

# DOWNLOAD PDF ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION PROCESSES CHANGE OR ELIMINATE THEM?

## Chapter 1 : Resistance To Change Is Normal. Reduce The Impact.

*Organizational socialization, often called employee onboarding, has become an essential process for cash-strapped small businesses that rely chiefly on a talented staff to grow profits.*

In the s, H. The oldest and strongest emotion of mankind is fear, and the oldest and strongest kind of fear is fear of the unknown This quote, said over 90 years ago, still holds true today when it comes to organizational change! Managing change has always been difficult and will always be fraught with danger because it is so easy to introduce change the wrong way. So the logical question to ask is if there is a perfect way to introduce and manage change. The answer is no. There is no universal solution which applies to all change programmes. Organisations are different, the reasons for change are different, timescales and budgets are different. Each change programme will have to be implemented on its own merits. But there are things we can do to reduce the level of resistance. Ways to reduce resistance to change: Delivering bad news is one of the biggest challenges managers face. Change management require a compelling change story “ communicating it to employees and following it up with ongoing communications and involvement. A little good diplomacy at the outset can stave off a lot of resistance. Work with their concerns or even rethink the proposed change. Change means a new way of doing things and most people are fearful of the unfamiliar. Provide assurances that there will be support and time to become familiar with the new change. It takes a while for people to adjust. It leaves you feeling like you might as well not have been there at all. It is much more powerful asking questions. Increase engagement by asking questions when leading change. Change is unsettling because it brings with it an element of uncertainty. People can relate to facts “ good or bad “ but uncertainty and contradicting messages breed unease and resistance. Therefore, it is important to communicate with everybody about everything in relation to the upcoming changes in order to reduce the uncertainty. Business leaders should start asking how can social media platforms help achieve business objectives beyond marketing: As a leader, you cannot eliminate fear, abolish uncertainty or avoid the prospect of change for your company. But you can leverage these emotional navigational stakes to your greatest advantage by telling a purposeful story. Otherwise it can be so overwhelming that solutions seem unattainable “ therefore, people often avoid tackling them or come up with single, grand programs that fail. Making a change for the purpose of shaking things up makes it more difficult to get acceptance of necessary changes. Save your energy for more important changes. If you enjoyed this article, please take 5 seconds to share it on your social network.

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## Chapter 2 : Organizational Culture

*of individual and situational factors affecting the socialization of newcomers into organizations. Learning Theory and Socialization Typically, organizations consider the socialization process a success if the individual conforms to the organization's.*

Socialization most occurs with things around work, less so with private affairs. Most have not investigated changes in knowledge, changes in behavior, and changes in attitudes, beliefs, and personal values. Most empiricists look at things like job satisfaction, motivation, involvement, etc. Some look at commitment, or reduce role ambiguity. Another measure might be the acceptance from other insiders. Effects of Socialization Complete conformity might reduce creativity. Graen notes that individuals enact organizational roles based on what they think they are supposed to do, what they prefer to do, and what they know how to do. Stage Models Stage One Often called "anticipatory socialization" is the "degree to which an individual is prepared-prior to entry- to occupy organizational positions". This includes occupational choice, selection, and any preentry socialization or assimilation. It's the most crucial for effective socialization. Expectations are met or not met, ambiguity and conflict are encountered, self and organizational evaluations of performance are compared. They give up their view from their old role and adopt a new role. They learn to handle conflicts within and external to the organization, setting into new attitudes, values congruent with the organization. Must theorizing, few attempts to test it. Research Supporting Stage Models Graen's work showed that clerical workers that learning new tasks, becoming accepted, and asking questions decreased over time, but dealing with conflict increased over time. Feldman found that people who passed through his three stages had more influence and job satisfaction. Conclusions and Suggestions for Research Support for Stage models is mixed. There is not evidence for distinct stages for everybody. Also newcomers get rising expectations as they progress through their work. Anticipatory Socialization Many studies focus on expectations or beliefs on what work will be like. This includes things like working hours, supervision, type of work, promotion availability, etc. Other focus on values, orientations, or on the occupation in particular. Most of the socialization is learning of expectations. Selection Groups tend to select people that will be more easily socialized. After accepting the offer things like a new self-identity and commitment begin to form. Some may inflate their expectations due to post-decision dissonance. They get their pre-information from friends, family, and schools as well as the organization. Thus the "realistic job preview" has been given emphasis, though it might not address all the issues one has prior to entering an organization. Also, many expectations are tacit and only emerge after one is in the organization for a while. In-Role Socialization Why do newcomers change their behavior in an organization? Anxiety Many individuals are motivated to reduce the unpleasant state of tension by learning their way around in the new setting. But no studies actually measured anxiety or stress on the job. Efficacy Bandura has written how self-efficacy expectations are an important belief that one can master a situation. He stated that "expectations of personal efficacy determine whether coping behavior will be initiated, how much effort will be expended, and how long it will be sustained in the face of obstacles and aversive experiences" Bandura, , p. Newcomers with low efficacy beliefs may isolate themselves or use other defensive strategies that inhibit learning. But high-efficacy may try to revolutionize the organization rather than adapt themselves to it. Allowing others to see successful action may help self-efficacy. Choice The "rational choice" effect may cause people who believe they personally made the choice to have high motivation to succeed. Van Maanen said that "the outcomes of the organizational socialization process are determined largely by the organization's ability to select and utilize methods which communicate to the participants -- in a clear and precise-manner -- what relevant role behaviors will lead to the available valued rewards" p. Latane states that social influence is partly a function of strength and immediacy, and number. Investments Often newcomers "stick it out" with the belief that it will be better after the initial adjustment period. Investment in a career is correlated with commitment. Personality Self-esteem seems to affect modeling, with people having low self-esteem more

