applicable. The central explanations of both emphasize the mutually enabling and constraining relationship between communicating and organizing. This basic understanding can empower organizational leaders and members to enact positive changes in daily activities to purposefully create repetitive structures that are more efficient and effective. Introducing new practices that can be communicatively linked to an existing structure (values, norms, goals, practices, etc.) can create new conventions for tomorrow. Working to eliminate ineffective practices can likewise open opportunities for positive permanent change as their underlying dysfunctional structures die away.

What we do every day, including how we communicate, is drawn from the conventions of yesterday and perpetuates those conventions. This understanding can create a fundamental self-awareness at the deepest level in how we frame, define, and approach our relationships with others. An understanding of the mutually enabling and constraining relationship between structures (or texts, for a Montreal approach) and communication helps us understand such things as applications of technology (AST), negative behavior cycles (SDT), and development of policy (SAT), and thus how to contribute to such things productively. As revealed by Cooren, et al. (2012) and Nicotera, et al. (2014), awareness of the underlying CCO processes that constitute our everyday realities improves individual and group organizational functioning.

CHAPTER 4
Paradigms: Ways of Knowing in Organizational Communication
(pp. 71-85)

Anne M. Nicotera

Abstract

This chapter provides thorough explanations of the basic paradigms in the field – positivist, interpretivist, and critical. Detailed explanations of the fundamental branches of metatheory – ontology, epistemology, axiology, and praxeology – are provided by examining simple questions raised by each. Ample diagrams and examples aid the explanation. The chapter also provides analysis of how scholars from each paradigm approach the basic communication-organization relationship in theory and research.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

Buzzanell, P.M. (1994.) Gaining a voice: Feminist organizational communication theorizing. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 7, 339 -383.

This article provides a comprehensive overview of feminist theory in organizational communication at the height of its growth.

Chaffee, S.H., & Berger, C.R. (1987). What communication scientists do. In C. R. Berger & S. H. Chaffee (Eds.), *Handbook of communication science* (pp. 99-122). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

This chapter provides a detailed summary of the activities and objectives of traditional positivist researchers in communication.

Corman, S.R., & Poole, M.S. (Eds.). (2000). *Perspectives on organizational communication: Finding common ground*. New York: Guilford.

This volume was the outcome of a conference panel discussing ways to bridge gaps among paradigms. This volume ushered in the era of healthy and mutually respectful paradigmatic pluralism that we continue to enjoy.

Craig, R. T. (2013). Constructing theories in communication research. In P. Copley & P.J. Schulz (Eds.), *Theories and models of communication* (pp. 39-57). (Handbooks of communication science, HOCS 1.) Berlin/Boston: De Gruyter Mouton.

This reading could be assigned to advanced students for detailed overviews of the theory-building processes employed in each of the three major paradigms.

Concepts with Definitions

- Phenomenon** – an occurrence, circumstance, or process in the world that theory seeks to explain, such as *leadership, productivity, teamwork, or conflict*.
- Paradigm** – a metatheoretical framework adopted by scholars as a perspective from which to approach the study of phenomena: a way of knowing.
- Deductive vs. inductive reasoning** – Deductive reasoning begins with an abstract generalization and forms concrete conclusions or predictions. Inductive reasoning begins with observed concrete facts and forms abstract generalizations.
- Metatheory** – A body of philosophy and assumptions about the nature of theory and research— theory of theory.
- Ontology** – The body of metatheory concerned with the nature of human reality, of being and nonbeing. Ontological assumptions characterize the phenomenon of interest, defining the object of study.
- Epistemology** – The body of metatheory that addresses questions about knowledge, both the nature of knowledge and how we achieve it.
- Axiology** – the body of metatheory that addresses values.
- Praxeology** – the body of metatheory that examines human conduct, addressing the translation of theory into action.
- Post-positivism** – A deductive paradigm that mirrors scientific method. Utilizing objectivity, post-positivists seek to generalize their findings and claims as much as possible.
- Interpretivism** – An inductive paradigm that mirrors humanities methods. Utilizing disciplined subjectivity, interpretivists seek to provide rich descriptions of human phenomena and transfer knowledge across situations.
- Critical-interpretivism** – An inductive paradigm that follows the interpretivist approach, adding a focus on power and domination, examining the ways in which those in power shape knowledge in oppressive ways. The goal is to reveal societal structures of such oppression and work to change them.

Discussion Questions

1. Discuss the consistency within paradigms of the answers to basic ontological, epistemological, and praxeological questions.
2. What is the difference between scientific control and social change?
3. Can a study truly achieve the ideals of its paradigm?
4. What would happen if a researcher mixed paradigmatic assumptions in a single piece of research?

Practitioners' Corner

What value does an in-depth understanding of research paradigms have for a practitioner? After all, the production of original research is not what they do. Yet, successful practitioners must apply research findings to their organizational settings. Flipping to the conclusions section of an article, or pulling applicable content from an abstract, is ill-advised. The best applications of research are accomplished through the lens of a critical consumer.

First, understanding and recognizing the paradigm guiding a piece of research provide crucial criteria by which to evaluate its quality. It is naïve to assume publication of the piece of research can assure us of its perfection. Rather, a practitioner should have the ability to apply an

evaluative eye to the findings, critiquing the quality of the research and finding its faults, thereby assessing its value for application. Metatheoretically sound research is internally consistent.

Second, paradigmatic understanding provides the knowledge from which to judge generalizability or transferability of research. Conventional wisdom is incorrect in its presumption that positivist research can be more confidently applied than interpretivist research. It depends on each piece of research. Generalizability of positivist research is limited to the parameters of the research setting and the population from which participants are drawn. For example, there may be a connection between trust perceptions and performance, but if the research was conducted in a manufacturing environment, can it be applied to a healthcare setting? Likewise, transferability of interpretivist research is limited by factors such as context and participant characteristics. Yet, interpretivist research that reveals fundamental human processes of social construction may actually be widely applicable when the conditions of that social construction are broadly defined to transcend the research setting. For example, ethnographic field studies that demonstrate fundamental processes of meaning construction and organizing behavior are not limited to the specific setting in which they were conducted.

In short, the best applications of research are grounded in a good understanding of theory and metatheory. A wise practitioner is a critical consumer of research, and understanding paradigm is inordinately helpful in achieving that goal.

PART II

FOUNDATIONAL ORGANIZATIONAL THEORY

In this section, the traditional/historical organizational theories treated in previous generations as foundations of organizational communication are reviewed –not just as conceptual foundations for the field, but also as societal forces that shaped (and continue to shape) organizational forms, practices, and management. One cannot adequately understand contemporary organizations as communicatively constructed and constituted without appreciation of the constitutive power of these foundational bodies of theory. As prescriptions, these theories quite literally wrote the scripts that contemporary organizations follow.

CHAPTER 5
Classical Management Theory
(pp. 89-105)

Anne M. Nicotera

Abstract

This chapter provides in-depth explanation of classical management theory (1880s-1920s). The theories of Frederick Taylor, Max Weber, and Henri Fayol are distinctly cast as rooted in the particular purposes of the theorists. The role of industrialization in the historical context is addressed. The chapter analyzes how organizational form is a cultural construction rooted in a theoretic foundation, with the vertical authority structure as a cultural artifact for organizational design. The ways that contemporary organizational forms, designs, and structures were created by the teachings of this body of theory will be illustrated, and the implications for organizational communication as it is currently practiced is addressed.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

Gotcher, J. M. (1992). Assisting the handicapped: The pioneering efforts of Frank and Lillian Gilbreth. *Journal of management*, 18, 5-13.

This piece is highly recommended to link contemporary work in human factors, ergonomic design, and workplace accommodation to early management theory. The pioneering work of the Gilbreths and others (e.g., Gantt and Hartness) during the classical management period are usually glossed over in our field's textbook treatments of the era (if they are included at all). Yet, a great deal of current work traces its roots to those working in support of scientific task design.

Hough, J. R., & White, M. A. (2001). Using stories to create change: The object lesson of Frederick Taylor's "pig-tale." *Journal of Management*, 27, 585-601.

The criticism of Frederick Taylor as elitist and classist often obscures the brilliant insights of his work on scientific task design and worker assignment. This article focuses on one story told by Taylor to advocate for his methods, underscoring its continuing relevance for organizational science.

Parker, L. D., & Ritson, P. A. (2005). Revisiting Fayol: Anticipating contemporary management. *British Journal of Management*, 16, 175-194.

This article should be of interest, not just for its re-consideration of Fayol, but as a sobering reminder that reliance on secondary, tertiary, and subsequent generations of sources inevitably mis-represents the original. Much of what is "common knowledge" of Fayol is incomplete and misinterpreted.

Perrow, C. (1991). A society of organizations. *Theory and Society*, 20, 725-762.

This is a thought-provoking article for advanced readers to contemplate the nature of contemporary society as absorbed by organizations; highly recommended for students interested in organizations and democracy.

Taylor, F. (1911). *The principles of scientific management*. New York: Harper & Brothers.

(digitized and in public domain, available from
<https://archive.org/details/principlesofscie00taylrich>)

The original voice of Frederick Taylor provides a rich understanding of his scientific management as it was benignly intended; it also reveals the paternalistic and elitist distinction between management and labor that pervaded the time period.

Wren, D. A. (1972). In memoriam: Lillian Moller Gilbreth (1878-1972). *Academy of Management Journal*, 15, 7-8.

The contributions of women in early social science are obscured. This, and other readings about pioneering women in organizational studies, are highly recommended.

Concepts with Definitions

Industrialization – the transition of society’s economy from primarily agricultural to primarily manufacturing/technological

Organizational society – A concept expressing the idea that large organizations have absorbed society in post-industrial economies, creating an impersonal culture in which large bureaucracies have supplanted communities

Post-industrial management – the body of theory and practices developed for manufacturing organization in the period following Western industrialization

Bureaucracy – as a system of legal-rational authority, accomplishing organizational administration of tasks through the implementation of departments with specialized functions.

Authority – a form of domination allowing control over organizational decision making

Line vs. staff functions – Categories of bureaus according to their functions. Line departments are directly involved in the central purpose of the organization; whereas, staff departments

perform functions that support the line departments.

Fayol’s bridge – Formalization of horizontal communication in a vertical authority system.

Scientific management – A system of determining, through scientific study, the best and most efficient way to do every task, followed by the requirement that every worker strictly follow that procedure.

Control – the ability to dictate organizational processes, most importantly decision-making, so that activities and their outcomes can be evaluated to assess organizational success

Standardization – the requirement that processes be executed identically every time by every worker, creating predictable, uniform outcomes and contributing to the depersonalization and replaceability of workers.

Discussion Questions

1. How (and where) can we see classical management principles operating in our contemporary organizational world? Name and discuss a few principles and give contemporary examples. What are the positive and negative consequences of these principles?
2. Weber was very concerned about the chilling effects of bureaucracy on the quality of human existence/society. If he were to appear today, a century later, to observe our 21st century organizational world, what would he say?
3. Given what we have learned about classical approaches to management and organizational design, how might we advise Taylor, Fayol, and their peers to do things differently? How might things have turned out if they did?
4. Scientific management was developed to counter the problems of uneven work quality and soldiering. How might we see these same problems among office workers, particularly those who telecommute? How might today's managers utilize Taylor's ideas for improving productivity in the face of a more skilled, specialized, and distant workforce conducting intellectual (rather than physical) labor?
5. Consider the principles and tenets of classical management theories from an ethical perspective. For example, how might an individual's decision based upon her own ethics violate or support the principle of subordination?
6. Is it possible to maintain order without using vertical authority? Can you find some contemporary organizational examples?

Practitioners' Corner

All contemporary work environments are rooted in formal organizational designs heavily influenced by classical management principles. Any person in a position of authority can enhance their unit's effectiveness by paying close attention to domains of responsibility for work groups. Better work products result from a clear shared understanding of the objectives for which the unit is responsible, careful analysis of what tasks are required to meet those objectives and how those tasks might best be done, and a clear shared understanding of who is responsible for each. Fayol's goal of a free flow of information and good relations between work groups is a worthy objective, so that everyone is kept apprised of one another's efforts and can share knowledge and other resources. Positive outcomes can come from simple techniques such as a regular short Monday morning meeting, where each group updates one another on their efforts. Co-workers who are well-informed about each other's labor are more likely to support one another and to produce better and more consistent work products.

Communication professionals can uniquely benefit from a deep understanding of the roots of organizational design. Whether representing the organization to internal or external publics, quality of that representation is enhanced by a deep understanding of the organization's design and function. Further, such understanding can inform an analysis of the organization's communication practices to create better, more effective policies and procedures.

Communication practitioners are often well-trained in the principles of effective messaging, but few are knowledgeable about effective communication within organizational structures. There are obvious professional advantages, personally and organizationally, in being able to advise one's employer not only about effective formal messaging to audiences, but also about effective communication in day-to-day operations that supports the organization's design and function.

CHAPTER 6
Human Relations Theory
(pp. 106-127)

Anne M. Nicotera

Abstract

This chapter presents and explains human relations (HR) theory (1930s-1950s), covering the work of Barnard, Follett, McGregor, Herzberg, and others. Beginning with Mayo and the Hawthorne studies, the chapter discusses the time and motion tradition of the Galbraiths, expanding beyond most organizational communication textbooks. The historical progression from classical management to HR is thus made clear. The roots of contemporary management practices created in this period in management theory are highlighted – illustrating that many taken-for-granted practices in the present-day organizational world were created by HR teachings.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

Acker, J., & Van Houten, D. (1974). Differential recruitment and control: The sex structuring of organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 19, 152-163.

This analysis provides an interesting and insightful gendered reading of the Hawthorne Studies, disrupting the common narrative about this piece of history.

Bruce, K. (2006). Henry S. Dennison, Elton Mayo, and human relations historiography. *Management and organizational history*, 1, 177-199.

This article provides a thorough history of the Hawthorne Studies and the advent of the HR movement in management theory and practice.

Follett, M. P. (1919). Community is a process. *Philosophical Review*, 28, 576-588.

A reading of Mary Parker Follett's revolutionary ideas in their original source provides a first-hand experience of her visionary, ahead-of-her time ideas.

Herzberg, F. (1968). One more time: How do you motivate employees? *Harvard Business Review*, 65, 109-120.

Aside from the benefit of reading well-reviewed theory in its original, the sheer irreverence of Herzberg's writing style is entertaining. The piece also includes a sobering and disturbing rape metaphor that provokes productive classroom discussion.

Wrege, C. D. (1976). Solving Mayo's mystery: The first complete account of the origin of the Hawthorne Studies—The forgotten contributions of C. E. Snow and H. Hibarger. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 12-16.

This article provides information on important contributors to the Hawthorne Studies who usually remain uncredited in contemporary accounts.

Concepts with Definitions

Distinctions among management theory eras – Classical management focused on the needs of managers to control production processes and outcome. Human relations addressed the dehumanization of classical approaches, supplementing with practices that supported worker's needs (both emotional and physical). Human resource management focused on workers as an intellectual resource, attempting to unify the development of individuals with the needs of the organization.

Hawthorne Studies – a series of scientific management experiments and research studies conducted from 1924 to 1932 at the Hawthorne Works, a Western Electric factory near Chicago. The Hawthorne Studies launched the human relations movement.

Theory X and Theory Y – McGregor's summaries of the assumptions underlying classical management and human relations theory, respectively

Alienation – The idea that human beings naturally adjust to the stultifying environment of the vertical bureaucratic hierarchy with defensiveness, aggression, withdrawal, and apathy.

Satisfaction vs. dissatisfaction – Satisfaction is achieved by meeting higher-order needs, factors that do so are *motivators*. Dissatisfaction results from the failure to meet lower-order needs, factors that do so are *hygiene factors*.

Job enlargement vs. job enrichment – Job enlargement is an expansion of duties that offer a broader domain with the same level of authority over tasks. Job enrichment is an expansion of duties that offer an increase in authority over the tasks and how they are accomplished, thereby increasing their meaningfulness.

Discussion Questions

1. Why should we classify the advancement of HR theory as an evolution from classical theory rather than a revolution against it?
2. Provide an example of a contemporary executive, and illustrate Barnard's three functions.
3. How does the contemporary landscape of electronic communication and social media accomplish the functions of informal organization?
4. How do contemporary communication media enhance the potential of implementing Follett's bottom-up coordination?
5. Why is it still so difficult to break away from top-down management to implement Follett's bottom-up thinking?
6. Discuss examples of contemporary programs and practices that have their roots in the HR movement. What functions do they serve?

Practitioners' Corner

Obvious applications of HR theories for communication practice include employee wellness and motivational programs. The distinction between hygiene factors and motivators based on an understanding of lower- and higher-order needs is particularly important both for designing programs that accomplish their intended purpose and for explaining those programs to organizational members and leaders. Clarity of expectations is key. A good understanding of what employee benefits and HR programs can accomplish is crucial to their success. Communication professionals have a role in providing this clarity to management.

More central to meeting organizational goals, however, is the important insight that managers and executives function as communication centers, and that employee performance is a direct function of the quality of that communication. Getting things done requires the exercise of authority rooted in communication. Communication professionals are well-suited to support managers, either as internal communication officers or as consultants, to meet Barnard's four criteria for effective management communication, ensuring that employees understand the message and feel capable of compliance, believe the message to be consistent with organizational purposes, and perceive their own personal interests to be aligned.

CHAPTER 7
Human Resource Management Theory
(pp. 128-146)

Anne M. Nicotera

Abstract

This chapter explains human resource management (HRM) theory (1950s-1960s), examining participation programs, collaborative management systems, motivation techniques, and other HRM principles and practices. The historical progression of HR theory to HRM theory is traced. The emergence of the communication discipline is noted and discussed in the context of a general timeline for the development of organizational communication. The function of vertical authority for organizing and participating is discussed, with a review of more contemporary (1990s) management theory, specifically the organizational restructuring/flattening movement. This discussion has two purposes. First, to provide an example of the continuing development of management theory after Communication branched off. Second, to show how participatory organizational practices only function well under flattened team-based structures. The chapter emphasizes the ways that these prescriptive bodies of organizational theory have scripted contemporary organizational forms and practices.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

- Barker, J. R. (1993). Tightening the iron cage: Concertive control in self-managing teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 38(3), 408–437.
This case study was the foundation for concertive control theory. Barker compellingly illustrates the potential for self-imposed oppressive practices in team-based organizing.
- Berry, G. (2006). Can computer-mediated, asynchronous communication improve team processes and decision making? *Journal of Business Communication*, 43(4), 344-366.
This article reviews 25 years of business and management literature to draw conclusions about the effect of asynchronous communication technology on teamwork and decision-making.
- Cheney, G. (1995). Democracy in the workplace: Theory and practice from the perspective of communication. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 23(3), 167-200.
Drawing from a multi-disciplinary literature, this essay explores workplace democracy in the contemporary industrialized world, emphasizing issues that are particularly ripe for theoretical and practical contributions from a communication perspective. Cheney's now-classic case study of Mondragon worker cooperatives, in the Basque region of Spain, demonstrates the promise and problems of workplace democracy.
- Cheney, G., & Cloud, D. L. (2006). Doing democracy, engaging the material: Employee participation and labor activity in an age of market globalization. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 19(4), 501-540.
The two leading organizational communication scholars of workplace democracy engage each other in a compelling discussion ranging from the metatheoretical to the practical.

They examine the status of labor activity in organizational communication scholarship and consider important questions about workplace democracy in practice, with a goal of strengthening the field's engagement in robust democratic practices in a globalizing market economy, by using conceptualizations that venture beyond our comfortable discursive and symbolic constructionism to attend to practical and material concerns.

Coopman, S.J. (2001). Democracy, performance, and outcomes in interdisciplinary health care teams. *Journal of Business Communication*, 38(3), 261-284.

This study of hospice care interdisciplinary teams demonstrates the central importance of perceived involvement in decision-making to the success of team-based organizing, as evidenced by several outcomes (cohesiveness, productiveness, satisfaction with the team, satisfaction with team communication, desire to stay with the team, team involvement and job satisfaction).

Concepts with Definitions

Formal organization – The prescribed design of the organization, including positions and their authority, policies, and procedures.

Informal organization - the personal contacts and interactions among organizational members at all levels

Participation – The practice of involving workers (non-managers) in organizational decision-making processes.

Contingency – The assumption that there is no one best management practice, that the determination of the best course of action is dependent on the situation and other contextual factors.

Restructuring – The re-design of formal organization to lateralize (flatten) hierarchies, decentralize authority, and create team-based environments characterized by self-managed groups.

Discussion Questions

1. Reflect on organizations of which you have been a part. Imagine you are a consultant who has been hired to align individual and organizational development and to maximize the potential of employee intelligence. Drawing from the models/theories summarized in this chapter, how would you advise your new client to foster participative and collaborative relationships across hierarchical levels?
2. We have demonstrated that it took several decades for HRM ideals of participation to be implemented with the advent team-based organizing in the 1990s. How do you see the themes of formal-informal integration and contingency expressed in the new plant approach?
3. What aspects of classical management do you see as most difficult to transcend in order to implement HRM ideals, and why?
4. In general, what aspects of HRM do you recognize in our contemporary organizations?

Practitioners' Corner

As with HR, obvious applications of HRM principles can be seen in today's large organizations. Training and other employee skills development programs, collaborative leadership, team-based structures, and other opportunities for growth and for collaborative decision-making are now commonplace. Yet, as Barker (1993) and Stohl and Cheney (2001) illustrated, the culture of vertical authority is difficult to transcend, even when organizations are designed to eliminate or reduce it. Classical management principles and presumptions run deep in the cultural mindset, manifesting in organizational life. For example, executive-level managers often fail to involve front-line employees in problem-analysis when planning for organizational change to solve problems. Commonly, upon getting feedback from employees about daily problems, well-intentioned executive-level management enter a new software contract for broad organizational processes without consulting the end-users of that software about its implementation or details about their experience of the problems it purports to solve.

Organizational members are then faced with implementing a change intended to solve their problems that actually brings new and more difficult problems to their daily functioning. Many front-line employees can tell horror stories about new software implementation that could have been avoided if only someone had consulted them about precisely what was needed before making the decision. In other words, some unanticipated problems with solutions might be anticipated via participation of the right people in the analysis of the original problem.

Communication professionals, either as internal communication officers or as consultants, are well-suited to support managers in understanding how authority structures may impede employee development as they seek to improve employee participation in decision-making, integrate employee development with organizational goals, and implement flexibility into their own leadership skills repertoire. A communication consultant, using a graphic like the C-O dynamic, can aid managers in understanding (a) the degree of collaboration that can be supported by the organizational structure; (b) how the way they communicate matters in the implementation of team-based structures; (c) how to design and implement reward and accountability structures that facilitate goal-achievement in a team-based structure; and (d) how to guide employees to let go of vertical authority presumptions and habits to develop team-based skills. Internal communication officer who construct and disseminate messaging in a team-based environment are likewise benefitted by an understanding of the interplay among organizational design structures, expectations for organizational members' responsibilities and performance, and the content of messaging about internal organizational decision-making.

PART III

TOPICS IN THEORY AND RESEARCH

This section provides comprehensive literature reviews of 14 areas of theory and research, each of which explains the trends over time in the area, major traditions, and contributions of organizational communication scholars. Chapters are authored by established scholars with specialized expertise. While it is not possible to cover every possible topic in the field, literatures that comprise the core knowledge base in the field are provided here. Each chapter applies the general conceptual models provided in Chapter 1 to explore the conceptual approaches of scholars in the area and to illustrate the reciprocally enabling and constraining relationship between organization and communication.

CHAPTER 8:
Socialization
(pp. 149-167)

Patricia M. Sias and Yejin Shin

Abstract

This chapter reviews research on organizational socialization, highlighting the role of communication. Initially proposed by Van Maanen and Schein with a management focus, socialization refers to the process by which an individual becomes a knowledgeable organizational member. Later, Frederic Jablin provided a significant development by emphasizing the role of communication in socialization processes as it is fundamentally communicative. This chapter provides an overview of the socialization process grounded in Jablin's model: anticipatory socialization, encounter, metamorphosis, and exit/disengagement. We discuss state of the art understanding of research in these areas and theories that guide such research. Outcomes and contexts of socialization process and critiques of the socialization model and socialization research more generally are discussed. The chapter ends with a discussion of how socialization research comports with the conceptualizations of organization and communication developed in this book.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

Allen, B. J. (1996). Feminist standpoint theory: A black woman's (re)view of organizational socialization. *Communication Studies*, 47(4), 257-271.

A feminist critique of organizational socialization research emphasizing the experience of a black, female academic as an "outsider within" a predominantly white organization.

Kramer, M. W., & Miller, V. D. (1999). A response to criticism of organizational socialization research: In support of contemporary conceptualizations of organizational assimilation. *Communication Monographs*, 66(4), 358-367.

Bullis, C. (1999). Mad or bad: A response to Kramer and Miller. *Communication Monographs*, 66(4), 368-373.

Clair, R. P. (1999). Ways of seeing: A review of Kramer and Miller's manuscript. *Communication Monographs*, 66(4), 374-381.

Turner, P. K. (1999). What if you don't?: A response to Kramer and Miller. *Communication Monographs*, 66(4), 382-389.

Miller, V. D., & Kramer, M. W. (1999). A reply to Bullis, Turner, and Clair. *Communication Monographs*, 66(4), 390-392.

The above five articles appeared the 1999 Volume 66, Issue 4, of Communication Monographs. The authors engage in a spirited debate about the state of organizational socialization research at the time. Together, they provide many useful insights into the primary conceptualizations and critiques of socialization theory and research.

Wanberg, C. (2012). *The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Socialization* (C. Wanberg, Ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.

A relatively recent broad overview of organizational socialization, from a management/organizational behavior perspective.

Concepts with Definitions

Anticipatory Socialization (VAS and OAS) – The process of learning about work before an individual begins a specific job. Anticipatory socialization has two subphases: *vocational anticipatory socialization (VAS)* and *organizational anticipatory socialization (OAS)*. VAS refers to the process of individuals learning about work careers, and occupations generally. OAS refers to the process of individuals learning about and selecting a specific job and organization to join (Jablin, 2001).

Uncertainty Reduction Theory (URT) – Based on the assumption that when people meet each other for the first time, they experience uncertainty to the degree that they lack knowledge and predictability about others as well as themselves in the situation. At this time, individuals seek and receive information that reduces their uncertainty (Berger & Calabrese, 1975).

Theory of Managing Uncertainty (TMU) – In contrast to the URT assumption that uncertainty is always negative, TMU suggests that uncertainty may sometimes be preferable to certainty. Thus, newcomers do not always want to reduce uncertainty or to gain certainty, instead they sometimes prefer to manage it (Kramer, 2004).

Information-seeking tactics – A variety of methods in which employees use to obtain appropriate information to reduce uncertainty. Miller and Jablin (1991) identified seven newcomer information-seeking tactics: overt questions, indirect questions, third party, testing, disguising, observing, and surveillance.

Social Costs – Perceptions that seeking information comes with a cost to one's image as a competent, confident individual. Employees concerned with costs associated with overt information-seeking requests and try to minimize damage to their image by using indirect methods (Miller & Jablin, 1991).

Organizational Encounter – A phase where an individual is seen as a newcomer. *Encounter* begins when an individual takes on a specific role or position in a specific organization. This involves a high level of uncertainty, so much research is on newcomers' experiences of uncertainty and strategies used to reduce or manage that uncertainty (Jablin, 2001).

Metamorphosis – The metamorphosis phase refers to the transition from being a newcomer to being an established organizational member. It “attempts to become an accepted, participating member of the organization by learning new attitudes and behaviors of modifying existing ones to be consistent with the organization's expectations” (Jablin, 1984, p. 596).

Exit/Disengagement – The final phase in Jablin's (2001) model in which involves members leaving the organization. Two dominant forms of this phase are: voluntary and involuntary.

Realistic Job Previews – A technique that presents job applicants with a “realistic” view of what they should expect from the job and organization. To do so, the organization provides job applicants various information which is both positive and negative (Baur et al., 2014).

Discussion Questions

1. Think about the last organization you joined (e.g., as an employee, student). How did you feel when you first became a member? What types of uncertainty did you experience and how did you deal with (e.g., information seeking, uncertainty management, etc.)?
2. Who influenced your decision to pursue your current career choice? How did they influence you? What messages do you recall as particularly important?
3. Describe the process you used in your most recent job search. How did you learn about the position and company? To what extent did you rely on interpersonal communication and mediated communication (e.g., websites, online search companies, etc.).

Practitioners Corner

Employee turnover is a fact of life in organizations - veteran members leave and newcomers take their places. Consequently, practitioners devote much time to recruiting, hiring, and socializing new members. The large body of research on organizational socialization provides many useful insights for practitioners.

First, practitioners should ensure their recruitment and interview practices provide applicants with realistic and accurate portrayals of the job and the organization. This means conveying the negative aspects (e.g., long hours, little opportunity for advancement) along with the positive. Such information can be communicated in recruitment materials such as job announcements and during interviews. Providing realistic job previews can minimize newcomer shock, surprise, disappointment, and potentially turnover.

Once a newcomer begins their new position, understand that they are likely experiencing a great deal of uncertainty – uncertainty about their new tasks, their ability to do those tasks, their role in the organization’s social network, and the organizational culture. Understand also that they may be hesitant to ask questions for fear of making a bad impression. Rather than waiting for newcomers to come to you with questions, be sure to provide unsolicited information you think they may need. Also be sure to check in with them regularly to ask if they have any questions or need any information.

Practitioners are also encouraged to recognize the importance of functional workplace relationships during the socialization process and create an environment that encourages and supports the formation of quality coworker and supervisory relationships. One way to do this is provide opportunities for newcomers to communicate with others whenever possible (e.g., through collaborating on tasks, departmental lunches, etc.). See Chapter XX for more regarding workplace relationships.

Finally, it is important to remember that uncertainty is not limited to newcomers. All employees throughout their time in an organization experience uncertainty about a variety of issues. We encourage practitioners to check in frequently with all employees to ensure they are adequately informed about departmental and organizational issues and concerns.

CHAPTER 9
Communication Networks
(pp. 168-186)

Lisa V. Chewning

Abstract

This chapter introduces social networks as a socially constructed organizing process that can be observed and measured as organized forms that create, sustain, and connect social collectives, including formal organizations. Networks are generated through communication that connects actors such as humans and organizations relative to a shared interest or boundary condition. Organizations are both comprised of networks (e.g., departments, teams, informal employee relationships) and embedded in networks (e.g. professional associations, supply chains). This chapter introduces foundational network concepts, and demonstrates how the mechanisms and processes that create networks lead to outcomes such as power, influence, and access to resources for both the individual actors that make up a network, and the functioning of the overall network. Special attention is paid to how ICT have impacted the ability to organize across time and distance, altering the processes that underlie network formation and the nature of organizational communication and development.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

Krackhardt, D., & Hanson, J. R. (1993). Information networks: The company behind the chart. *Harvard Business Review*, July-August, 104-111.

This is an easy to follow article that explains the importance of informal networks in the organization.

Putnam, R. D. (2000). *Bowling alone: The collapse and revival of American community*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.

Bowling Alone demonstrates the importance of social ties to the creation of social capital. While Putnam does not go into depth about organizational networks, he does demonstrate the importance of participation in community organizations to stronger relations on both the individual and community levels, thus implicitly connecting micro-, meso-, and macro-structure.

Cheseboro, J. L. (2014). *Professional Communication at Work: Interpersonal Strategies for Career Success*. Chapter 3. New York, NY: Routledge.

This chapter nicely illustrates both network concepts, and the importance of networking for professionals both in and out of the workplace. Will help students orient themselves to the idea of networking.

Monge, P. R., & Contractor, N. S. (2003). *Theories of Communication Networks*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

This book provides a comprehensive overview communication networks directly ties communication and social science theories to network formation.

Concepts with Definitions

- Bridge** – A network position that connects otherwise unconnected groups, however, they share membership in one or more of the groups
- Centrality** – a measure of how connected one is to other members of the network, either directly or indirectly (Borgatti, Carley, & Krackhardt, 2006; Freeman, 1978). Centrality is often used to measure power and influence within a network. There are four different types of centrality: degree, eigenvector, closeness, and betweenness. Ego network –The entire network of an individual actor.
- Density** -- The number of actual connections out of the total number of possible connections within a network). A network in which most members are connected each other (ALL OTHER MEMBERS) would be considered a dense network.
- Formal Network** -- Although organizational structure is created by the communication patterns of all organizational members, the formal network contains rules for workflow and subsequent interaction, such as departmental and work groupings and levels of leadership.
- Emergent Network** – A social network that evolves alongside a formal network and is composed of the informal relations among members of the larger network.
- Gatekeeper** – A network role that characterizes a network member who controls the flow of information by strategically choosing with whom to share messages.
- Grapevine** -- An emergent network that is temporarily created around specific messages, often gossip or informal organizational information.
- Groupthink** – The tendency toward group conformity that blinds group members to the importance of outside influence or alternative points of view.
- Interorganizational Networks** – Networks that are created from communication between and among organizations, often created to manage environmental uncertainty, share or leverage resources, and work together to address macro-level issues that affect their shared environment
- Liaison** – A network role that characterizes a network member who connects groups without being a member of either group
- Homophily** – similarity. In terms of networks, the concept of homophily is treated as a network microdynamic (Ahuja, Soda, & Zaheer, 2012) around which network members create ties. Often the one basis for membership in closed networks.
- Nodes** -- The actors in the network, and often represent individuals or organizations
- Ties** – Patterns of connection among network actors
- Sociogram** – A diagram where actors are represented as points, with the lines connecting the nodes representing the relationships. Often used as a way to picture networks.
- Star** – A network role that characterizes a network member with a high degree of ties, or highest degree centrality
- Strong tie** – Durable ties found among actors who have a long shared history, frequent communication, and communication around personal or intimate topics
- Weak tie** -- Connections between people who share smaller range of information and communication topics, and often do not share multiple contacts in common.