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likely to copy others. People with high self-esteem seem to rely on their own resources in an unfamiliar setting. Evan investigated the effects of individual vs collective socialization in the context of adaptation in an engineering co-op program. Engineers who were placed in groups with more than one peer did have reduce anxiety and reduced turnover. Thus speed and adequacy of learning may be reduced for collective socialization modes. This may be one area that can be explored in the laboratory. Role Dimensions Desirability of the role and free choice of role are also important. Some roles are valued by individuals and society differently. Role clarity and level of performance demand also impact socialization. Changing to similar roles also speeds adjustment. Feldman and Brett found that getting help and seeking information were favored as the most favorable coping strategies for new employees. The affective relationship becomes important as well. Selection of Agents Sometimes newcomers can select their own agents. Often this is based on reward power. Sometimes it is similarity of role. Availability is important too. Peers Peers often hold influence because of their ability to give "insider information". They are present much of the time, and can monitor and reinforce newcomer behavior more frequently. There are usually more peers than superiors. How much they influence probably depends on how important the newcomer is in their own work. Superior The path-goal model suggests that if the situation is ambiguous to the subordinate, the leader should clarify. The leader should also try to remove roadblocks to performance and increase the satisfaction subordinates receive from performance. IF the task and contingencies are clear, the leader should refrain from redundant structuring behavior. Conclusion The study of socialization seems to be moving toward seeing the newcomer as an active problem solver and agent of his or her own socialization. Additional work on the selection of agents may be important. Research on how individual differences in both disposition and beliefs affect newcomer reactions to socialization pressures and actions in self-socialization is needed. Some areas do not need further research. Anticipatory socialization is well studied. Stages of socialization is done except maybe by ethnographic means. More focus on behavior change during socialization may be helpful, as would analysis of individual and subgroup change patterns over time.

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## Chapter 3 : The Changing Nature of Organizations, Work, and Workplace | WBDG Whole Building Design

*Occurs during the encounter phase of organizational socialization - helps employees to integrate, assimilate, and transition into new jobs by making them familiar with corporate policies, procedures, culture, and politics.*

Additional Resources Imagine you went to sleep and woke up to a work day in How different is your work life today, compared to what it was 40 years ago? Clearly, there would not be a Starbucks on every corner or a cell phone in every pocket—but what else has changed and why? This Resource Page explores the changing nature of organizations and work, the drivers behind the changes, and the consequences for workers and the workplace. The Key Drivers for Changing Nature of Work Although many factors ultimately contribute to the changing patterns of work, organizational theorists point to two key drivers: Increasing pressures on organizations to be more competitive, agile, and customer focused—to be a "lean enterprise. Changes in Organizational Focus: What does it Mean to be Lean? The Lean Enterprise model was introduced to the world by Toyota in the s. Since then, it has fueled changes in organizations across the globe, particularly—but not exclusively—in manufacturing and product development. The key principles of Lean Enterprise or "lean thinking", as it is sometimes called are: Identify internal activities and processes that add value for the customer and identify linkages between them the "value chain". Eliminate non-value added activities or "waste" across the organization. Reduce waste and inefficiencies in support e. The lean enterprise principles enabled many organizations to respond more rapidly to the marketplace by reducing cycle time, developing mass customization processes, and supporting continual change and innovation. Creating the Lean Machine: Changes in Organizational Structure and Relationships Adopting lean principles and lean thinking has led to numerous changes in organizational structure to improve the efficiency of internal processes, with a goal of eliminating waste and defining customer value. These changes have been supported and enabled by transformations in information and communications technology, especially the Internet and mobile computing and communication devices. Key organizational changes include: Reduced hierarchical structure—Hierarchies are cumbersome and cannot respond quickly to changing market demands, such as pressures for reduced cycle time and continuous innovation. Hierarchies are being replaced by cross unit organizational groupings with fewer layers and more decentralized decision making. Blurred boundaries—As organizations become more laterally structured, boundaries begin to breakdown as different parts of the organization need to work more effectively together. Boundaries between departments as well as between job categories manager, professional, technical become looser and there is a greater need for task and knowledge sharing. Teams as basic building blocks—The move toward a team-based organizational structure results from pressures to make rapid decisions, to reduce inefficiencies, and to continually improve work processes. New management perspective—Workers are no longer managed to comply with rules and orders, but rather to be committed to organizational goals and mission. The blurring of boundaries also affects organizational roles. As employees gain more decision authority and latitude, managers become more social supporters and coaches rather than commanders. Continuous change—Organizations are expected to continue the cycles of reflection and reorganization. However, changes may be both large and small and are likely to be interspersed with periods of stability. Kling and Zmuidzinas identify three types of change—"metamorphosis" far reaching, fundamental change, "migration" shifts toward a new form, and "elaboration" changes that enhance some aspect of work. How Work is Changing for Individuals and Groups Over the past two decades, a new pattern of work is emerging as the knowledge economy realizes the full potential of both new technologies and new organizational models. The changes fall into the following domains: Cognitive competence The new "psychological contract" between employees and employers Changes in process and place Although these domains are discussed separately, they overlap. We briefly discuss the overlaps, where they exist, and point to the benefits and concerns the new work patterns present for workers and managers. Cognitive Competence Cognitive workers are expected to be more functionally and cognitively fluid and able to work across many