Discussion Questions

1. There is an old adage that says: “It’s not what you know, but who you know.” Given what you learned about network structure, what do you think that means? How can you build and leverage networks that are advantageous to your future career plans?
2. Think about your own networks in terms of your strong and weak ties. What benefits do you glean from each? In what ways do they inhibit you?
3. How can organizational leaders purposely structure organization communication to avoid groupthink and spur innovation and diversity, while at the same time building relationships and trust among members? (Hint: think about the interplay of emergent and formal networks and open/closed network structures).
4. Think about where you currently work, or somewhere you have worked in the past. Was there a difference between the formal network and the way that information really traveled throughout the organization? If so, which had a stronger influence on workflow: the formal or emergent network? If there was an emergent network, did it undermine or complement the formal network?
5. What are some communicative ways that you can combat groupthink?

Practitioners’ Corner

Social network theory provides direction for organizational leaders who want to increase overall network benefits, and individual organizational members who want to maximize their organizational advantage. The following suggestions provide direction for how network theory can provide direction when creating organizational level opportunities for interaction:

- Create opportunities for social interaction: Organizational communication research supports the importance of “water cooler” talk (informal communication). Company picnics, parties, and other social events provide opportunities for organizational members to get strengthen their ties, which can increase personal and organizational social capital. An added advantage is members have the opportunity to socialize across position and division boundaries.
- Strategically balance strong and weak ties: Network research has demonstrated the importance of both strong and weak ties for success in organizations. Dense, cohesive clusters, such as departmental work units, tend to develop strong ties based on frequent communication around shared goals. This often leads to trust and cooperation, which can be conducive to productivity. However, as mentioned earlier in the chapter, it can also lead to groupthink, which can stymie innovation and change. Research has shown that while dense, closed networks are more useful in times of change and uncertainty (Krackhardt, 1992), while weak ties are better at providing exposure to new information and resources, However, the usefulness of weak ties can be mitigated by the complexity of the information being transferred (Hansen, 1999). Ultimately, the optimal structure of network relations can be affected by the overall goals of the network members (Ahuja, 2000), emphasizing the need for making strategic communication choices on both the individual and organizational levels.
- Work with emergent networks: Organizational leaders should pay attention to emergent communication practices such as who department/organizational

members turn to for advice and where work gets done or stalls. If there is an emergent leader to whom people turn instead of the formally-designated leader, consider giving that person a larger role in the organization. If the formal workflow is less productive or followed than an employee created workaround, consider redesigning the process.

- Focus on the link between the micro- and macro – Related, it is important to remember that micro (individual) level change leads to macro (large scale) level change. Returning to the network drivers of agency and opportunity (Ahuja, Zaheer, & Soda, 2012), people naturally select ties that satisfy one or more important criteria. While these choices can be enabled and constrained by formal rules, they are the drivers for change and evolution in organizational networks.
- Bring in outside influences – Social network theory emphasizes the importance of weak ties to combat groupthink and spark innovation. Bringing in organizational consultants and speakers, being part of a trade organization or community business council, and
- Remember the importance of communication: While a communication network point of view focuses on the advantages or disadvantages offered by a given network structure, the content that flows through the links has implications that go beyond structural advantages. Kind words, helpful information, genuine interest, collegiality, and emotional intelligence all play a large role in the success and happiness of the individual employee and overall network.

CHAPTER 10:
Workplace Relationships
(pp. 187-206)

Patricia M. Sias and Yejin Shin

Abstract

The quality of an organization is virtually inextricable from the quality of relationships among the people who comprise the organization. Focusing on the role of communication, this chapter provides an overview of four primary types of workplace relationships: supervisor-subordinate, peer, friendship, and romantic workplace relationships. As one of the most frequently studied topics in organizational communication research, we discuss the evolution of supervisor/subordinate relationship research, highlighting leader-member exchange theory and the role of communication. The chapter also provides a state of the art overview of research on peer relationships, workplace friendship, and romantic relationships. This chapter concludes with a discussion of the various conceptualizations of organization and communication that have guided workplace relationship research.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

Fritz, J. M. H., & Omdahl, B. L. (2006). *Problematic relationships in the workplace*. New York: Peter Lang.

A thorough resource addressing the “dark side” of workplace relationships, covering cause and outcomes of negative workplace relationships, as well as how individuals experience such relationships.

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of a leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years – Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *Leadership Quarterly*, 62(2), 219-247.

An excellent review of the first 25 years of LMX theory development.

Jablin, F. M. (1979). Superior-subordinate communication: The state of the art. *Psychological Bulletin*, 86(6), 1201-1222.

This is a classic article in the field of organizational communication, summarizing supervisor-subordinate communication research.

Kahn, W. A. (2001). Holding environments at work. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 37(3), 260-279.

An interesting conceptualization of workplace relationships as sites of social support.

Omdahl, B. L., & Harden Fritz, J. M. (2012). *Problematic relationships in the workplace: Volume 2*. New York: Peter Lang.

A follow-up to Fritz and Omdahl (2006) referenced above.

Rumens, N. (2013). *Queer company: The role and meaning of friendship in gay men’s work lives*. London: Routledge.

An important book covering an under-studied area in organizational communication/management research.

Rumens, N. (2017). Researching workplace friendships: Drawing insights from the sociology of friendship. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 34(8), 1149-1167.

A useful overview of workplace friendship research and agenda for future research examining workplace friendship from a sociological perspective.

Concepts with Definitions

Blended relationship - A relationship that blends the coworker role with the friend role based on the dynamic management of dialectical tensions; the two roles carry unique expectations that can conflict with one another (Bridge & Baxter, 1992).

Bullying - Destructive communication practices including “verbal abuse; offensive conduct and behaviors (including nonverbal) that are threatening, humiliating, or intimidating; or work interference and sabotage that prevent work from getting done” (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2009, p. 27).

Information, collegial, and special peers - Three primary types of peer workplace relationships by Kram and Isabella (1985), that vary with respect to trust, self-disclosure, and information sharing.

Mentoring - Mentoring is “...a specific type of relationship in which the mentor functions as a type of ‘guide’ for the development and career advancement of the protégé/mentee” (Sias, 2009, p. 29)

Personalistic focus - one of the unique characteristics of workplace friendships are unique: workplace friends communicate with and understand one another as whole persons, not just role occupants (Sias & Cahill, 1998).

Leader-Member Exchange Theory – Posits that the supervisor-subordinate relationship is mutually negotiated; supervisors treat their employees differently and form different types of relationships with their various employees (i.e., supervisory exchange or leadership exchange)

Discussion Questions

1. Reflect on a current or past workplace friendship. What dialectical tensions did you experience and how did you manage them?
2. How might social media influence an employee’s various workplace relationships?
3. Today’s organizations are increasingly populated by employees from several different generations (e.g., Z generation, millennials, late and early baby boomers, etc.). How might generational differences impact coworker communication and workplace relationships?
4. Reflect on your current or most recent job. How would you characterize your relationship with your supervisor (i.e., supervisory exchange or leadership exchange)? Explain your choice.

Practitioner's Corner

As this chapter demonstrates, workplace relationships matter. Employees are happier, more motivated, and more successful when they have functional high quality relationships at work. Organizations reap many rewards from such relationships including lower turnover and better performance. Practitioners would be wise to recognize the important role workplace relationships play in organizational practices and processes and ensure the work environment is conducive and supportive of functional relationships.

Key to creating such an environment is understanding how and why relationships develop and deteriorate. LMX theory and research indicates the importance of high-quality (leadership exchange) relationships and indicates that supervisors tend to form such relationships with some, but not all, of their direct reports. However, as Graen (1995) argued, there is no reason such relationships should be limited and supervisors should make efforts to forge and maintain leadership exchange relationships with all employees. Research on LMX relational development provides advice on how to do so. First, employee competence is key to leadership exchanges. To warrant the trust and autonomy that characterizes such relationships, employees must demonstrate their ability and initiative. Hiring competent and responsible individuals, therefore, is the first step to a quality LMX relationship. The supervisor's ability to mentor, train, and help employees is also important. Managers should recognize their role as mentor and coach, rather than simply supervisor, to help employees, both newly hired and veterans, with their professional development. Research also indicates that authoritarianism hinders LMX development. Supervisors must recognize that leadership exchange relationships require the sharing of power and authority with employees. Employees can also enable development of such relationships by demonstrating competence and responsibility and being open in their communication and information-sharing with their manager.

Practitioners can also encourage the development of quality relationships among the employees themselves. HR professionals and managers should work collaboratively to provide opportunities for the kinds of interaction among co-workers that foster the development of collegial relationships. Managers can, and should, be aware of relationship quality among their employees, foster good quality, and find ways to allow those good relationships to support organizational goals (and vice versa). Providing employees with opportunities to work together on tasks and collaborate with one another can help the coworkers initiate and maintain friendships. It is also important to provide opportunities for coworker interaction via physical proximity or virtual media such as information communication technologies and social networking systems.

Finally, we note that workplace romantic relationships are a fact of life. Despite their challenges and potential to disrupt organizational processes, they can also contribute to employee morale and performance. Practitioners are encouraged to review existing policies regarding workplace romance to ensure they are appropriate and effective with respect to differentiating between workplace romance and sexual harassment. This is especially important given recent societal changes spurred by the #MeToo movement. All employees should receive regular training in the organization's sexual harassment and consensual relationship policies, including mandatory reporting and disclosure, respectively. Employees who are unsure of policies are less likely to report or disclose, leaving the organization vulnerable.

CHAPTER 11
Identity and Identification
(pp. 207-227)

Craig R. Scott

Abstract

This chapter attempts to provide an overview of individual identities as relevant to contemporary organizations, organizational identities, and organizational identifications. For each, an effort is made to describe them generally, examine relevant (meta) theoretical views and approaches, and highlight the constitutive role of communication. Given the size of these literatures, we cannot even begin to review all the research about each; however, we can forefront some of the major issues and connections as we take a communicative focus on organizational identity and identification. The chapter closes with discussion about identity and identification as they pertain to organizing and communicating.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

Ashcraft, K. L. (2013). The glass slipper: “Incorporating” occupational identity in management studies. *Academy of Management Review*, 38, 6–31.

This article redefines the current division of scholarly labor and, through the use of the glass slipper metaphor, theorizes collective occupational identity and its relation to other social identities.

Barker, J. R., & Tompkins, P. K. (1994). Identification in the self-managing organization: Characteristics of target and tenure. *Human Communication Research*, 21(2), 223–240.

This study examines worker identification with two targets simultaneously: one’s self-managing team and the larger organization that employs the individual.

Meisenbach, R. J., & Kramer, M.W. (2014). Exploring nested identities: Voluntary membership, social category identity, and identification in a community choir. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 28(2), 187-213.

This study explores how individuals articulate identities and identification sources in the context of joining or continuing to participate in a community choir.

Russo, T. C. (1998). Organizational and professional identification: A case of newspaper journalists. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 12(1), 72–111.

This study was one of the very first to study multiple targets of organizational identification by examining organizational and professional identification among a group of professional journalists.

Scott, C. R., Connaughton, S. L., Diaz-Saenz, H., Maguire, K., Ramirez, R., Richardson, B., Shaw, S. P., & Morgan, D. (1999). The impacts of communication and multiple identifications on intent to leave: A multi-methodological exploration. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 12(3), 400–435.

This study examines multiple targets of identification and how they influence turnover intentions—revealing a rather complex relationship between three different types of identification and intent to leave.

Concepts with Definitions

- Identity:** a discursively constructed, yet relatively enduring, description of who one is (based on personality, values, beliefs and similar characteristics) in relation to others.
- Organizational identity:** a discursively constructed, yet relatively enduring, description of a collective (based on missions, values, beliefs, and similar characteristics) in relation to other collectives.
- Organizational identification:** a communicative and cognitive process and outcome of linking a person to a collective (based on perceived oneness or belongingness) where individuals define themselves in terms of that broader collective.
- Discursive resource:** a concept, phrase, expression, or other linguistic device that functions as a building block for identity by allowing people to imagine various identities and form narratives for themselves.
- Multiple identities/identifications:** the existence of plural and sometimes fragmented identities (for individuals and organizations) and identifications (as people link to and manage more than one organizationally-relevant target).

Discussion Questions

1. How do issues like work-life balance, corporate colonization, and calls for transparency relate to identity and identification in organizations?
2. Can a transmission view of communication (in how we strategically convey messages to induce identification or use various communication channels to convey identity) exist alongside a constitutive view of identity and identification in organizations?
3. How stable are identities and identifications as they relate to organizations? Do situational views better account for any changes that may occur with identity and identification?
4. How are individual identities (as discursively constructed) constituting and constituted by organizational identities (which are themselves discursively constructed)?
5. How might communication serve to deconstitute identities and identifications related to organizations?

Practitioner's Corner

The responsibility for identity management falls not only to organizational leadership and those in professional communication roles, but every member plays a potential role in the creation and management of their own identities, the organization's identity, and the identifications they have with various parts of the organization. Recognition of that dispersed responsibility and power is important. A few additional key tips are suggested by the literature as they relate to communication:

- Individual and organizational identities are better thought of as fluid than stable. Thus, it is vital to think about how we communicate a tentative identity to various audiences in different situations and how interactions with those stakeholders influence those identities—recognizing that the identity is more emergent than fixed (and thus requires regular attention).
- Individual and organizational identities are almost always multiple. Thus, part of our identity work is about communicatively managing what are sometimes competing and sometimes compatible identities for individuals and organizations.
- Identity and reputation are different issues, but they are intimately tied when we remember that identity is communicatively constructed through our interactions with various others. Our identity and our reputation are mutually influential and consideration of either requires efforts to manage and appreciate both in our messages.
- We should be conscious about ways in which organizational practices (e.g., certain job tasks, bullying and harassment, organizational change) as well as broader societal discourses about work can challenge the self-identity of members and threaten the identity of the organization in the process. The creation and communication of policies and practices that are sensitive to identity concerns are essential.
- Strong bonds of identification from employees, customers, and others depend in part on the organizational identity being one that people find attractive and something with which they can align their own identity. Thus, organizations and their members should strive to co-construct mutually beneficial identities.
- Members and organizational leaders should recognize that there are downsides to obsessing too much about communicating identity or to creating unobtrusive forms of control based on identifications. Even disidentifications and deidentifications may serve as important feedback about how people see themselves in relation to the organization.
- Our identity messages to external audiences may also be heard by internal members in ways that influence their sense of identification. This “auto-communication” can be used strategically—or we can at least recognize the challenges in creating entirely distinct messages for different audiences in a media-rich world where messages are increasingly available to all.

If we always keep in mind that issues of identity and identification can be quite consequential for organizations and their members, we can help remain alert to threats that challenge identity and opportunities for constructing strong identities and identifications.

CHAPTER 12
Power and Resistance
(pp. 228-249)

Heather M. Zoller and Zhuo Ban

Abstract

To begin the chapter, we talk more about how scholars have theorized the role of power in communication processes, and the implications for our understanding of organizations. This discussion is followed by a description of the concept of resistance. We follow this with a description of some major areas of research investigating power and politics. Looking at organizations through the critical lens of power and resistance challenges some traditional approaches to understanding organizational communication. Rather than focus primarily on the development of shared meaning and cooperation, critical research views organizations as sites of conflict, both apparent and hidden. Critical studies built on the interpretive turn in organizational communication, questioning how certain meanings become dominant in the organizing process and whose interests are served by those symbolic constructions (see Chapter 2). Critical researchers adopt a discourse of suspicion (Mumby, 1997), often focused on structural inequalities. As a result, critical researchers theorize organizations “as social historical creations accomplished in conditions of struggle and power relations” (Deetz, 2001, p. 25), and as “political sites where various organizational actors and groups struggle to ‘fix’ meaning in ways that will serve their particular interests” (Mumby, 2004, p. 237).

Recommended Supplementary Reading

Ashcraft, K. L., & Allen, B. J. (2003). The racial foundation of organizational communication. *Communication Theory, 13*, 5-38.

This journal article is one of the first to reflect on the racial nature of organizations. It made pertinent critique on the ways core organizational communication texts frame race, and pointed out that these ironically reproduces normative white power.

Broadfoot, K. J., & Munshi, D. (2007). Diverse voices and alternative rationalities: Imagining forms of postcolonial organizational communication. *Management Communication Quarterly, 21*(2), 249-267.