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kinds of tasks and situations. The broader span of work, brought about by changes in organizational structure, also creates new demands, including: Increased complexity of work—Workers need to know more, not only to do their jobs and tasks, but also to work effectively with others on teams. Many knowledge-based tasks require sound analytical and judgment skills to carry out work that is more novel, extemporaneous, and context based, with few rules and structured ways of working. Although demand for high cognitive skills are especially prominent in professional, technical, and managerial jobs, even administrative tasks require more independent decision making and operational decision making. Continuous competency development—Not only do workers need to keep their technology skills up to date, they need to be continuous learners in their knowledge fields and to also be more conversant with business strategy. Time to read and attend training classes is no longer a perquisite of only a few, it is essential for all workers. Different ways of thinking—Rosabeth Kantor argues that cross-functional and cross boundary teams require "kaleidoscope thinking," the ability to see alternative angles and perspectives and to create new patterns of thinking that propel innovation. Workers also need to be able to synthesize disparate ideas in order to make the cognitive leaps that underlie innovation. The Cost of Complexity Vastly increased access to information has made work both easier and more difficult. The ease comes from ability to rapidly locate and download information from diverse web sites. The difficulty comes with the need to consume and make sense of new information in a timely fashion. Information overload, coupled with time pressures and increased work complexity, lead to what psychologists call "cognitive overload syndrome COS. Social and Interactive Competence In a report on the changing nature of work, the National Research Council called attention to the importance of relational and interactive aspects of work. As collaboration and collective activity become more prevalent, workers need well-developed social skills—what the report calls "emotional labor. Team work and collaboration—Conflict resolution and negotiation skills are essential to collaborative work. Conflicts often occur about group goals, work methods, assignments, workloads, and recognition. Team members with good conflict and negotiation skills are better equipped to deal openly with problems, to listen and understand different perspectives, and to resolve issues in mutually beneficial ways. Relationship development and networking—Sharing important information, fulfilling promises, willingness to be influenced, and listening are building blocks of reciprocity and the development of trust. When workers trust one another, they are more committed to attaining mutual goals, more likely to help one another through difficulties, and more willing to share and develop new ideas. Learning and growth—Many organizations strive to be learning centers—to create conditions in which employees learn not only through formal training but through relationships with coworkers. Learning relationships build on joint problem solving, insight sharing, learning from mistakes, and working closely together to aid transmission of tacit knowledge. Learning also develops from mentoring relationships between newcomers and those with experience and organizational know-how. The Costs of Collaborative Environments In a collaborative work setting, the fate of individuals is inextricably bound to collective success. Collaboration and relationship development also take time and effort. For those workers recognized as both knowledgeable and approachable, the demands of interaction may be especially high. The New Psychological Contract As work changes, so does the nature of the relationships between employees and employers. In contrast, the old psychological contract was all about job security and steady advancement within the firm. As already discussed, few workers expect, or desire, lifelong employment in a single firm. As job security declines, many management scientists see clouds on the horizon, including: These new individuals are invested in "psychological self determination. Reduced loyalty and commitment—With little expectation for advancement, workers feel less committed to organizational goals and more committed to their own learning and development. The knowledge and technological skills that employees bring with them to the workplace are transportable and are not lost when a new job is taken. Increased time burdens—Years of downsizing and outsourcing have produced what Lesie Perlow calls a "time famine"—the feeling of having too much to do and too little time to do it. In order to keep up with workloads, many workers are spending longer hours at work, according to reports by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Center for Workforce

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Development. Those with flex hours have limited freedom regarding when and where to work. The vast majority of workers have to commit to a specific day to work at home or a specific day to take off if they work fourhour days. The Changing Workplace The changing workplace is driven by the organizational issues described above and enabled by technologies that support mobility and easy access to information. These pressures and opportunities, however, have not resulted in a specific new workplace model. Many models and ideas exist concurrently, with designs depending upon the organization, its work practices, culture, and customers. Table 1 highlights key drivers, solutions, and potential issues raised by the solution.

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### Chapter 4 : Example of Organizational Socialization | [www.nxgvision.com](http://www.nxgvision.com)

A. *Organizational activities, processes, or outcomes* 22) *On her first day of work for ABC Company, Justine attended a full day session with other new employees to learn about company policies and procedures.*

To remain competitive in the marketplace, a business must have the flexibility to respond to the changing demands of a changing economy. Emerging industries and technological advancements frequently dictate new directions for economic growth. Additionally, the expansion of the consumer marketplace, via the Internet, means more competition for manufacturers and the necessity for businesses to be responsive to new markets largely driven by consumer preferences. Why Employees Resist Change Change can make employees uncomfortable because it represents the unknown. While some workers are able to tap into a sense of adventure and embrace change, others who have found their niches in an organization are upset by the uncertainties that loom outside their comfort zones. Some might worry that the changes in store will threaten the positions they have worked hard to attain. Others might be concerned that the proposed changes reflect problems with their past work performance. By familiarizing apprehensive employees with those aspects of the change process that will affect them the most, managers can turn nervous energy into proactive energy. Reverse Goal Chaining Before beginning the process of change, managers should clarify for employees the key components of the process. One method for doing this is the "reverse goal chaining" technique. First, the manager clarifies the problem or impetus behind organizational changes. Then, she describes the solution, or goal of the process, inviting employee comment and agreement that the solution is desirable. Finally, the manager would ask employees to discuss the steps it would take to progress from the current workplace conditions to the final goal of the change process. By both breaking the proposed change into a step-by-step process and inviting workers to invest their creativity and knowledge into driving the change, the savvy manager can eliminate much of the natural resistance to change. Coaching for Change Individual coaching might be necessary to get more people to invest in change. A good coach-manager will ask questions of a person that helps him identify his resistance to change and access inner resources to help overcome it. Questions such as "How much of this situation do you feel is within your control? Then, such questions as "What would have to happen for you to feel more in control of the change process? Peer Mentoring Some employees resist organizational change by opting out. Rather than contributing to the process, they procrastinate, miss deadlines, or avoid work altogether. For these people, establishing a peer mentor program in the workplace can keep them on course. By working side by side with a peer who can encourage, clarify, and keep pace with the change process, a worker who might otherwise feel left behind when a business moves forward can be involved and engaged.