This forum article explores the alternative ways of conceptualizing organizational communication from a postcolonial perspective. This is done in the form of a dialogue between the two authors on their professional experience as organizational communication scholars.

Buzzanell, P. M. (2000). *Rethinking organizational and managerial communication from feminist perspectives*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

This is an edited book that brings multiple feminist perspectives to the field of organizational and managerial communication. The emphasis of the book is the on-going dialogues and negotiations among diverse voices.

Conrad, C. (2011). *Organizational rhetoric: Strategies of resistance and domination*. Cambridge, UK: Polity.

This book critically engages with the ideological nature of corporate discourse, arguing that organizational rhetoric has been used strategically to manipulate public opinion and influence public policies. It also examines resistance to these ideological constructions.

Fleming, P., & Spicer, A. (2007). *Contesting the corporation: Struggle, power and resistance in organizations*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

The authors examined the various ways power operates in a corporate setting, and argues that contemporary corporations are driven by political struggle, power plays and resistive practices.

Ganesh, S., Zoller, H. M., & Cheney, G. (2005). Transforming resistance: Critical organizational communication meets globalization from below. *Communication Monographs*, 19(2), 169-191.

This essay argues that organizational communication studies should pay more attention to collective (rather than individual) forms of resistance in order to study the transformative movement of "globalization from below."

Mumby, D. K. (2004). Discourse, power and ideology: Unpacking the critical approach. In D. Grant, C. Hardy, C. Osrick & L. L. Putnam (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of organizational discourse* (pp. 237-258). London: Sage.

The handbook chapter conducts a survey on critical organizational discourse research, focusing on the relationship among organizing, discourse, and power.

Zoller, H. M. (2013). Power and resistance in organizational communication. In L. Putnam & D. K. Mumby (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Organizational Communication 3rd Edition*. Thousand Oaks, CA.: Sage.

This book chapter overviews recent approaches to studying power and resistance in organizational communication, including multiple theoretical perspectives.

Concepts with Definitions

Power: from a communication perspective, power entails the ability to construct shared meaning in ways that privilege certain interests and groups.

Concertive Control: a form of control manifest as voluntarily participation by the controlled party. Concertive control is exercised through internalized organizational values by organizational members.

Ideology: shared beliefs. Critical scholars are concerned with how ideologies reify social relations and privilege the interests of dominant groups.

Hegemony: the process by which a social group accepts subordination to a dominant group or groups as the norm.

Systematically Distorted Communication: communication becomes systematically distorted when open discussion of ideas and full participation by individuals and groups is closed off, and that erasure is hidden from view, thereby suppressing certain conflicts.

Disciplinary Power: normative social discourses that are circulated and internalized through systems of surveillance, confession, and judgment that construct our views of normality and abnormality. Disciplinary power is also exercised through the development of areas of knowledge (e.g. academic disciplines) and mechanisms for controlling those subjects

(e.g. examinations, licenses) Disciplinary power acts on the individual through diffuse social mechanisms.

Patriarchy: a system of domination privileging male members in a society.

Heteronormativity: the assumption that heterosexuality is fundamental and natural.

Colonialism: an all-encompassing form of subjugation that involves an assemblage of technologies and practice of control over the economic, political, and social processes in the colonies.

Dialectical Approach: an approach to exploring relationship between a pair of concepts (e.g., power and resistance) that simultaneously examines the inherent contradictions and interdependence between these concepts.

Resistance: non-compliance or agentic moves against domination.

Resistance, Covert Form of: hidden and indirect form of resistance in everyday interactions.

Social Movement: a collective form of agentic practices, operating with established or emerging organizational structures and focused on specific public/policy issues.

Punctuated Equilibrium Model: an approach to policy-making that focuses on the dialectical struggle between political/economic elites and non-elites, emphasizing the unique advantages of elites but acknowledging the potential role of non-elites.

Discussion Questions

1. What is the difference between concertive control and other types of control? Have you had experience when you internalize the value and objectives of the organization you are in? Please reflect on how some socially accepted values (e.g., efficiency and rationality) work to regulate the behavior of social actors.
2. How do you see the dialectical approach to power and resistance playing out in your university? Do you see examples of ways that undergraduate and graduate students both comply with and resist relationships of power on campus?
3. What are some examples of everyday form of resistance that you see operating in places where you have worked?
4. What are some examples of how corporate values influence your educational experience?

Practitioner's Corner

Due to the pervasive nature of power in organizations, everyone in the organization, including communication practitioners, is surrounded by various power dynamics and relationships, with or without consciously recognizing and responding to them. Communication practitioners have to navigate the power dynamics and relationships inside (and outside) the organization in designing, executing, and evaluating communication programs. We have identified two problematic tendencies within which power is dealt with among communication practitioners. The first tendency is to ignore or elide over power issues in communication events and programs. The second tendency is to treat power and control as absolute, and therefore resign to totally conform to established power structure even when positive change is possible. Like we have discussed earlier about systematically distorted communication, communication practitioners with these tendencies may treat value-based communication practices as though it were objective or value-free, and may design campaigns that exclude or discredit some people's voices.

While many communication practitioners consider these as the “pragmatic approach” to organizational communication, many have observed problems with this approach in practice. For example, a marketing campaign based on assumed “generally accepted” normative values may trigger vehement objections from underrepresented social groups. While communicating with internal audiences, communication efforts can be challenged by employees’ covert, subtle forms of resistance. The best practice is to consciously incorporate a power perspective in the designing, executing, and evaluating communication programs that anticipate and proactively deal with the issue of power. In doing so, communication practitioners may have the potential to be part of positive change toward a more power-equitable society. To that end, we will offer some strategic and tactical considerations.

Strategic Considerations:

- Understand the power aspects of communicative situations. Is the target audience a historically disempowered group? If some form of persuasion is used in the communication, is the target audience empowered to make sound and independent judgment about the promoted position? Whose voice is represented in the communication?
- Design power-sensitive communication plans. Does the plan involve discursive closure and systematically distorted communication in the form of neutralization, disqualification, and meaning denial? When trying to reach agreement with a target group, is the objective of the plan to realize mutual benefit or exert concertive control? Has the plan been checked for normative assumptions (e.g., in some Asian countries, many skin product commercials highlight the “skin-lightening” functions, assuming that lighter skin tone is more desirable)? Is there plan for resistance, either in collective or individual, overt or covert forms?
- Critically evaluate communication programs. This means evaluating the output and outcome of communication programs beyond economic indicators. Does the plan result in discursive closure and systematically distorted communication? What kind of relationship is built? Is the relationship marked by power domination? Is the relationship mutually beneficial?

Tactical Considerations:

- At the planning stage, it is important to conduct research on the real power structure and relationship in the organization context. Communication network analysis often help you to more accurately identify the real influencers in the organization.
- Invite or form minority/diversity teams to check for normative assumptions in the communication plan.
- At the execution stage, it is important to reach out to audience members that keep silent, and make sure that they feel empowered enough to voice their concerns if they have any. Organizational member who feel disempowered to disagree openly may use more covert forms of resistance.
- Treat humor and gossip seriously.

CHAPTER 13
Gender and Feminisms
(pp. 250-269)

Patrice M. Buzzanell

Abstract

This chapter maintains that equality is advantageous for everyone. On the personal level, we might consider how we would feel if we knew that our own family members, neighbors, and friends were not paid fairly, could not earn educational degrees or attend school, and could not own property, have credit, speak in public, drive cars, obtain the job titles commensurate with what they do in their jobs, and so on. On broader levels, gender equality is advantageous so that men and women can participate fully in personal and work life. These rights include the opportunities both to contribute meaningfully to the organizations with which they identify, and to choose what careers they want and how they might best “balance” work and personal life considerations.

Recommended Supplementary Reading

Ashcraft, K., & Harris, K.L. (2014). “Meaning that matters”: An organizational communication perspective on gender, discourse, and materiality. In S. Kumra, R. Simpson, & R. Burke (Eds.), *Gender in organizations* (pp. 130-150). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

This chapter extends the constitutive approach for gender and organization studies. The authors discuss how discursive approaches contribute to the social construction of realities, how constitutive approaches integrate materialities, and how organizational communication adds greater complexity and insight into work and organization.

Budgeon, S. (2015). Individualized femininity and feminist politics of choice. *European Journal of Women's Studies*, 22, 303-318.

Early feminist scholarship and activism focused on how aspects of everyday life and gender relations constrained women’s agency or abilities to realize that they had choice and to strategies ways to act upon choice. This article argues that “choice feminism” presumably frees women from prescriptions about how they should live their lives by showing how today’s women are even more constrained by the very ideologies of choice to which they are directed to undertake.

Putnam, L., Myers, K., & Gailliard, B. (2014). Examining the tensions in workplace flexibility and exploring options for new directions. *Human Relations*, 67, 413-440.

Taking a contradiction-centered approach, these authors demonstrate why work-life balance initiatives designed for workplace flexibility tend to fail. They advocate organizational cultural change, framing flexibility as a right rather than choice for workers, and encouraging adaptability as the principle for making work-life organizational decisions and structures.

Van den Brink, M., & Stobbe, L. (2014). The support paradox: Overcoming dilemmas in gender equality programs. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 30, 163-174.

This article pits discussions about equality policies and merit or advancement practices. In academic careers, men's support is taken for granted whereas women's support challenges their ability to advance on their own. This "support paradox" undermines efforts toward gender equality in the workplace.

Concepts with Definitions

Core feminist commitments – include: analyses of how local and global conditions can be changed to create greater equality (research for praxis), engagement in ongoing and mindful self and other-critique (self-reflexivity and analyses), and moral obligations to advocate for change (Buzzanell, 1994).

Hashtag feminism – umbrella term made up of varied social movements that document and provide a virtual space for gender justice organizing and promotion of tactics for combating these inequalities, such as #MeToo and the "Time's Up" campaign that encourage women to act against sexual harassment and assault.

Liberal feminism – analyses of how local and global conditions can be changed to create greater equality (research for praxis), engagement in ongoing and mindful self- and other-critique (self-reflexivity and analyses), and moral obligations to advocate for change

Material feminism – feminist movement that re-incorporates the body and other physical conditions of everyday life both as "real", not entirely constituted through language and interaction, and as agentic

Network feminism – men and women dedicated to women's safety and retention of women's rights have formed online organizing processes and collectivities.

Radical feminism – believing that change to existing structures is too difficult, advocate the revamping of society and alternative organizing structures based on feminist values.

Standpoint feminism – online organizing processes and collectivities devoted to gender justice

Discussion Questions

1. What communication strategies and organizing processes could enable people to transcend the dilemma of "fix the woman" and "fix the culture" strategies?
2. Please debate the different sides of alt right men's online movements and network feminisms? How could different stakeholders' needs and interests be addressed?

Practitioners' Corner

Gender and feminist organizational communication has always been both theoretical and practical. Because praxis is based in understanding and change, there are multiple ways in which gender inequality has been discussed to raise and/or change consciousness about equality for men and for women. There also have been multiple ways to redress causes and promote action. The practical applications of gender and feminist organizational communication has been flexible work arrangements, parental leave and anti-discrimination and anti-harassment policies, and services on the corporate grounds to help manage work-life considerations (e.g., childcare, eldercare, clinics, take home dinners, technologies to work from home). Particularly with regard to services, some experts contend that corporations have included these services to better control workers and increase productivity. Still others point out that use of these policies and services is considered a choice, meaning that those who request them need special treatment to do their

work and that their top priority is not paid labor but some other aspect of their lives. The implications are that gender and feminist organizational communication scholarship ironically can both enable and constrain choice, agency, and dignity.

Xandra was a top student in her major and was encouraged by her engineering instructors and undergraduate advisors to consider graduate school. To help build her application, her professor offered her an opportunity to do research in his lab. Xandra was thrilled by this chance to understand more about what graduate school and, perhaps, a professorial career would entail. She also was excited about contributing to papers that might be published from her lab contributions. After a few weeks in the lab, Xandra's best friend tweeted her wedding and pregnancy announcement. Xandra immediately FaceTimed with her friend and accepted the invitation to be the "person of honor" at the ceremony a few weeks later. The ceremony and her person of honor duties would require that she miss school and her lab work for a week. Xandra was shocked when her professor questioned her commitment to the lab project and to an academic career. If you were Xandra, how would you handle this situation?

CHAPTER 14
Difference and Intersectionality
(pp. 270-287)

Jamie McDonald

Abstract

This chapter reviews how difference and intersectionality have been conceptualized in organizational communication research, the key theoretical frameworks that have informed this research, and how this research conceptualizes communication, organization, and the communication/organization spiral. As you read this chapter, I encourage you to think of difference as a constitutive feature of organizing (Mumby, 2011). Thinking about difference in this way underscores that just like communication, difference is relevant to and can help us understand all organizing processes. In this sense, much of what you learn in this chapter can help enhance your understanding of topics covered in other chapters, such as socialization, relationships, leadership, emotion, and conflict, as all of these processes are shaped by relations of difference. Rather than considering difference as merely one topic to examine among others, difference can thus be seen as an overarching theme that can be engaged across all topics pertaining to organizational communication (Alvarez, Bauer, & Eger, 2015).

Recommended Supplementary Readings

- Allen, B. J. (2011). *Difference matters: Communicating social identity* (2nd ed.). Long Grove, IL: Waveland.
- This is a foundational book that has helped institutionalized difference as a key area of concern for Organizational Communication researchers*
- Allen, B. J. (2017). Diversity. In L. K. Lewis & C. R. Scott (Ed.), *International Encyclopedia of Organizational Communication*. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- This encyclopedia article provides an excellent overview of key concepts and theoretical frameworks that are engaged in Organizational Communication research on difference.*
- Mumby, D. K. (Ed.) (2011). *Reframing difference in organizational communication studies: Research, pedagogy, practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- This edited collection contains influential contributions from key difference scholars and has helped shape the agenda for contemporary Organizational Communication research on difference.*
- Parker, P. S. (2014). Difference and organizing. In L. L. Putnam & D. K. Mumby (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of organizational communication: Advances in theory, research, and methods* (pp. 619-643). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- This is the first chapter devoted to research on difference that has appeared in one of the three handbooks of Organizational Communication and provides an excellent and comprehensive overview of the key theoretical approaches to difference in Organizational Communication.*

Parker, P. S., Jiang, J., McCluney, C. L., & Rabelo, V. C. (2017). Race, gender, class, and sexuality. *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Communication*.

This recent encyclopedia article provides an excellent summary of Organizational Communication research on difference as it relates to race, gender, class, and sexuality.

Concepts with Definitions

Difference: An umbrella term that refers to the ways in which people differ from each other in socially significant ways, including but not limited to identities such as gender, race, and sexuality.

Diversity management: Practices through which organizations seek to value, increase, and/or capitalize upon diversity.

Essentialism: A viewpoint according to which members of a particular group share certain characteristics that are defining features of this group (e.g., boys don't cry, women are emotional).

Glass slipper: A metaphor about occupational identity that seeks to highlight how certain occupations are discursively associated with people who embody certain forms of difference but not others.

Intersectionality: A concept that highlights how social identities are experienced together rather than separately, such that one's experiences of gender are inseparable from one's experiences of race and other social identities.

Race: A concept used to refer to the ways in which individuals are placed into socially constructed racial categories on the basis of phenotypes that are attributed to certain groups of individuals. Socially constructed meanings of race are heavily embedded within power relations.

Sexuality: A concept used to refer to the ways in which individuals are placed into socially constructed categories based upon how they feel and express desire. Socially constructed meanings of sexuality are heavily embedded within power relations.

The closet: A metaphorical space where individuals with certain stigmatized and invisible differences, including but not limited to non-normative sexual identities, find themselves when they have not yet revealed these differences in a particular setting.

Post-colonial theory: A dynamic and heterogeneous body of thought that explores how contemporary social relations are embedded within macro structures of power and domination that are linked to the legacy of colonialism.

Queer theory: A dynamic and heterogeneous body of thought that adopts a fluid and performative approach to difference.

Social constructionism: A viewpoint according to which meanings of the social world, rather than being fixed or pre-determined, emerge through both large societal Discourses and everyday communication practices in particular sociohistorical contexts.

Standpoint: A social position that is rooted in the lived experiences of non-dominant groups and that enables these groups to develop knowledge about the social world that dominant groups do not have access to.

Whiteness: A set of often invisible practices that maintain White privilege and through which White racial identity is normalized, thereby associating race only with what is not perceived as White.

Discussion Questions

1. How can you apply what you've learned in the chapter to what you've learned so far in this book? That is, how can scholarship on difference and intersectionality help us better understand topics such as classical management theory, human relations theory, human resource management theory, organizational socialization, workplace relationships, organizational identity, and power and resistance?
2. What does it mean to say that difference is socially constructed? What are some ways in which we can view categories such as gender, race, class, sexuality, (dis)ability, and age as social constructions? How do these social constructions matter—that is, how do they shape experiences and interactions—in organizational settings?
3. What is the difference between researching difference within organizations (O₃) and researching difference as a key organizing (O₁) principle that shapes the meaning and structure of work?
4. What does it mean to say that difference is a *constitutive* feature of both work and organizing? How are meanings of difference embedded into the ways in which we know and understand work and organizing?