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### Chapter 5 : 3 Organizational Culture | Enhancing Organizational Performance | The National Academies P

78) *The second phase of the organizational socialization process is change and acquiescence. FALSE The encounter phase is the second phase of the socialization process that begins when the employment contract has been signed.*

Researchers have separated these factors into three broad categories: New employee behaviors refer to the specific actions carried out by newcomers as they take an active role in the socialization process. Finally, organizational efforts help facilitate the process of acclimating a new worker to an establishment through activities such as orientation or mentoring programs. New employee characteristics[ edit ] Research has shown evidence that employees with certain personality traits and experiences adjust to an organization more quickly. This type of personality predisposes some workers to engage in behaviors such as information seeking that accelerate the socialization process, thus helping them to adapt more efficiently and become high-functioning organizational members. Specifically, new employees who are proactive or particularly open to experience are more likely to seek out information, feedback, acceptance, and relationships with co-workers. They also exhibit higher levels of adjustment and tend to frame events more positively. This is because seasoned employees can draw from past experiences to help them adjust to their new work settings and therefore may be less affected by specific socialization efforts because they have a better understanding of their own needs and requirements at work. Newcomers can also quicken the speed of their adjustment by demonstrating behaviors that assist them in clarifying expectations, learning organizational values and norms, and gaining social acceptance. Miller and Jablin report what new hires look for: By actively seeking information, employees can effectively reduce uncertainties about their new jobs and organizations and make sense of their new working environments. Specifically, feedback seeking refers to new employee efforts to gauge how to behave in their new organization. A new employee may ask co-workers or superiors for feedback on how well he or she is performing certain job tasks or whether certain behaviors are appropriate in the social and political context of the organization. In seeking constructive criticism about their actions, new employees learn what kinds of behaviors are expected, accepted, or frowned upon within the company or work group, and when they incorporate this feedback and adjust their behavior accordingly, they begin to blend seamlessly into the organization. This can be achieved informally through simply talking to their new peers during a coffee break or through more formal means such as taking part in pre-arranged company events. Research has shown relationship building to be a key part of the onboarding process, leading to outcomes such as greater job satisfaction and better job performance , [3] as well as decreased stress. Please help improve this section by adding citations to reliable sources. Unsourced material may be challenged and removed. The way in which a message is delivered affects how supervisors develop relationships and feelings about employees. When developing a relationship evaluating personal reputation, delivery style, and message content all played important factors in the perceptions between supervisors and employees. Yet, when supervisors were assessing work competence they primarily focused on the content of what they were discussing or the message. Creating interpersonal, professional relationships between employees and supervisors in organizations helps foster productive working relationships. Tactics[ edit ] Organizations invest a great amount of time and resources into the training and orientation of new company hires. Organizations differ in the variety of socialization activities they offer in order to integrate productive new workers. Possible activities include socialization tactics, formal orientation programs, recruitment strategies, and mentorship opportunities. Organizations either favor a systematic approach to socialization, or a "sink or swim" approach- in which new employees are challenged to figure out existing norms and company expectations without guidance. Schein have identified six major tactical dimensions that characterize and represent all of the ways in which organizations may differ in their approaches to socialization. Individual socialization[ edit ] Collective socialization is the process of taking a group of new hires, and giving them the same training. Examples of this include: Individual socialization allows newcomers to experience unique training, separate from others. Examples of this process

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include but are not limited to: Informal socialization Formal socialization refers to when newcomers are trained separately from current employees within the organization. These practices single out newcomers, or completely segregate them from the other employees. Formal socialization is witnessed in programs such as police academies, internships, and apprenticeships. Informal socialization processes involve little to no effort to distinguish the two groups. Informal tactics provide a less intimidating environment for recruits to learn their new roles via trial and error. Examples of informal socialization include on-the-job training assignments, apprenticeship programs with no clearly defined role, and using a situational approach in which a newcomer is placed into a work group with no recruit role. Random socialization Sequential socialization refers to the degree to which an organization provides identifiable steps for newcomers to follow during the onboarding process. Random socialization occurs when the sequence of steps leading to the targeted role are unknown, and the progression of socialization is ambiguous; for example, while there are numerous steps or stages leading to specific organizational roles, there is no specific order in which the steps should be taken. Variable socialization This dimension refers to whether or not the organization provides a timetable to complete socialization. Fixed socialization provides a new hire with the exact knowledge of the time it will take to complete a given passage. For instance, some management trainees can be put on "fast tracks," where they are required to accept assignments on an annual basis, despite their own preferences. Variable techniques allow newcomers to complete the onboarding process when they feel comfortable in their position. This type of socialization is commonly associated with up-and-coming careers in business organizations; this is due to several uncontrollable factors such as the state of the economy or turnover rates which determine whether a given newcomer will be promoted to a higher level or not. Disjunctive socialization A serial socialization process refers to experienced members of the organization mentoring newcomers. One example of serial socialization would be a first-year police officer being assigned patrol duties with an officer who has been in law enforcement for a lengthy period of time. Disjunctive socialization, in contrast, refers to when newcomers do not follow the guidelines of their predecessors; no mentors are assigned to inform new recruits on how to fulfill their duties. Divestiture socialization This tactic refers to the degree to which a socialization process either confirms or denies the personal identities of the new employees. Investiture socialization processes document what positive characteristics newcomers bring to the organization. When using this socialization process, the organization makes use of their preexisting skills, values, and attitudes. Divestiture socialization is a process that organizations use to reject and remove the importance of personal characteristics a new hire has; this is meant to assimilate them with the values of the workplace. Many organizations require newcomers to sever previous ties, and forget old habits in order to create a new self-image based upon new assumptions. Companies that use institutionalized socialization tactics implement step-by-step programs, have group orientations, and implement mentor programs. One example of an organization using institutionalized tactics include incoming freshmen at universities, who may attend orientation weekends before beginning classes. Other organizations use individualized socialization tactics, in which the new employee immediately starts working on his or her new position and figures out company norms, values, and expectations along the way. In this orientation system, individuals must play a more proactive role in seeking out information and initiating work relationships. Formal orientation programs consist of lectures, videotapes, and written material. More recent approaches, such as computer-based orientations and Internets, have been used by organizations to standardize training programs across branch locations. By providing a realistic job preview of what life inside the organization is like, companies can weed out potential employees who are clearly a misfit to an organization; individuals can identify which employment agencies are the most suitable match for their own personal values, goals, and expectations. Research has shown that new employees who receive a great amount of information about the job prior to being socialized tend to adjust better. Mentorship[ edit ] Mentorship has demonstrated importance in the socialization of new employees. Mentors can help newcomers better manage their expectations and feel comfortable with their new environment through advice-giving and social support. Literature has also suggested the importance of demographic matching between organizational mentors and