Practitioner's Corner

Organizations in the U.S. are increasingly diverse in regards to gender, race, sexuality, disability, age, and other forms of difference. With the changing demographics that are anticipated over the next several decades, they are poised to continue to become even more diverse ([Lieber, 2008](#)). Moreover, valuing diversity is increasingly seen as being “good for business” and organizations ranging from Fortune 500 companies to institutions of higher education now seek to demonstrate their commitment to diversity. To demonstrate this commitment, there has been a proliferation of organizations that employ diversity consultants and create positions for a Chief Diversity Officer.

In light of this context, imagine that you are interviewing for a position as Chief Diversity Officer for the university with which you're currently affiliated. If you land the position, you will be tasked with developing initiatives that will foster a diverse and inclusive environment for all faculty, students, and staff. Given your knowledge of critical approaches to difference, consider how you will answer the following questions during the interview:

- What are the key challenges that you expect to encounter as Chief Diversity Officer?
- What tensions do you envision encountering as Chief Diversity Officer? How do you envision managing these tensions?
- Describe some of the initiatives that you will implement as Chief Diversity Officer to foster a diverse and inclusive environment.
- How will the initiatives that you develop help challenge dominant ideologies related to whiteness, patriarchy, and heteronormativity on campus?
- How will your initiatives highlight particular forms of difference while at the same time not “negating or undermining the complexities and particular character of an individual, group, system of oppression, or culture” ([P. S. Parker, 2014, p. 625](#))?
- How will your initiatives promote diversity and inclusivity in *everyday organizational interactions*?
- How will your initiatives promote diversity and inclusivity in *organizational structures and policies*?
- How will you assess the efficacy of the initiatives and the overall climate related to diversity and inclusion on campus?

CHAPTER 15

Groups, Teams, and Decision-Making

(pp. 288-306)

Dawna I. Ballard and Dron M. Mandhana

Abstract

In this chapter, we offer a broad overview of the group and teamwork literature, especially as it relates to decision-making. We begin by defining groups and teams, and pay particular attention to the theoretical developments over time, especially the contributions of communication theorists. Throughout, we consider the approaches taken to communication and to organization, noting the attention to culture, and trace how various literatures consider the communication-organization spiral and the role of agency that shapes groups, teamwork, and decision-making in organizational contexts.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

- Cummings, J. N., & Ancona, D. G. (2005). The functional perspective. In S. A. Wheelan (Ed.), *Handbook of group research and practice* (pp. 107-117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Gouran, D. S., & Hirokawa, R. Y. (2003). Effective decision making and problem solving in groups: A functional perspective. In R. Y. Hirokawa, R. S. Cathcart, L. A. Samovar, & L. D. Henman (Eds.), *Small group communication* (pp. 27-38). Los Angeles, CA: Roxbury.
- Hirokawa, R. Y. (1985). Discussion procedures and decision-making performance: A test of a functional perspective. *Human Communication Research, 12*, 203-224.
- Orlitzky, M., & Hirokawa, R. Y. (2001). To err is human, to correct for it divine: A meta-analysis of research testing the functional theory of group decision-making effectiveness. *Small Group Research, 32*(3), 313-341.
- Wittenbaum, G. M., Hollingshead, A. B., Paulus, P. B., Hirokawa, R. Y., Ancona, D. G., Peterson, R. S., & Yoon, K. (2004). The functional perspective as a lens for understanding groups. *Small Group Research, 35*(1), 17-43.
- These five readings provide a good overview of the functional perspective, specifically, as it relates to groups performing tasks. They include the early work in the area (Hirokawa, 1985), reviews of the work (Cummings & Ancona, 2005; Gouran & Hirokawa, 2003; Wittenbaum et al., 2004), as well as a meta-analysis of empirical research on functional groups (Orlitzky & Hirokawa, 2001).*
- Bormann, E. G. (1996). Symbolic convergence theory and communication in group decision making. In R. Y. Hirokawa & M. S. Poole (Eds.), *Communication and group decision making* (2nd ed., pp. 81-113). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- DeSanctis, G., & Poole, M. S. (1994). Capturing the complexity in advanced technology use: Adaptive structuration theory. *Organization Science, 5*, 121-147.
- Frey, L. R., & Sunwolf. (2004). The symbolic-interpretive perspective on group dynamics. *Small Group Research, 35*, 277-306.

Poole, M., & DeSanctis, G. (1990). Understanding the use of group decision support systems: The theory of adaptive structuration. In J. Fulk & C. Steinfield (Eds.), *Organizations and Communication Technology* (pp. 175-195). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Seibold, D. R., & Meyers, R. A. (2007). Group argument: A structuration perspective and research program. *Small Group Research*, 38, 312-336.

These readings focus on the key scholarship related to the symbolic-interpretive perspective and how it applies to the study of groups. Bormann (1996) uses symbolic convergence theory to explain how individuals create a common ground through a chain of fantasies. DeSanctis and Poole (1994) and Poole and DeSanctis (1990) explain the tenets of adaptive structuration theory and how it explains the relationship between the structures of advanced technologies and the emergent structures of social action that emerge using these technologies. Seibold and Meyers (2007) provide a review of research on group argument from a structuration perspective. Finally, Frey and Sunwolf (2004) reviews the foundations of the symbolic-interpretive perspective and propose a composite model of group processes, practices, products, and predispositions.

Cummings, J. N., & Cross, R. (2003). Structural properties of work groups and their consequences for performance. *Social networks*, 25(3), 197-210.

Balkundi, P., & Harrison, D. A. (2006). Ties, leaders, and time in teams: Strong inference about network structure's effects on team viability and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49, 49-68.

Contractor, N., & Su, C. (2011). Understanding groups from a network perspective. In A. Hollingshead & M.S. Poole (Eds.), *Research methods for studying groups and teams: A Guide to approaches, tools, and technologies* (pp. 284-310). New York, NY: Routledge.

Katz, N., Lazer, D., Arrow, H., & Contractor, N. (2004). Network theory and small groups. *Small Group Research*, 35, 307-332.

This set of readings focus on the study of small groups from a network perspective. They include pragmatic approaches to studying small groups from a network perspective (Contractor & Su, 2011), a detailed review of network research on small groups (Katz et al., 2004), a meta-analysis of research on the effects of network structures on team effectiveness (Balkundi & Harrison, 2006), and an empirical study on the effects of group network structure on team performance (Cummings & Cross, 2003).

Concepts with Definitions

- Bounded Rationality** – under conditions of limited processing capabilities, knowledge, and time, team members are unable to behave and interact according to early models of problem solving
- Cohesion** – Janis (1972) defines cohesion as “members’ positive valuation of the group and their motivation to continue to belong to it” (p. 4).
- Duality of Structure** – Structures are both the means and the outcome of interaction; i.e., while symbolic representations enable and constrain members’ interactions, members also continually (re)create these representations through exercising their own agency
- Feedback Loops** – Information received through interaction with the environment about the consequences of a given decision; positive feedback loops lead group members to continue a course of action while negative feedback loops lead group members to alter a course of action
- Free Rider Problem** – A context created when all members of a group benefit from a public good whether or not they help to create or maintain it
- Group Fantasy Chains** – The creative and imaginative interpretations of everyday events to fulfill particular social or psychological needs that converge in a shared group understanding
- Homophily** – The finding that ties are more likely to form among group members who share things in common
- Phenomenology** – The study of knowledge that arises from understanding, consciousness, and experience
- Problem Analysis** – Using available information to understand (a) the nature of the problem, (b) its magnitude or seriousness, (c) its probable cause, and (d) potential consequences of not resolving it
- Satisficing** – Making a decision that is adequate but not optimal
- Social Capital** – The sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition

Discussion Questions

1. In an effort to better understand the teams you will study, what kinds of questions would you ask during initial meetings with the organizational leadership?
2. Can each of the three research traditions described in this chapter be of assistance in a project of this nature? Describe specific contributions that each of the varied traditions can make to address this research objective.
3. As a practitioner, how would you approach the fundamental question of what constitutes MDT performance? On what particular outcomes would you focus as you spoke with MDT members and as you reviewed relevant organizational documents?
4. Taking the perspective of a researcher trained in each of the three traditions, which of the previous types of data would be of most interest to you? How would you design a study that collects the types of information needed to understand MDT performance?
5. What questions would you ask participants in the occupational focus groups?

6. What insights, if any, could each research tradition offer to help you better understand the impact of occupational culture on MDT performance?
7. Based on these findings, what advice would you offer to children's advocacy centers about how to foster social support among MDT members?
8. How can children's advocacy centers communicate and leverage these findings to cultivate greater institutional support among partner agencies?
9. In settings without physical proximity, how can children's advocacy centers address the barriers we found associated with physical distance?
10. Which of these findings would you predict based on extant research in any of the three traditions? Are any of the findings unexpected?
11. Based on these findings, can you design a follow-up study to collect more data to shed even greater insight into team dynamics at children's advocacy centers? What research tradition(s) would offer the most utility given these findings?

Practitioners' Corner

In any given organizational context, each of the three major research traditions we describe here may be leveraged—sometimes simultaneously—to yield insights on teamwork and decision making. Below, we describe a recent multi-year large scale research project undertaken by a team of researchers (which include the present authors) and ask you to consider how each of the scholarly traditions could assist in the study.

Background: The Children's Advocacy Center (CAC) Movement

More than a quarter of a century ago, the children's advocacy center (CAC) movement changed the individual and institutional landscape for child abuse investigations around the globe through leveraging the power of multidisciplinary teams (MDTs) in the service of children and their families. The CAC Multidisciplinary Team (MDT) refers to the various individuals from a myriad of core child abuse disciplines who provide the front line and immediate supervisory services involved in child abuse investigations, assessment, intervention and prosecution. Those core disciplines include law enforcement, child protective services, prosecution, medical, mental health, and the CAC itself (forensic interviewers, family advocates, mental health clinicians, and MDT coordination staff).

Joint investigation of child abuse cases by Multidisciplinary Teams (MDTs) is foundational to the mission of children's advocacy centers. The success of this approach is shaped by the quality and timeliness of communication among team members from different agencies and professions. A number of intra- and inter-organizational factors come together to enable and constrain effective coordination in this setting. Our team—comprised of experts in communication, time-based coordination, team interaction, and organizational science—conducted a comprehensive analysis of the MDT model. Our objective was to determine what factors influence MDT performance in the complex environment they face.

Fieldwork at the Children's Advocacy Centers

- To understand the multiple factors that shape best practices for joint investigations, we took a multi-tiered approach to studying MDT communication dynamics. To offer a complete and exhaustive account of the life of MDTs, we systematically analyzed and compared three different—yet complementary—types of observations: \

- MDT members' language and communication patterns as exhibited in focus group conversations (in both 10 intra-disciplinary settings and 17 multi-disciplinary settings);
- MDT members' shared views and considerations about the issues of greatest import to high quality work (discussed in concert with other members of their MDT during 17 multi-disciplinary focus groups); and,
- MDT members' personal reports about a range of individual, team, and agency-related factors that shape their ability to be effective as an MDT member (as reflected in a statewide survey of 1,424 members).

Our primary objective was to identify systemic barriers to effective collaboration and information sharing. Through reviewing emergent themes from the participant observation, archival data, focus groups, and interviews, we developed a survey to assess MDT members' experiences around issues that included factors such as the role of task design and feedback, training, supervisory support, team psychological safety, task cohesion, social cohesion, individual attraction to the group, and work method autonomy in team performance.

Culture at the Children's Advocacy Centers

Because the MDTs were made up of occupational groups with unique cultures—most notably law enforcement, doctors and nurses, therapists, child protective services, and prosecutors—we studied how members of each occupational group perceived the other occupational groups through both focus groups and survey data. In the occupational focus groups, each focus group was constituted entirely of members belonging to a given profession or from a given agency—i.e., where the members were largely homogenous in terms of their work focus. This allowed us to view differences in interagency perceptions of the MDT model.

Research Findings About MDT Effectiveness

Based upon our triangulation of the multiple data sources, several prominent themes emerged about what shapes MDT effectiveness (both in terms of existing practices associated with strong case development and outcomes as well as existing barriers to effective collaboration and information sharing):

- *Social support predicts resilience and positive case outcomes.* We found positive case outcomes for child abuse investigations are associated with strong MDTs. At the same time, this social support not only leads to improved case outcomes but expressly allows MDT members to carry out their work more effectively and to have more longevity in their careers within an agency.
- *Institutional barriers weaken MDTs. Institutional support strengthens MDTs.* A number of structural and professional barriers exist inside the various partner agencies. These institutional barriers may serve to systematically weaken team processes and create impediments for team members' full participation on the MDT. When partner agencies support the model, MDTs are more effective.
- *Proximity facilitates information sharing and collaboration.* Proximity served as a powerful predictor of information sharing, collaboration, and identity, and diminished barriers associated with professional identity. Physical distance increased these barriers and reduced the ease of information sharing and collaboration.

CHAPTER 16
Conflict
(pp. 307-326)

Jessica Katz Jameson

Abstract

This chapter organizes several decades of research that has examined organizational conflict (1) in the interaction of dyads (such as between coworkers or a supervisor–supervisee relationship), (2) in communication both within and between groups (which might be departments, work teams, or professional or demographic identity groups), (3) in communication that takes place between organizations (such as conflict between a corporation and environmental group), and (4) in terms of alternative dispute resolution, or institutional-level conflict management systems. This review will emphasize the communication spiral in terms of how employee and management approaches to conflict communication influence future interaction, organizational relationships, and the co-construction of organizational culture.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

Bodtker, A. B., & Jameson, J. K. (2001). Emotion in conflict formation and its transformation: Application to organizational conflict management. *The International Journal of Conflict Management*, 12(3): 259-275.

This essay provides a conceptual argument for the role of emotion in organizational conflict and presents ideas for confronting emotions in organizations.

Gayle, B. M., & Preiss, R. W. (1998). Assessing emotionality in organizational conflicts. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 12(2), 280-302.

One of the few organizational communication studies to empirically examine emotion in organizational conflict, this study discusses the relationship between how conflicts are remembered and the impact on future communication. Unresolved conflicts and those with supervisors or administrators were remembered with greater emotional intensity.

Harrison, T. R., & Morrill, C. (2004). Ombuds processes and disputant reconciliation. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 32(4), 318-341.

This article presents another description of the role of ombuds in an organizational setting and Tyler Harrison is one of the few organizational communication scholars looking at third party processes in organizations.

Jameson, J. K. (1999). Toward a comprehensive model for the assessment and management of intraorganizational conflict. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 10(3): 268-294.

This article presents a model to illustrate the complexity of choosing among possible conflict management approaches based on whether one takes an interests-, rights-, or power-based approach, features of the conflict, the relationship between parties, and situational variables.

- Kirby, E., & Krone, K. J. (2002). "The policy exists but you can't really use it": Communication and the structuration of work-family policies. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 30, 50-77.
- This article speaks to the relationship between organizational policy and how employee interaction impacts how employees interpret the policy. This study has implications for conflict management systems as it points out that employee experiences with such systems will impact the narratives organizational members create and whether employees trust they can use organizational conflict management options.*
- Knapp, M. L., Putnam, L. L. & Davis, L. J. (1988). Measuring Interpersonal Conflict in Organizations: Where Do We Go From Here?, *Management Communication Quarterly*, 1, 414-429.
- This article is credited for setting the initial research agenda for communication scholarship in organizational conflict.*
- Kolb, D. M., & Putnam, L. L. (1992). The Multiple Faces of Conflict in Organizations. *Journal of Occupational Behavior*, 13: 311-324.
- This is one example of Linda Putnam's interdisciplinary work, which increased the visibility of organizational communication for the field of conflict studies. The article discusses the many manifestation of organizational conflict and is expended upon in the authors' chapter in another excellent read: Hidden Conflict in Organizations: Uncovering Behind-the-Scenes Disputes. Edited by D. M. Kolb and J. M. Bartunek (1992). Sage Publications.*
- Nicotera, A. M. (1995). *Conflict and Organizations: Communicative Processes*. NY: State University of New York Press.
- This edited volume features several prominent scholars of interpersonal and organizational communication and emphasizes constructive conflict management at interpersonal, organizational and international levels.*
- Putnam, L. L. (2005). Discourse analysis: Mucking around with negotiation data. *International Negotiation*, 10: 17-32.
- This article defines discourse analysis and discusses insights scholars might glean from this and other qualitative, discourse-based approaches to the study of conflict and negotiation.*
- Putnam, L. L. (2010). Communication as changing the negotiation game. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 38(4): 325-335.
- In this article Linda Putnam provides several points of practice for negotiators in all types of settings based on her research. She emphasizes the importance of using communication to differentiate conflict issues, frame and reframe, and engage collective sensemaking to generate creative solutions.*
- Oetzel, J. G., & Ting-Toomey, S. (Eds.) (2013). *The Sage handbook of conflict communication: Integrating theory, research, and practice*, 2nd edition (pp. 267-292). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- The organizational conflict section of this handbook includes several comprehensive literature reviews covering negotiation, work group conflict, bullying, conflict education, conflict in healthcare, and organizational conflict management systems.*

Concepts with Definitions

Alternative Dispute Resolution – A variety of options for bringing conflict parties to agreement outside of the legal process. Two of the most common ADR processes are mediation, in which a neutral third party helps parties reach an agreement, and arbitration in which a third party hears the evidence from both sides and makes a decision about how the conflict will be resolved.