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mentees. One of the goals of an onboarding process is to aid newcomers in reducing uncertainty, making it easier for them to get their jobs done correctly and efficiently. A strong onboarding program produces employees who are especially productive; they have a better understanding of what is expected of them. Organizations benefit from increasing role clarity for a new employee. Not only does role clarity imply greater productivity, but it has also been linked to both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Employees who feel they can get the job done fare better than those who feel overwhelmed in their new positions; research has found that job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover are all correlated with feelings of self-efficacy. One includes having clear expectations of employees, with consequences for failing to meet the requirements. Management can also offer programs to enhance self-efficacy by emphasizing the ability of employees to use their existing tools and skills to solve problems and complete tasks. Individuals who are hired with an expected long-term position are more likely to work toward fitting in with the main group, avoiding major conflicts. Employees who are expected to work in the short-term often are less invested in maintaining harmony with peers. This impacts the level of acceptance from existing employee groups, depending on the future job prospects of the new hire and their willingness to fit in. If an individual with a marginalized identity feels as if they are not accepted, they will suffer negative consequences. It has been shown that when LGBT employees conceal their identities at work they are a higher risk for mental health problems, as well as physical illness. For example, some organizations may have very strict, yet unspoken, rules of how interactions with superiors should be conducted or whether overtime hours are the norm and an expectation. Overall, knowledge of organizational culture has been linked to increased satisfaction and commitment, as well as decreased turnover. This translates into strong monetary gains for organizations. As research has demonstrated, individuals who are satisfied with their jobs and show organizational commitment are likely to perform better and have lower turnover rates. With the onboarding process, there can be short term and long term outcomes. Short term outcomes include: Self-efficacy is the confidence a new employee has when going into a new job. Role clarity is the expectation and knowledge they have about the position. Social integration is the new relationships they form, and how comfortable they are in those relationships, once they have secured that position. Long term outcomes consist of organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. How satisfied the employee is after onboarding, can either help the company, or prevent it from succeeding. Jones and Allen and Meyer found that socialization tactics were related to commitment, but negatively correlated to role clarity. In some cases, organizations desire a certain level of person-organizational misfit in order to achieve outcomes via innovative behaviors. Additionally, socialization researchers have had major concerns over the length of time that it takes newcomers to adjust. There has been great difficulty determining the role that time plays, but once the length of the adjustment is determined, organizations can make appropriate recommendations regarding what matters most in various stages of the adjustment process. While these sessions have been found to be formal and ritualistic, studies have found them unpleasant or traumatic. It involves acquiring, accommodating, assimilating and accelerating new executives. It may be difficult for those individuals to uncover personal, organizational, and role risks in complicated situations when they lack formal onboarding assistance. This type of communication makes the development and maintenance of social relationships with other group members difficult to accomplish, and weaken organizational commitment. Another example is WikiProjects, the task-oriented group in Wikipedia, rarely use institutional socialization tactics to socialize new members who join them, [68] as they rarely assign the new member a mentor or provide clear guidelines. A third example is the socialization of newcomers to the Python open-source software development community. Recommendations for practitioners[ edit ] Scholars at MIT Sloan, suggest that practitioners should seek to design an onboarding strategy that takes individual newcomer characteristics into consideration and encourages proactive behaviors, such as information seeking, that help facilitate the development of role clarity, self-efficacy, social acceptance, and knowledge of organizational culture. Research has consistently shown that doing so produces valuable outcomes such as high job satisfaction the extent to which one enjoys the nature of his or her work, organizational commitment

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the connection one feels to an organization , and job performance in employees, as well as lower turnover rates and decreased intent to quit. Though it initially appears to be less expensive for a company to use a standard computer-based orientation programs, research has demonstrated that employees learn more about their roles and company culture through face-to-face orientation.