Argumentativeness – A trait that describes the individual's tendency to use facts and data as evidence to support claims during a conflict episode. It is contrasted with verbal aggressiveness in Infante and Gordon's (1985) theory.

Conflict – The interaction of interdependent people who perceive opposition of goals, aims, and values, and who see the other party as potentially interfering with the realization of these goals (Putnam & Poole, 1987, p. 552).

Conflict coaching – An integrative system that offers employees an opportunity to talk with someone who can help them analyze and appraise the conflict, determine the best process for moving forward, and provide the communication skills to enable employees to manage current and future conflicts more productively (Jones, 2016).

Conflict styles – Individual preferences for using some conflict management approaches more frequently than others (Thomas & Kilmann, 1974).

Face – The public persona or identity someone presents to others (Goffman, 1956).

Identity – A person's sense of who they are based on their group membership(s) (from Social Identity theory)

Interdependence – The state of two parties, groups, or organizations that mutually depend on each other to achieve their goals.

Ombud – A third party resource for organizational members who is not part of the regular organizational hierarchy and maintains confidentiality while helping the member determine the best option for managing their conflict.

Organizational Dissent – The communication of disagreement with an organizational decision or policy (Kassing, 1998).

Organizational Justice – The perception of the fairness of an organization's processes and policies.

Restorative Justice – a system of criminal justice that focuses on the rehabilitation of offenders through reconciliation with victims and the community at large.

Transformation – A potential outcome of conflict that changes the views of one or both parties such that they see the conflict, and often each other, in a new way.

Verbal aggressiveness – A trait associated with an individual's tendency to attack the other's person rather than their claim or position in a conflict (Infante & Gordon, 1985).

Discussion Questions

1. Do you believe the individual styles of organization members or the actions of organizational leadership have a greater influence on organizational conflict communication? Discuss how official management policies and day-to-day communication practices are mutually constitutive of an organization.
2. You and a coworker are on the same project team and you rely on each other for information and task coordination to help the team achieve its goals. Your coworker is often unavailable as they have a tendency to arrive late, leave early, and take longer than usual lunch breaks. You once told this coworker that it would be helpful if you had a daily routine for touching base, but your coworker just said “yeah” and laughed it off. Based on ideas from this chapter, what would be your next step in trying to address this conflict?
3. Discuss a situation in which you or a coworker felt you were not being treated fairly by your supervisor or you disagreed with an organizational policy. Did anyone talk to the supervisor or a manager? Why or why not? Provide some examples of how you, as an employee might voice your concerns in a constructive way. Describe what you would do as an organizational leader to promote a culture in which employees are able to come forward when they have concerns or complaints.
4. Describe any organizational conflict management systems you have seen or experienced. Provide possible explanations for why employees did or did not take advantage of these options.

Practitioner’s Corner

When it comes to organizational conflict management, there are several ways in which one might become a practitioner. This section will discuss a variety of potential practitioner roles ranging from more official positions to informal conflict management responsibilities. This section will conclude with an example of how one organization conducted a needs-assessment of their organization to develop a comprehensive conflict management system.

Conflict Management Practitioners

Attorney: Attorneys who specialize in contract or employment law may find themselves working in-house for one specific organization or are available to counsel and represent organizations or employees. When conflict takes on a rights-based orientation, such as claims of breach of contract or violations of human rights (such as equal employment, discrimination, or harassment), attorneys are likely to get involved. Depending upon the nature of the issue and relevant state or federal employment laws, the attorney may recommend mediation or another ADR process or the grievance may go through the legal process.

Arbitrator: An arbitrator acts like a judge in that parties to a conflict will present their case and evidence, and the arbitrator makes a decision about how to settle the case based on relevant organizational policies or legislation. Some organizations require the use of mediation or arbitration as a first step in any employee grievance. It is important to pay attention to any clause in an employment agreement (usually signed when one is first hired) to make sure you know your rights and whether you are agreeing settle any dispute with your employer in arbitration. Arbitration decisions are usually final and not subject to appeal. Arbitrators are often attorneys or judges with expertise in employment law or the specific organizational context. Some

organizations train employees in relevant policies, legislation, and precedent so that they can serve as internal arbitrators for employee grievances.

Mediator: A mediator is a neutral third party who does not make any decision regarding a conflict. The mediator's role is to help parties identify their underlying interests, brainstorm possible solutions for mutual gain, and develop a final agreement that satisfies all parties. Mediators typically have a minimum of 40-hours of mediation training. Training can be more generalized (for all types of conflict) or may be specific to employment conflict. While some attorneys are trained in mediation, many mediators are not attorneys, and there is no universally applied certification for mediators. It is useful for organizations to have employees trained in mediation; most commonly employee relations specialists. Some organizations train supervisors in mediation, and some train employees to serve as peer mediators. Organizations may also hire external mediators to help resolve employee conflicts. Typically mediation is voluntary in that both or all parties to a conflict must agree to participate. In some cases organizations or courts will mandate that parties try to reach agreement in mediation as a first step before filing a formal grievance or going to court.

Ombud: An ombud is a third party who is not part of the regular organizational hierarchy. While an ombud is employed by the organization, they typically maintain some distance from other employees, possibly even having an office off-site. This enables the ombud to reduce conflicts of interest and allows employees to maintain anonymity and confidentiality as coworkers do not see them going to the ombuds office. Ombuds should be well-versed in employment law as well as the policies of the organization(s) they work with. In some cases employees are trained to serve in an ombuds role so that employees know there are certain people with expertise who have been designated to help them. This can be difficult however due to concerns about conflict of interest. Examples of this model include a university who created a cadre of Ombuds specifically to help students or employees who made claims of sexual harassment. Other universities have created student ombuds to provide a place where students can go if they have a concern or a problem with a professor or administrator. An ombud may also be trained in mediation so they can offer those services to interested parties. There are two organizations for more information on ombuds: the United States Ombudsman Association and the International Ombudsman Association.

Conflict Coach: A conflict coach is a third party who takes on an advising role to help an employee examine their conflict, consider the underlying interests for all parties, and consider different ways to move forward with the conflict. While this sounds similar to an ombud, a conflict coach will also help the employee learn and practice communication and conflict management skills to prepare them to manage this and future conflicts. Conflict coaching can be a valuable alternative when both or all parties do not agree to mediate, as they can at least help one interested party prepare and improve their skills. Conflict coaching is a relatively new role. There are examples of organizations who train employees to be coaches for other employees and there are also practitioners who may do conflict coaching as part of a broader consulting practice.

Managers/Supervisors/Employee Relations Specialists: Any organizational member may take on a role as a conflict practitioner. As this chapter demonstrates, the first place employees often go when they experience conflict at work is to a peer. This is one reason it benefits organizations to offer conflict management training to all employees. Given the expense, however, it is more likely that managers, supervisors, and employee relations specialists will find themselves in a position to have to address conflict, either as a party to the conflict or as a third party. Many organizations have certain members who are known to be good at conflict management, whether by accident, personality, experience, or conflict management training. These organizational

members may be highly sought after as advisers, while they may or may not get official recognition for the important role they play.

Example Organizational Dispute System Design

An organization called *Unity Healthcare* (a pseudonym) determined that their existing grievance process was not meeting their needs due to the length of the process and limited options for employees. They created a task force of approximately 23 employees representing staff and upper-level management. The needs assessment process included conversations with three employee focus groups. Fairness and equity surfaced as the primary procedural and ethical considerations. With those issues in mind, the task force began to examine the strengths and weakness of the current system. The review found that both the management and employees lacked confidence in the existing process. Specifically, management identified the time-consuming and adversarial nature of the process as key weaknesses. Employees viewed the existing program as management-biased. In addition, some employees avoided participation in the process out of fear of retaliation and being a part of subsequent legal proceedings. The Employee Relations department wanted to design an ADR program that would send a message to employees that they were not *pro-management* or *pro-employee*, but *pro-rules*.

The task force identified 18 characteristics of an excellent grievance and appeals process. Some of these included: a user-friendly documentation process, simplicity, a need to avoid unnecessary bureaucratic layering, and clear information about what the policy includes and excludes. In addition, they canvassed several other organizations for information on their respective grievance processes. These characteristics were used as a foundation for creating a new system.

A three-step grievance and appeals procedure was created and implemented that includes several alternative conflict management options. The first step involves the employee filing a grievance within 15 calendar days of the occurrence. The most senior departmental manager reviews the grievance and sends a written response within 7 calendar days. If unsatisfied with the response, the employee has 7 calendar days to file a written appeal. The second step begins with a review of the written appeal by an Investigating Officer who then submits a fact-finding report to a three-person, *co-worker panel*. This panel reviews the grievance and provides a recommendation to the Chief Operating Officer within 21 days. The COO utilizes the recommendation to provide a written response to the parties. After receiving the decision, the grievant has 7 days to appeal the decision. There are several interesting features of the *Unity Healthcare* ADR process: (1) the use of a co-worker panel in the first appeal process, (2) agreement not to use an attorney if the employee chooses not to use one, and (3) either party may request mediation at any time during the process. When both parties agree to mediation, the parties are assigned an in-house mediator. Having options and providing for decision-makers external to top management empowers employees and may increase their trust in the program.

CHAPTER 17
A Communicative Approach to Leadership
(pp. 327-346)

J. Kevin Barge

Abstract

The focus of this chapter is provide a sense of orientation to the two aforementioned questions. To answer the question, “What counts as leadership?” it is important to distinguish between individualistic and relational approaches to leadership that center on what counts as the appropriate unit of analysis for leadership theory and research. To answer the second question, “What is the relationship between leadership and communication?” it is crucial to differentiate between leadership communication as transmissive and leadership communication as the management of meaning. While such questions and distinctions are useful, the ultimate question is not whether an individualistic or relational approach to leadership is better or whether a transmissive or meaning-making approach to communication is superior, the ultimate question is how these distinctions can be employed by researchers and practitioners in useful ways to generate action.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

Fairhurst, G. T., & Connaughton, S. (2014). Leadership. In L.L. Putnam & D. K. Mumby (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of organizational Communication* (pp. 401-423). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Fairhurst, G. T. (2001). Dualisms in leadership communication." In L.L. Putnam & F.M. Jablin (Eds.), *The new handbook of organizational communication* (pp. 379-439). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Jablin, F. M., Putnam, L. L., Roberts, K., & Porter, L. (1987). *The handbook of organizational communication: An interdisciplinary perspective*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

These handbook chapters provide state-of-the-art reviews on the relationship between communication and leadership. They trace the historical evolution of leadership from being primarily grounded in leadership psychology (1987), to a dialectical view of communication and leadership (2004), to a complex view of leadership communication (2014) as a relational process that embraces both transmission and meaning centered models of communication, that needs to take into account human-material organizing, and recognizes that organizing is infused with power dynamics, reflexivity, and moral accountability.

Grant, D., Fairhurst, G.T., Grint, K., & Jackson, B. (Eds.). (2010). Social constructionist views of leadership. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 24(2).

This special issue focuses on the way that social constructionist approaches have been used to reconceptualize leadership. The opening essay by Gail Fairhurst and David Grant provides a valuable framework for teasing apart the many dimensions of social constructionism and highlighting the many faces that social constructionism may take in leadership studies.

Liden, R. C., Antonakis, J., & Fairhurst, G. (Eds.). (2009). The context of leadership. *Human Relations*, 62(11).

Context is a key concept in leadership studies that focuses attention on the ways that situations and environments may (or may not) influence what counts as leadership and the relationship between leadership and outcomes. This special issue explores how context is conceptualized within leadership psychology and discursive leadership approaches.

Uhl-Bien, M., & Ospina, S. M. (2012). *Advancing relational leadership theory: A conversation among perspectives*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Relational leadership is an alternative perspective to traditional individualistic approaches to leadership. This book provides a wide-ranging overview of relational leadership from a variety of perspectives including communication, critical leadership studies, and psychodynamic theory as well as examines the way that relational leadership engages with issues of social change, shared leadership, and working with diverse staff in organizations.

Bryman, A., Collinson, D. L., Grint, K., Jackson, B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (Eds.). (2011). *The SAGE handbook of leadership*. London: Sage.

Provides an excellent overview of the history of leadership as well as coverage of macro and sociological perspectives, political and philosophical perspectives, and psychological perspectives on leadership. Fairhurst's chapter on discursive leadership helps situate what a communicative approach offers in relation to existing perspectives within leadership studies.

Grint, K. (2010). *Leadership: A very short introduction*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

An excellent introduction to the study of leadership that is organized around key questions such as what is leadership, are leaders born or bred, what is followership, and is leadership important to organizations?

Northouse, P. G. (2016). *Leadership theory and practice* (7th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

An introductory text that provides an overview of general leadership approaches such as trait, skills, and behaviors as well as specific theories and types of leadership such as leader-member exchange, authentic leadership, and servant leadership.

Johnson, C. E., & Hackman, M. Z. (2018). *Leadership: A communication perspective* (7th ed.). Long Grove, IL: Waveland Press.

An introductory text to leadership with a distinctive communication approach that examines how leadership communication in terms of styles, behaviors, and messages relates to issues of power, influence, and crisis management within various contexts such as teams, organizations, and the public.

Concepts with Definitions

Leadership: A co-created, performative, contextual, and attributional process where the ideas articulated in talk or action are recognized by others as progressing tasks that are important to them.

Individualistic approach to leadership: A leadership approach that centers on individual organizational leaders or networks of organizational leaders and the individual traits, competencies, and actions that distinguish leaders from nonleaders and enable leaders to create and sustain leadership positions and achieve excellence.

Relational approach to leadership: Relational approaches focus on the everyday interactional processes of organizational members and how networks of symbolic and material actants create varied forms of leadership.

Heroic leadership: Equates leadership with persons who have extraordinary skills, motivation, and courage to solve major problems in organizations and “save the day.”

Administrative leadership: Individuals who serve a leadership role by being given particular authority by an organization or institution. Typically is viewed as managerial leadership.

Trait-based leadership: A focus on identifying the underlying communicative, social, physical, cognitive, or personality characteristics that explain how and why individuals create and sustain leadership positions.

Behavior-based leadership: A focus on the overt verbal utterances or nonverbal behaviors that are performed by leaders and how they affect an individual’s ability to act as a leader. The concept of style, a pattern of messages and nonverbal acts that serve as a distinctive behavioral signature, is often used to explain leadership.

Autocratic leadership: Associated with leaders having high levels of power, who employ centralized decision-making, and who direct their followers’ behavior through one-way communication.

Democratic leadership: Associated with shared power and decentralized decision-making where leaders and followers employ two-way communication to jointly make decisions and pursue particular lines of action.

Transformational leadership: Concerned with explaining how leaders create changes in their followers’ beliefs, needs, and attitudes through appeals to their higher-order needs using the strength of their personality and the creation of a compelling vision. Idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration are key dimensions of transformational leadership.

Transactional leadership: Grounded in a view of leadership as social exchange, leaders use contingent and noncontingent rewards to gain followers’ compliance.

Distributed leadership: The distribution of leadership vertically throughout various levels of a hierarchy as well as horizontally within a particular level of a group of individuals.

Actants: Actor network theory (ANT) use *actants* as opposed to *actors* to capture the human and non-human elements that contribute to the accomplishment of social activity.

Collaborative agency: Agency is located in the joint action among human and non-human actants in a network versus a single actant.

Discussion Questions

1. Compare and contrast individualistic and relational approaches to leadership. Imagine that you have been asked to design a leadership training program for mid-level managers in an organization. If you adopted a individualistic approach to leadership, what knowledge, skills, and abilities would you emphasize in your training program? What knowledge, skills, and abilities would you emphasize if you adopted a relational approach?
2. When is it more useful to view leadership as primarily a transmission or meaning making process? Are there particular kinds of situations or problems where it may helpful to view communication through a transmission lens? A meaning making lens? Both simultaneously?
3. Make a list of the various elements (e.g., task structure, culture, history, gender etc.) that may serve as a context for leadership communication. What elements do you consider to be most important? Least important? When do particular elements become more or less important? Why?
4. Information and communication technologies (ICTs) have dramatically altered modes of organizing. How might the prevalence of ICTs in contemporary life alter our conceptualizations of individualistic and relational approaches to leadership? Our conceptualizations about leadership communication as a transmission or meaning making process?