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### Chapter 6 : The Processes of Organization and Management

*Van Maanen () said that "the outcomes of the organizational socialization process are determined largely by the organizations ability to select and utilize methods which communicate to the participants -- in a clear and precise-manner -- what relevant role behaviors will lead to the available valued rewards" p.*

Sounds trivial I know, but when you have long time employees who are comfortable with doing something in a particular way, say, using a piece of software for the last 10 years with updates of course, but not always, bringing in someone who isn't engrained in the culture may be the only way to move change along. Tim Kuppler Excellent point and often just changes in personnel can make a big difference but you can judge people incorrectly if the organization is not clear and aligned. The lack of clarity is impacting their behavior and performance since many are frustrated with the lack of a coordinated effort. Many of the nay-sayers and skeptics come on board as your greatest advocates when momentum builds and then the people that will not fit stand out even more visibly to their peers and not just the top leaders. If there is a big competence issue then make a change fast "very fast to build credibility. Norman Jentner I like your sensitivity to perhaps letting the wrong people go, inadvertently, Tim. That fresh blood may also, sometimes, need to be top leadership, for at least one of two issues I mention in my comment, above, and attempt to describe more clearly in my comment to Part 1 of this 2-part blog. I welcome your comments to that, Tim, as well, if you care to. Secondly, much of the time middle managers are ill-equipped to deal with changes psychologically and competence-wise. They need help in that regard. I want to add one more point here. Most successful change efforts have many of the steps running in parallel, and top managers need to be aware of how stressful and time consuming that can be as they will be called upon all too frequently to resolve conflicts, keep people motivated and negotiate with external stakeholders. Most importantly, if people do not do you in, resource scarcity will. The paradox is that change is most needed when resources are getting depleted but you need resources to effect quick change. So any change effort must plan for this- how do I carry this out in the face of adversity? Tim Kuppler Great points. Norman Jentner Tim, Your clarity is refreshing. And there can be two basic reasons why. The first reason is as you state: They have no clear culture change guide to follow. That is, they lack information. Your books are great anecdotes to this lack of information. The second reason is less informational and more psychological. I have attempted to describe this psychological phenomenon in my now revised comment to part 1 of this 2-part blog. This psychological phenomenon will relate most directly, and negatively sometimes, to your Step 8, above. I would welcome your review of and response to my revised comment in Part 1. I appreciate your feedback on this content and the book thank you for purchasing! Your analysis is pretty deep but I would be happy to discuss it further. Send me a note if you are interested and we can connect by phone. Thanks again for your feedback. The culture we all want is one that reflects the highest standards of all the good things like industriousness, openness, honesty, respect, performance, integrity, commitment, caring, cooperation, collaboration, motivation, morale, happiness, quality, safety, and the like. Most importantly, almost all will help to create such a culture. Now for the big question. Who lives in the culture every minute of every day and is better able to judge how good it is? The answer is not top management or mid-level management because they are not the ones living with it every minute and are not good judges. The answer is the working level people. The reason they are better judges is because they still use their gut to judge while most educated people erroneously think they can use their reasoning brain to figure out how good something is. So, in order to create the very best culture, management listens to employee complaints and suggestions and then responds to what was said in a timely and respectful manner to the satisfaction of the employees or better meaning to a higher standard. The more management does this, the more employees will object to anything not meeting the highest standards in any way. In so doing, management will have demonstrated the greatest respect for employees thus leading them to treat their work, their customers, each other, and their bosses with great respect. Once employees realize this will always be

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done, they realize that they can influence everything in the workplace. In the same way, a sense of ownership begets commitment. This is the culture that will vault any company to being best in its industry. Of course, management can decide that its job is to direct and control the workforce. In this way management will create a workplace characterized by disrespect and poor performance. Then management can blame employees when in truth management was the cause. I agree the much time is wasted on programs and silver bullets as well as lots of other things. Best regards, Ben [http:](http://) I really appreciated you. I t is helpful for organization Sounds trivial I know, but when you have long time employees who are comfortable with doing something in a particular way, say, using a piece of software for the last 10 years with updates of course, but not always , bringing in someone who isnt engrained in the culture may be the only way to move change along.

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## Chapter 7 : Onboarding - Wikipedia

*Transformational leaders are: proactive; works to change the organizational culture by implementing new ideas; motivates and empowers employees to achieve company's objectives by appealing to higher ideas and moral values (Bass, ).*