Practitioner's Corner

The study of leadership is marked by a number of varied approaches and perspectives, each generating a distinct take regarding what leadership activities need to be taken to facilitate organizing. For example, the GLOBE leadership studies move individuals to think about the importance of culture while Hersey and Blanchard's Life Cycle theory focuses attention on the maturity and capacity of the people we are leading and how that might affect the kind of leadership style that is needed to facilitate organizing. Distributed leadership approaches focus our attention on the configuration of individual leaders within an organization and how they are connected with the process of organizing. None of these approaches is necessarily incorrect and the advice that flows from a particular perspective is not inherently wrong. Taken collectively, these various approaches, perspectives, and theories simply provide different lenses to make sense of situations and determine what actions need to be performed.

It is more useful to think of these different perspectives as providing a variety of resources that organizational leaders may use to engage situations and make wise choices about how to act. Simply, organizational leaders need to be become mindful of the situation they are engaging, reflective of their ethical stance that they use when making decision about how to act, and endeavor to create lines of action that fit with the demands of the situation and align with their ethical stance. For example, Scharmer (2016) suggests that leaders need to engage in the activity of "presencing" versus "downloading" as the former directs leaders to attune to the unique qualities of situations and to be open to reconfiguring their perspective on the situation whereas the latter suggests that organizational leaders use a set of *a priori* fixed frameworks to understand and engage situations. Operating from a communication as design perspective, Barge (2012, 2015) suggests that leaders and individuals undertaking leadership activities need to determine what communication problem(s) they are trying to address in the situation, brainstorm

various options that might address the problem(s), and select actions that reflect the leader's sensibility or core values regarding how to work working with people and manage the problem(s).

Differing leadership frameworks should not necessarily be viewed as competing; rather, they can be viewed as complementary each providing a different way to read a situation and offering a different repertoire of actions to perform. From this perspective, organizational leaders need to ask themselves four important questions:

1. What values inform my approach to relating and organizing?
2. How do I frame the problems in the present situation?
3. What communicative actions can I make to address the problems I have named?
4. What communicative actions best fit with my value system and the needs of the situation in order to move the system forward and progress tasks?

The first question requires individuals to reflect on the key values that inform their approach toward relating to people and organizing activity. Questions 2-4 have people draw on their past experience as well as the theoretical frameworks to view the potential problems, actions, and solutions from a variety of perspectives. For example, what problems do I give attention to if I view the situation through Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Theory? Raelin's practice theory? Fairhurst's leadership framing approach? Rather than rely on one's pet theories regarding leadership, an approach based on "presencing" has people examine a situation from multiple perspectives, assuming that the more alternative readings of situations that can be generated, the more likely it is that a leader will select one that fits with the unique characteristics of the situation and will progress tasks. By aligning potential actions simultaneously with a leader's core values and the unique particulars of a situation, leaders can create patterns of interaction over time that are both consistent with their core values yet uniquely adapted to the demands of the situation.

CHAPTER 18
The Structuration of Emotion

Sarah J. Tracy and Shawna Malvini Redden

Abstract

This chapter begins by explaining the pragmatic impetus for emotion and organizing research. Second, we review organizing structures and macro-discourses that discipline workplace emotion. Third, we explain the central communicative actions of emotion at work. Fourth, we analyze how employees resist, reify, and sometimes transcend emotion rules and emotional constructions. Along the way, we highlight how organizational communication has extended parallel work from management, organizational psychology, and sociology, and discuss how culture intersects with emotion and organizing. The chapter closes with a structuration model of emotion and organizational communication.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

- Bochantin, J. E. (2017). “Ambulance thieves, clowns, and naked grandfathers”: How PSEs and their families use humorous communication as a sensemaking device. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 31(2), 278–296.
An exemplar of humor, sensemaking, and work-life balance among public safety employees.
- Dougherty, D. S., & Drumheller, K. (2006). Sensemaking and emotions in organizations: Accounting for emotions in a rational(ized) context. *Communication Studies*, 57(2), 215–238.
Critiques the priority of rationality over emotionality in organizations.
- Hareli, S., & Rafaeli, A. (2008). Emotion cycles: On the social influence of emotion in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 28, 35–59.
The original discussion of emotion cycles in organizations, focusing primarily on negative emotion cycles.
- Hochschild, A. R. (1983). *The managed heart: Commercialization of human feeling*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
The book that coined key terms of emotional labor, surface and deep acting, and emotive dissonance.
- Huffman, T. P. (2017). Compassionate communication, embodied aboutness, and homeless young adults. *Western Journal of Communication*, 81(2), 149–167.
Drawing upon experiences of homeless youth, Huffman depicts the embodied enactment of compassion.
- Lutgen-Sandvik, P., & Tracy, S. J. (2012). Answering five key questions about workplace bullying: How communication scholarship provides a thought leadership for transforming abuse at work. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 26, 3–47.
A synthesis of the workplace bullying literature in organizational communication.

- Malvini Redden, S., & Scarduzio, J. A. (2017). A different type of dirty work: Hidden taint, intersectionality, and emotion management in bureaucratic organizations. *Communication Monographs*, 1–21.
This study shows how professional occupations can involve difficult, identity- and emotion-related dirty work.
- Miller, K. (2002). The experience of emotion in the workplace: Professing in the midst of tragedy. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 15(4), 571–600.
Emotional labor is used as a lens to vividly and autoethnographically examine a workplace tragedy.
- Rivera, K. D. (2015). Emotional taint: Making sense of emotional dirty work at the US Border Patrol. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 29(2), 198–228. \ *Rivera coins the term emotional taint to describe work that is “dirty” by virtue of the emotion it requires.*
- Tracy, S. J., & Huffman, T. P. (2017). Compassion in the face of terror: A case study of recognizing suffering, co-creating hope, and developing trust in a would-be school shooting. *Communication Monographs*, 84(1), 30–53.
This article provides a vivid picture for communicating compassion when sufferers are angry, threatening, or resisting help.
- Tracy, S. J., Lutgen-Sandvik, P., & Alberts, J. K. (2006). Nightmares, demons and slaves: Exploring the painful metaphors of workplace bullying. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 20, 148–185.
Using drawing and metaphor analysis, this article shows what workplace bullying feels like.

Concepts with Definitions

- Bounded emotionality** – a concept offered by Mumby & Putnam (1992) that suggests organizations should encourage employees to experience a range of emotions, including nurturance, care, and supportiveness.
- Burnout** – The general “wearing down” from work pressures, characterized by emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, cynicism, and decreased personal accomplishment.
- Compassion (fatigue)** – Compassion is the process of recognizing suffering, relating empathetically, and reacting in a caring way. Compassion fatigue occurs when our hearts give up from caring for clients.
- Communicatively Restricted Organizational Stress (CROS)** – The discomfort that emerges when employees feel constricted in discussing workplace frustrations.
- Deep acting; surface acting** – deep acting is the effortful process of changing internal feelings to match organizational requirements; surface acting is when employees force emotional expressions, but do not change how they actually feel.
- Discourses of individualism, meritocracy, rationality, and masculinity** – societal myths that serve to penalize employees perceived as weak or thin-skinned, and link tough treatment to increased productivity and “just the way the world works”
- (dis)identification** – distancing or making fun of one’s work role; this may appear as though it is resistance but it can ironically facilitate emotional labor expectations.

Emotional deviance - when organizational member expresses inner feelings that deviate or a different from emotional expressions expected by organizational feeling rules

Emotional intelligence - refers to a set of capabilities that include emotional self-awareness, emotional self-regulation, motivating oneself and others, and empathizing with the emotions of others

Emotional labor - the commodification of emotion or the process of people managing their emotions in line with organizational expectations and training

Emotive dissonance – the tension and strain that emerges due to discrepancies in felt and expressed emotions

Emotional taint – the stigma that occurs when jobs are associated with caring for low-status clients; also when emotional displays or emotional labor are constructed as objectionable

Emotional taxes - emotional expressions that people perform unpaid during compulsory interactions, usually in circumstances with power differentials between parties

Feeling rules / emotion norms – Organizational rules or expectations that dictate employee emotional expressions

Microaggressions - subtle, prejudicial or discriminatory words or behaviors

Resilience – a social process involves maintaining social ties and creatively reframing difficulties so as to be able to bounce back in times of challenge

Workplace bullying - persistent verbal and nonverbal aggression at work that includes personal attacks, social ostracism, and other painful messages and hostile interactions

Discussion Questions

1. Identify organizational and institutional discourses that shape emotional experiences for employees (e.g., rationality, individuality). How do these structures shape emotion at personal, organizational, and societal levels?
2. How have you resisted or participated in emotion management norms?
3. How can workplace policy and/or employee communication improve workplace emotional experiences?
4. What emotional cycles have you experienced? How does considering emotion socially, and in relationship to organizational and discursive structures, shape your understanding of how emotions influence organizing?

Practitioners' Corner

Since the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks and subsequent creation of the Transportation Security Administration (TSA), airport security is steeped with Discourses about terrorism, safety, privacy, and authority. On one hand, macro-level conversations about security are rife with critiques of security policies. However, millions of people submit to TSA procedures daily in order to fly. In doing so, they are complicit in practices that curb personal freedoms.

For Transportation Security Officers (TSOs), emotional experiences are complicated by organizational training and mandates; many require difficult, sustained emotional performances of intimidation and composure. TSOs are trained to prevent terrorist attacks with the mantra “not on my watch” and are bombarded with pseudo-military and patriotic messaging regarding duty to country. However, the material reality of TSO work is physically processing thousands of people and constantly managing emotions. Furthermore, TSOs do not enjoy many affirmative discourses about their occupation outside of organizational training.

Consider a typical trip to the airport. People regularly worry about long lines, security screenings, and missing flights. It's not uncommon for people to be sleep deprived and anxious about getting through quickly. Imagine a tired, uncertain passenger—irritated by long, winding lines and fellow passengers who take forever loading their belongings on the conveyor belt—being confronted by a TSO who says they've done something wrong. They will need a bag search and full body pat-down. The passenger—now angry because they've flown before, know what they're doing, and are very worried about the extra time—starts rudely ranting to the TSO about feeling unfairly singled out. The TSO explains that something in the passenger's bag looked suspicious and protocol dictates extra screening.

The passenger belittles the officer, shouting about how their taxes pay TSO salaries and that TSOs are glorified security guards who couldn't make it into “real” law enforcement anyway. In turn, the officer stays outwardly neutral, sharing that they only enforce and do not create rules. But the TSO moves slower now, performing the pat-down with unnecessary thoroughness. The passenger runs to make the plane, careening through airport crowds while the TSO, still seething but amused that the passenger will probably miss the flight now, turns to face the next person in line. The passenger barely makes it, lucky to gain admittance as they were past the airline's boarding deadline. Instead of acting grateful, however, the passenger scans packed overhead bins and doesn't see a single available space. While trying to cram a duffel bag into an overfull bin, a flight attendant says the bag must be checked. The passenger laments that it is unfair since security caused the delay and tells the flight attendant to stop being such a “bitch” and just help already. The flight attendant keeps a placid grin plastered on and explains how it would be less fair to move the luggage of people who arrived on time. It's the fifth passenger meltdown today, and there are still two more legs before the flight attendant is off work. It's no wonder that a Jet Blue flight attendant lost it a few years ago and, after a profanity-laced rant over the PA system, grabbed a beer and exited the plane via an inflatable ramp (Newman & Rivera, 2010)!

In this mini case study, inspired by past research about airport security (Malvini Redden, 2013), it's easy to see how emotion influences communication at many levels, and is shaped by organizational and institutional structures. For passengers, emotional management is informed by personal experiences of airport security and air travel, as well as macro-level discourses like news about security. Likewise, the airport context is surrounded by broad social Discourses about terrorism and how airport security is meant to ensure national safety. Furthermore, the

reality of flying involves significant anxiety and embodied time pressures. When passengers are primed to be unsettled, it's not surprising that security lines provoke further negative feelings and upsets.

Think about the downstream effects of interactions described in the case. Will the emotion cycle co-created in security promote many positive emotions? How will the passenger treat fellow travelers on the airplane or interact with flight attendants who might issue more directions that seem “unfair”? How will the TSO cope passenger ranting? Will the officer seek social support from coworkers? If so, will those conversations involve excessive co-rumination that will just make the situation feel worse? Or, perhaps their talk will contribute to negative discourses about passengers who “check their brains with their baggage.” What if the passenger complained to the TSO’s manager who, unbeknownst to the passenger, is an emotionally abusive bully? If the interaction had been racially charged, would the passenger or TSO perhaps feel singled out because of ethnicity? Now think about the organizational structures and processes that shape security interactions—the requisite emotional performances for TSOs and the processes purposefully meant to provoke anxiety in passengers (Malvini Redden, 2013). Certainly, these organizational processes constrain agency for patrons and employees alike.

CHAPTER 19
Technology and Organizational Communication
(pp. 370-389)

Keri K. Stephens and Kerk F. Kee

Abstract

This chapter is organized as follows. First, we provide an overview of the three foundational perspectives on understanding ICTs' use in organizational life. Second, we discuss organizational communication research in understanding the adoption and diffusion of ICTs into organizational practices at the individual and organizational levels. Third, we explore the various ways scholars have studied communication with and through ICTs in organizational processes. Fourth, we examine how cultures manifest in the integration of ICTs into organizational life. Finally, we conclude with a reflection of the ways organizational communication scholarship and ICTs help us answer the three central questions of communication, organization, and the communication-organization spiral guiding this book.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

- Barley, S. R., Myers, D. E., & Grodal, S. (2011). E-mail as a source and symbol of stress. *Organization Science*, 22, 887-906.
A thought-provoking look at how we blame email for our stress.
- Berkelaar, B. L. (2014). Cybervetting, online information, and personnel selection: New transparency expectations and the emergence of a digital social contract. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 28, 479-506.
Rich study examining the process of cybervetting—snooping online about employees.
- DeSanctis, G., & Fulk, J.L. (1994). *Shaping Organization Form: Communication, Connection, and Community*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Fulk, J. L., & Steinfeld, C. (1990). *Organizations and Communication Technology (1990)* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
These books provide a grounding in organizational communication and technology.
- Stephens, K. K., Waters, E. D., & Sinclair, C. (2014). Media management: The integration of HR, technology, and people. In M. E. Gordon, & V. D. Miller (Eds). *Meeting the challenge of human resource management: A communication perspective* (pp. 215-226). New York: Routledge.
An accessible chapter that focuses on human resources and contemporary technology.
- Stephens, K. K., & Mandhana, D. M. (2017). Media richness and choice theories in organizations. In C. R. Scott & L. K. Lewis (Eds). *The International Encyclopedia of Organizational Communication* (pp. 1506-1519), Chichester, NY: Wiley Blackwell.
This encyclopedia entry provides an accessible look at how the foundational theories have changed over time.

Concepts with Definitions

- Adoption** – the individual decision to accept, reject, or discontinue an innovation in an organizational context.
- Affordances** – material features that individuals and groups can choose to use to accomplish relational communication objectives.
- Big Data** – the phenomena where digital data (with characteristics of volume, variety, velocity, veracity, and value) are produced and recorded, cumulating to a large volume that can be harnessed for insights and analytics.
- BYOD** – Bring Your Own Device, is the emerging norm (and policy) that some employees, and information technology departments, expect people to provide and use their own communication devices for work and personal life.
- Channels** – the medium through which a message is communicated.
- Combinatorial ICT use** – a mix of information and communication technologies used either sequentially and/or simultaneously.
- Cyberinfrastructure** – an interwoven collection of ICTs, specialized software, computing hardware, remote instruments, big data, high speed networks, virtual processes, organizational policies, and human experts.
- Diffusion** – the systemic phenomenon of the spreading of a new technology as it integrates within organizational life.
- Enterprise Social Media** – platforms designed to facilitate employee-generated-content within an organization for internal socialization, information sharing, collaboration, networking, etc.
- Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs)** – technologies that afford information access and sharing, along with communication exchanges.
- Materiality** – the physical and digital dimensions of technologies, often understood as features of technologies, but can be more broadly understood.
- Mobile Devices** – portable communication tools—e.g., cell phones
- Multicommunicating** – a theoretically derived term describing what happens when people use technology to carry on multiple conversations simultaneously.
- Networks** – relations among various types of actors that illustrate the ways in which messages are transmitted, exchanged, or interpreted.
- Online (Social) Movements** – connections and interactions between persons beyond the confine of geographic locations to build an online community in order to gain and/or spread the awareness of the cause for social change.
- Social Media** – platforms designed to facilitate user-generated-content in general, usually at the societal and community level.
- Technology** – the tools, machines, software, instruments, and devices that enable and afford work to be accomplished by humans, and potentially by robots in the future (robots and artificial intelligent agents will be a part of the repertoire of future workplace technologies).