A unifying framework for thinking about processes “ or sequences of tasks and activities “ that provides an integrated, dynamic picture of organizations and managerial behavior. Many modern organizations are functional and hierarchical; they suffer from isolated departments, poor coordination, and limited lateral communication. All too often, work is fragmented and compartmentalized, and managers find it difficult to get things done. Scholars have faced similar problems in their research, struggling to describe organizational functioning in other than static, highly aggregated terms. In the broadest sense, they can be defined as collections of tasks and activities that together “ and only together “ transform inputs into outputs. Within organizations, these inputs and outputs can be as varied as materials, information, and people. Common examples of processes include new product development, order fulfillment, and customer service; less obvious but equally legitimate candidates are resource allocation and decision making. Over the years, there have been a number of process theories in the academic literature, but seldom has anyone reviewed them systematically or in an integrated way. Process theories have appeared in organization theory, strategic management, operations management, group dynamics, and studies of managerial behavior. The few scholarly efforts to tackle processes as a collective phenomenon either have been tightly focused theoretical or methodological statements or have focused primarily on a single type of process theory. First, processes provide a convenient, intermediate level of analysis. Most studies have been straightforward descriptions of time allocation, roles, and activity streams, with few attempts to integrate activities into a coherent whole. A process approach, by contrast, emphasizes the links among activities, showing that seemingly unrelated tasks “ a telephone call, a brief hallway conversation, or an unscheduled meeting “ are often part of a single, unfolding sequence. From this vantage point, managerial work becomes far more rational and orderly. My aim here is to give a framework for thinking about processes, their impacts, and the implications for managers. I begin at the organizational level, reviewing a wide range of process theories and grouping them into categories. The discussion leads naturally to a typology of processes and a simple model of organizations as interconnected sets of processes. In the next section, I examine managerial processes; I consider them separately because they focus on individual managers and their relationships, rather than on organizations. I examine several types of managerial processes and contrast them with, and link them to, organizational processes, and identify their common elements. I conclude with a unifying framework that ties together the diverse processes and consider the implications for managers. Organizational Processes Scholars have developed three major approaches to organizational processes. They are best considered separate but related schools of thought because each focuses on a particular process and explores its distinctive characteristics and challenges. Davenport, *Process Innovation* Boston: Harvard Business School Press, , p. Any activity or group of activities that takes an input, adds value to it, and provides an output to an internal or external customer. McGraw-Hill, , p. *Structure, Systems, and Process* St. West, , p. It is shaped as much by the pattern of interaction of managers as it is by the contemplation and cognitive processes of the individual. Sage, , pp. Van de Ven and G. *Work Processes* The work process approach, which has roots in industrial engineering and work measurement, focuses on accomplishing tasks. It starts with a simple but powerful idea: These chains are called processes and can be conveniently grouped into two categories: Operational and administrative processes share several characteristics. Both involve sequences of linked, interdependent activities that together transform inputs into outputs. Both have beginnings and ends, with boundaries that can be defined with reasonable precision and minimal overlap. And both have customers, who may be internal or external to the organization. The primary differences between the two lie in the nature of their outputs. Typically, operational processes produce goods

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and services that external customers consume, while administrative processes generate information and plans that internal groups use. For this reason, the two are frequently considered independent, unrelated activities, even though they must usually be aligned and mutually supportive if the organization is to function effectively. The work processes approach is probably most familiar to managers. It draws heavily on the principles of the quality movement and reengineering. Despite these shared goals, the two movements are strikingly similar on some points, but diverge on others. The similarities begin with the belief that most existing work processes have grown unchecked, with little rationale or planning, and are therefore terribly inefficient. Hammer, for example, has observed: Many of our procedures were not designed at all; they just happened. In fact, both implicitly equate process improvement with process management. They also suggest the use of similar tools, such as process mapping and data modeling, as well as common rules of thumb for identifying improvement opportunities. Their role is to ensure integration and overcome traditional functional loyalties; for this reason, relatively senior managers are usually assigned the task. The quality movement, for the most part, argues for incremental improvement. Improvements are continuous and relatively small scale. Reengineering, by contrast, calls for radical change. Quality experts, drawing on their experience with statistical process control in manufacturing, argue that well-managed work processes must be fully documented, with clearly defined control points. Reengineering experts, on the other hand, are virtually silent about measurement and control. They draw on a different tradition, information technology, that emphasizes redesign rather than control. The work processes perspective has led to a number of important insights for managers. It provides an especially useful framework for addressing a common organizational problem: Many aspects of modern organizations make integration difficult, including complexity, highly differentiated subunits and roles, poor informal relationships, size, and physical distance. In addition, the work processes perspective provides new targets for improvement. Rather than focusing on structures and roles, managers address the underlying processes. An obvious advantage is that they closely examine the real work of the organization. The results, however, have been mixed, and experts estimate that a high proportion of these programs have failed to deliver the expected gains. My analysis suggests several reasons for failure. Most improvement programs have focused exclusively on process redesign; the ongoing operation and management of the reconfigured processes have usually been neglected. Yet even the best processes will not perform effectively without suitable oversight, coordination, and control, as well as occasional intervention. In addition, operational processes have usually been targeted for improvement, while their supporting administrative processes have been overlooked. Incompatibilities and inconsistencies have arisen when the information and plans needed for effective operation were not forthcoming. A few companies have used the work processes approach to redefine their strategy and organization. The most progressive have blended a horizontal process orientation with conventional vertical structures. Sign up Please enter a valid email address Thank you for signing up Privacy Policy Behavioral Processes The behavioral process approach, which has roots in organization theory and group dynamics, focuses on ingrained behavior patterns. The underlying behavior patterns are normally so deeply embedded and recurrent that they are displayed by most organizational members. They also have enormous staying power. They are generalizations, distilled from observations of everyday work and have no independent existence apart from the work processes in which they appear. This makes them difficult to identify but explains their importance. Behavioral processes profoundly affect the form, substance, and character of work processes by shaping how they are carried out. They are different, however, from organizational culture because they reflect more than values and beliefs. Behavioral processes are the sequences of steps used for accomplishing the cognitive and interpersonal aspects of work. New product development processes, for example, may have roughly similar work flows yet still involve radically different patterns of decision making and communication. All involve the collection, movement, and interpretation of information, as well as forms of interpersonal interaction. In most cases, the associated behaviors are learned informally, through socialization and on-the-job experience, rather than through formal education and training programs. Of all behavioral processes, decision making has been the