Also see Table 1 in the text for a list of the core theories

Discussion Questions

1. Skim the Internet for five minutes and identify the popular topics being discussed that are related to this chapter. Choose one topic and share how the research literature could help elevate and/or clarify this popular discourse.
2. Choose one theory in this chapter and apply it to your personal use of technology. If you can put it into an organizational context that will help with the application.
3. Now it is time to debate agency and technology use. Write a 1-2-paragraph argument for how you have agency in your use of communication technologies in organizational life. Next, write a 1-2 paragraph argument discussing the limits and tensions you face concerning agency. You might want to refer to Chapter 1 and examine the communication and organization spiral that is driven by agency.
4. Look through the references in this chapter and notice the variety of publication outlets where organizational communication and technology scholars publish. Identify the top 3-4 outlets and look up those journals online. How do you think scholars decide where to submit their research considering that this is such a multidisciplinary field?
5. In contrast to early management research, summarize and briefly describe the unique contributions by organizational communication researchers to the understanding of technology and organizing.
6. Given the metaphor of 'factory' to describe the phenomenon of 'big data,' how can classical management or a modified version of classical management guide the organizing processes around data? Discuss the advantages and/or disadvantages of the classical approach.
7. If you were teaching an undergraduate course in organizational communication and technology, what are the top five topics you would cover in the class?
8. If you were covering a unit on technology in an undergraduate organizational communication class, what are the three topics you would include?

Practitioners' Corner

As a practitioner, you probably find yourself interfacing with ICTs on a regular basis. Here we share two thought scenarios useful for you to consider outside of a specific situation. By using the material in this chapter to think through these scenarios (often with your team), you can be better prepared to address organizational issues that arise. Finally, we share some take-aways that invite you to consider that not all people in your organization have access or use ICTs in the same ways.

Scenario 1

You have been asked to evaluate a new ICT—e.g., an enterprise social media system or a big data analytics software—for organization-wide adoption. Consider evaluating it with the five innovation attributes of relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability. Discuss with your organizational decision makers about the likelihood of the ICT being fully adopted, implemented, and optimized by majority, if not all, of the members. Explore possible ways for reinventions to better fit the ICT to local problems and/or organizational culture.

Scenario 2

Many organizations are complaining about being overloaded with email today. Use media richness theory's four factors of feedback timeliness, multiple cues available for interpretation, language variety, and personal focus to rate and rank the ICTs available in your organizational life. Evaluate when to use which ICT for a given communication situation. Remember the two factors to consider: Is the request meant to answer a question, otherwise known as reducing certainty? Is the request complex enough that emotions will be involved and you will need to interact to determine how to respond, known as an equivocal task? Work with your team to design a 1-page guide of how you might establish rules to help you more effectively, and more meaningfully communicate through ICTs. Could these mutually agreed upon guidelines help you address email overload?

Take-away thoughts

When organizing a diverse group of collaborators (diverse in terms of occupations and job roles), design policies and encourage practices that strike a balance between being universal and being sensitive to cultural differences among occupational groups and/or individuals with different roles in the collective organizational life. Resist the desire to be overly universal at the detriment of becoming a barrier for some occupations and/or roles. Keep in mind that individuals, teams, occupations, and entire organizations vary in how they like to use ICTs to organize, collaborate, and share information. Finally, consider investigating the policies in your organization that encourage and discourage ICT use. Researchers are finding that these policies can marginalize some workers and that not only affect those individuals, but it can harm productivity as well (see Stephens & Ford, 2016 for an example).

CHAPTER 20
Globalization and Organizational Communication
(pp. 390-405)

Jennifer L. Gibbs and Shiv Ganesh

Abstract

Globalization has been defined as the increasing interconnectedness of the world in terms of four dimensions: extensity (expanding scale), intensity (growing magnitude), velocity (speeding up), and impact (deepening consequences) of interregional flows and patterns of social interaction (Held & McGrew, 2003). It is a process of “intensification of worldwide social relations and interactions such that distant events acquire localized impacts and vice versa” (Held & McGrew, 2007, p. 2). As such, globalization is fundamentally communicative and has important implications for organizational communication. Indeed, scholars of organizational communication have been studying global organizing processes for the past two decades, which have given rise to new global organizational forms such as global virtual teams, global social movements, and global network organizations. A unique feature of these new organizational forms is that they have no physical instantiation, such that they are entirely constituted through communication practices. Further, they allow for new forms of collective action and collaboration across time, space, and other boundaries.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

Ganesh, S., Zoller, H., & Cheney, G. (2005). Transforming resistance: Critical organizational communication meets globalization from below. *Communication Monographs*, 72, 169-191.

Makes the case for organizational communication research to study global social movements.

Giddens, A. (2003). *Runaway world: How globalization is reshaping our lives*. New York: Routledge.

Primer on globalization theory from a transformationalist perspective.

Held, D., McGrew, A., Goldblatt, D., & Perraton, J. (1999). *Global transformations: Politics, economics, and culture*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Provides a comprehensive overview of globalization theory and outlines the globalist, skeptic, and transformationalist views.

Held, D., & McGrew, A. (2007). *Globalization/anti-globalization: Beyond the great divide*. Malden, MA: Polity Press.

Provides a comparison of the globalist and skeptic views and challenges the skeptical view that globalization is over in a post/911 era.

Rooney, D., & Chavan, M. (2017). Globalization/internationalization. In Scott, C., & Lewis, L. (Eds.) *International encyclopedia of organizational communication* (pp. 1005-1020). New York: Blackwell.

Provides an overview of formal organizational dimensions of globalization.

Scholte, J. A. (2005). *Globalization: A critical introduction* (2nd ed). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Provides a comprehensive overview of the dimensions of globalization, arguing that supraterritoriality is its most defining feature.

Stohl, C. (2001). Globalizing organizational communication. In F. M. Jablin & L. L. Putnam (Eds.), *The new handbook of organizational communication* (pp. 323-375). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Provides the first comprehensive account of the state of research in globalization in organizational communication studies, drawing from a convergence/divergence dialectic.

Stohl, C., & Ganesh, S. (2014). Generating globalization. In L. L. Putnam & D. K. Mumby (Eds.) *The SAGE handbook of organizational communication* (3rd Ed.) (pp. 717-741). Los Angeles: Sage.

Categorizes research into three generations of globalization to show how conceptualizations and approaches have changed over time.

Concepts with Definitions

Axiological – value judgments or ethical implications regarding a topic of study

Eco-localism – engagement of local communities around solving global problems such as climate change or global market collapse

Epistemological – how something is studied and what phenomena and knowledge are considered

Globalist – perspective that regards globalization as a process of growing convergence or interconnectedness of the world

Globalization – growing interconnectedness of the world, intensification of social relations and interactions across temporal and geographical boundaries

Imperialism – commitment to one dominant viewpoint or perspective

Ontological – relating to the essence or nature of something and how it is defined

Particularistic – perspective that regards and studies global phenomena as embedded in particular local contexts

Pluralism – acknowledgement of multiple viewpoints or perspectives as equally valid

Skeptic – perspective that regards polarization and divergence as more characteristic of the current world order than global interconnectedness or convergence

Totalizing – perspective that regards globalization as a universal set of processes or phenomena that transcends particular local contexts

Transformationalist – perspective that regards globalization as characterized by both convergence and divergence processes and as fundamentally reshaping social relations and institutions

Discussion Questions

1. What are the key ontological, epistemological, and axiological tensions in research on globalization?
2. How have conceptualizations of globalization and its impacts changed over time?
3. How has organizational communication research approached the study of globalization at both micro and macro levels of analysis?
4. What is the value of taking a tensional approach to study globalization, in particular, and in research more broadly?
5. Think of a pressing global problem (e.g., climate change, economic inequality, social injustice, terrorism). How might an organizational communication scholar go about addressing this problem? What communicative phenomena, types of interaction, and stakeholders would you study?

Practitioner's Corner

Over the last ten to fifteen years, eco-local design has become a buzzword amongst practitioners in many fields, ranging from community planning and social movement organizers on one hand, to project managers and economic policy analysts on the other. The term ‘eco-localism’ was coined to draw attention to the need for local communities to engage in cohesive communication and planning around potential global environmental and economic challenges such as climate change or global market collapse (Ganesh and Zoller, 2014). The impact of climate change, for example, is likely to be entirely local in how it manifests, and local governance mechanisms have to be developed to develop mitigating projects on a host of fronts, ranging from new stormwater drains and flood protections to robust forms of civil defense and disaster preparedness.

There are many examples of eco-local design. The transition initiatives project, which attempts to help communities be resilient in the face of environmental and economic collapse is a fairly high profile one (see www.transitionus.org or www.transitionnetwork.org), but so are others like Ecolocal UK (www.ecolocal.org.uk), a social enterprise that creates products and services designed to help people and communities move to a more environmentally sustainable way of life. Have a look at these websites and pay particular attention to how the various tensions listed in this chapter might help your understanding of ecolocalism. For example, you will likely find both transformationalist and skeptical understandings of globalization coexisting in ecolocalism—on one hand ecolocalists believe that the global era is over, but on the other, they believe that a global localised approach is required to deal with global crises! Likewise, there are both foreground aspects to globalization as well as background aspects to globalization in eco-localism, inasmuch as eco-localists have to talk about globalization in some way to demonstrate the importance of their work, but at the same time, have to de-emphasize it in order to get people to think about and act upon these same issues in their everyday life.

Consider how the other tensions – totalizing versus particularistic, micro versus macro, good versus bad, and plural versus imperial – are evident in eco-localism. We have said in our chapter that all these tensions need to be held together rather than separately to enable good practice. Whether one is a community organizer, activist, policy maker, city planner or an elected official, designing appropriate forms of eco-local governance requires the ability to analyze the multiple and often contradictory dimensions of particular projects, and the template that we have presented here is helpful in this crucial analytical task that can enable appropriate eco-local design.

CHAPTER 21
Organizational Change
(pp. 406-423)

Laurie Lewis

Abstract

The term organizational change refers to processes involved in introducing new ideas into practice. Oftentimes, in defining change, scholars will refer to a disrupted period or altered state and thereby imply that what precedes change is stability or continuity. Organizational life—made up of specific practices, objects, or ways of doing—can be experienced as more stable. At other times, organizational life can be punctuated by points of change where routine activities appear to be disrupted. Change is a prominent process in organizational activity, whether it occurs in civic or religious organizations, governments, schools, or businesses. Engaging in change and attempts to bring change in organizations is often necessary in order to innovate, address injustices, remedy failing or poor practices, revitalize participant energy, maintain competitiveness, create variety, experiment, and adapt to environments. Further, organizations are embedded in multiple streams of processes and thus are enmeshed in change. Debates about how and what to change in organizations of every size, in every sector, every industry, and along a vast array of dimensions occupy a great deal of organizational discourse. Thus, both the nature of organizations and the discourse surrounding organizations tend to demand and reinforce cycles of change. During periods of change there is likely to be disruption of routines, rewards, expertise, status, security, familiarity, relationships, and physical surroundings, and increased demands on cognitive, physical, and emotional capacities. Individuals who participate in change programs and/or are dependent on the operation of organization, feel these disruptions and are active in processing and engaging in sensemaking about the change, its causes, its consequences, and the sponsors and detractors for it.

Recommended Supplementary Readings

- Kramer, M., Dougherty, D. S., and Pierce, T. A. (2004) Managing uncertainty during a corporate acquisition: A longitudinal study of communication during an airline acquisition. *Human Communication Research*, 30 (1), 71–101.
Excellent case study of a change during airline acquisition.
- Lewis, L. K., & Russ, T. (2012). Soliciting and using input during organizational change initiatives: What are practitioners doing? *Management Communication Quarterly*, 26 (2), 267-294.
Details how organizations solicit input, use input, and defensively ignore or suppress input.
- Scott, C. R., Lewis, L. K., & D’Urso, S. C. (2010). Getting on the “E” list: Email list use in a community of service provider organizations for people experiencing homelessness. In L. Shedletsky & J. E. Aitken (Eds.), *Cases on online discussion and interaction: Experiences and outcomes* (pp. 334-350). Hershey, PA: IGI-Global.
Case study for a network-wide organizational change using email lists.

Scott, C. R., Lewis, L. K., Davis, J. D., & D'Urso, S. C. (2009). Finding a home for communication technologies. In J. Keyton & P. Shockley-Zalabak (Eds.), *Case studies for organizational communication: Understanding communication processes* (2nd ed., pp. 83-88). New York: Oxford University.

Case study for network-wide organizational change.

Zorn, T. E., Christensen, L. T., & Cheney, G. (1999). *Do we really want constant change?* San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.

Excellent argument drawing attention to the costs of the "fashion" of constant organizational change.

Concepts with Definitions

Faux Voice – involves providing channels for stakeholders to vent or deposit concerns and questions without having ability to influence the change initiative in any serious way

Implementation – Translation of any tool or technique, process, or method of doing, from knowledge to practice

Input Solicitation – Activities that constitute input solicitation include, asking for opinions, seeking feedback, requesting opinions and reactions to change

Managing Meaning of Change – actively shaping meaning and promoting a sense of what is going on or in manipulating others' sensemaking about change

Organizational Change – refers to processes involved in introducing new ideas into practice

Stakeholder – Those who have a stake in an organization's process or outputs.

Uncertainty – a lack of information and/or confusion related to many available possible interpretations of events.

Discussion Questions

1. Is it a healthy thing to frequently make change in organizations?
2. What are the significant costs to frequently changing organizations?
3. Which matters most during organizational change; the implementers' communication or that of other stakeholders?
4. How can stories about an organizational change make a difference in how the process unfolds and the outcomes that are achieved?

Practitioners' Corner

When faced with the task of implementing an organizational change any manager will come to a point where s/he will need to decide how to go about announcing the change to employees and other audiences; introducing new expectations for activity, workflow, policy, and work practice; retiring previous processes, practices, policies, and procedures; addressing questions raised about how the new change will impact personnel evaluations and alterations in goals, plans, and priorities among myriad other possible topics; and evaluating the process and outcomes of the change.

In light of the challenges involved in change implementation, managers and leaders should be thorough and thoughtful in making plans for the introduction and roll-out of change. Leaders may feel that they know their own organizations, environments, and change projects well enough that they can be successful without devoting significant time to making a plan. Experienced leaders may be tempted to either “wing it” or to repeatedly use the same plan they’ve used before. Let’s first examine each of these alternatives to engaging in specific planning for an upcoming change.

Winging It

“Winging it” involves saving time by skipping deep analysis and planning and instead approaching change through experience and gut instinct. In other words, make it up as you go along. Unfortunately, skipping the analysis and planning process in this manner can set up a scenario where the leader becomes reactionary and reliant on long-held assumptions rather than being data- or analysis-driven in their process. The “winging it” strategy can result in delay of proactive actions that might forestall problems in favor of focusing on catching problems before they become too toxic. Further, this approach may present an image to stakeholders that the implementation process as unplanned and reactionary.

Repeating an Old Plan

A second alternative to detailed analysis and planning relies on repeating what has worked in the past. Some leaders may wish to but do so in a way that mimics past change rollouts without much reflection on needs or circumstances unique to the current change initiative. These leaders work from a framework for change that serves as default strategy. If something appeared to work before, the temptation to repeat it is very strong. The flaw in the “default template” method of implementation is missing that every change initiative is unique in terms of the ways that it fits the context, the organization, the stream of work, the initial and ongoing reactions of key stakeholders, and the degree to which resources for implementation support are available.

Qualities of Effective Planning Process

Effectiveness and efficiency in strategically preparing for implementation of change involves two stages: Analysis and Planning. In the first phase, leaders must assemble knowledge and data about the context of the change, the change itself, the stakeholders who are relevant to the change process, and the resources and goals of the organization. In the second phase, leaders need to develop strategies and tactics to implement change in a context of existing priorities and goals for the change and the organization. Effective implementation planning should be data-driven, diversified, reflective, and recursive.

Data-driven. When planning change implementation leaders need to be able to escape their own biases and expectations. One of the best ways to do this is to draw from

credible sources of data that can help leaders to escape their own preferences for viewing their organizations, stakeholders, or history.

Diversified. In order to avoid groupthink and an unhealthy narrow analysis of how a change process may proceed, it is critical to have the input of participants who can represent different views and who have a good understanding of how different sets of goals, perspectives, values, experiences may come to influence the path of a change process.

Reflective. Being reflective requires leaders to consider challenging information and perspectives as plausible. Holding even problematic or questionable challenges to one's own view as plausible is the best check against dismissing a critical data point that might protect the interests of the organization.

Recursive. Fourth, one is never really done analyzing and planning. Leaders who are committed to a thoughtful and thorough planning process will continue to collect and analyze information—especially critical or disconfirming information—throughout an implementation process. Planning is not a “phase,” it is an activity.