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most carefully studied. The roots go back to the research and writings of Chester Barnard and Herbert Simon, who argued that organizational decision making was a distributed activity, extending over time, involving a number of people. This, in itself, is still a surprising insight for many managers. All too often, they see decision making as their personal responsibility, rather than as a shared, dispersed activity that they must orchestrate and lead. For the most part, the results of these studies have been equivocal. Efforts to produce a simple linear flow model of decision making " in the same way that work processes can be diagrammed using process flow charts " have had limited success. Witte, for example, studied the purchase process for new computers and found that very few decisions " 4 of " corresponded to a standard, five-phase, sequential process. He concluded that simultaneous rather than sequenced processes were the norm: They cannot avoid evaluating these alternatives immediately, and in doing this, they are forced to a decision. This is a package of operations. A second group of scholars adopted a more focused approach. Each studied a particular kind of decision, usually involving large dollar investments, to identify the constituent activities, subprocesses, and associated management roles and responsibilities, as well as the contextual factors shaping the process. Much of this research has examined the resource allocation process, with studies of capital budgeting, foreign investments, strategic planning, internal corporate venturing, and business exit. First, it has forced scholars to acknowledge the simultaneous, multilevel quality of decision processes. While sequential stages can be specified, they are incomplete as process theories and must be supplemented by detailed descriptions of the interaction of activities, via subprocesses, across organizational levels and through time. Bower, for example, identified three major components of the resource allocation process " definition the development of financial goals, strategies, and product-market plans , impetus the crafting, selling, and choice of projects , and determination of context the creation of structures, systems, and incentives guiding the process " and then went on to describe the linkage among these activities and the interdependent roles of corporate, divisional, and middle managers. Second, this body of research focused attention on the way that managers shape and influence decision processes. While behavioral processes like decision making have great autonomy and persistence, they can, according to this line of research, be shaped and directed by managerial action.

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### Chapter 8 : Fisher - Org. Socialization Integrative View

*By both breaking the proposed change into a step-by-step process and inviting workers to invest their creativity and knowledge into driving the change, the savvy manager can eliminate much of the.*

Learning takes place through three social phases: This sequence involves individuals making a choice to become a police officer, learning formal and informal lessons during police recruit or academy training, and learning them on the job, respectively. How officers make sense of these social events affects the way they perceive, influence, and interact with citizens in a law enforcement capacity. At the pre-entry phase, individuals learn about themselves, evaluate their personal qualities by comparing themselves with what they know about the police, and make a decision to become a police officer. During the entry phase, they begin to construct a self-concept that is coherent with what they learn about police roles, activities, and relationships with citizens. They begin to form a social identity about themselves as group members of the police profession. They learn to make social inferences about the citizens they meet. Finally, at the in-service phase, they strengthen and defend their self-concepts and social identity. They learn to conform to organizational and occupational norms so that they can act comfortably within the police culture. Officers develop different work-style attitudes that reflect subjective outlooks that include beliefs and values affecting how they interact with citizens during police-citizen contacts. Police socialization ensures that individuals acquire the necessary knowledge to perform adequately on the job. Understanding the role that thinking or mental processes play during socialization is at the heart of comprehending why officers act the way they do in their occupational settings.

**Pre-Entry Phase** Who am I? What do I think of myself? Who is a police officer? What does a police officer do? These questions are a focal point of the pre-entry phase, in which the process of making a choice to become a police officer is a major social psychological paradigm. At the pre-entry phase, individuals explore what they know about themselves or self-concept and what they know about the roles and activities of police officers. They construct self-knowledge from inferring their personal characteristics or qualities from their past behaviors. They use what other people know about them or think about them when forming opinions about themselves. When constructing knowledge of policing, individuals use factual or fictional perceptions. Friends or relatives who are police officers are factual or genuine sources of learning who is a cop, what characteristics he or she has, and what he or she does on the job. Fictional or imagined perceptions of policing often come from media sources. For example, television or movie cops as portrayed by actors such as Mel Gibson demonstrate characteristics of power, toughness, and aggressiveness. Steady streams of these media images define police officers as being tough, strong, and invulnerable and fitting into a box that defines machismo. They employ four kinds of schemas that help them generate a hypothetical picture about themselves in the police role: The greater the discrepancy, the higher the probability that individuals will not self-select themselves for law enforcement training. Individuals who see themselves as trainable and suitable for the job apply for it. Before they become police officers, however, they must pass through a rigorous selection process, which most often includes a written test, a physical agility test, background investigation, a personal interview, a medical exam, and a battery of psychological tests. A police administrator considers applicants who have ideal police characteristics and the ability to perform necessary job functions. The employment decision along with the selection process usually produces a homogeneous group of applicants who demonstrate a willingness to conform to organizational official and occupational both official and unofficial or working police practices. These police applicants or recruits experience formal socialization when they enter training at the police academy.

**Entry Phase** Police recruit training refines the cohort of acceptable applicants through formal and informal lessons that weed out those applicants who do not conform to established police practices. Formal lessons involve instruction in a training curriculum, which usually includes the subject areas of administration of justice, fitness, law, police procedures, use of force, police professionalism, and community relations. Informal lessons about the job often take the form of war stories

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told by police academy instructors. Officers begin to learn from instructors and from their peers at the academy about unwritten rules, work attitudes, values, and beliefs of the occupational culture. During academy training, the prevailing social psychological paradigms are self-concept, social identity, and social inferences. Officers begin to identify with the police subculture by constructing self-concepts that are coherent with what they learn about policing through formal and informal lessons at the academy. They fit into their self-concepts distinct characteristics of the police subculture, such as an ethos of toughness, autonomy, suspiciousness, secrecy, solidarity, and bravery. Officers begin to form a police identity from characteristics that belong uniquely to the police subculture and that they share with other officers. When officers self-categorize themselves, they view out-group members or non-police officers as outsiders intergroup discrimination. They favor in-group members or police officers in-group favoritism because they see themselves as having more in common. The language officers use to refer to out-group members helps create and feed in-group bias. A cooperative work effort helps them tackle the challenges of contemporary policing. At times, however, there are costs for expressing in-group favoritism. Officers might see citizens as being the same or interchangeable. In this instance, the officer does not appreciate the diversity of citizens. Putting citizens into an out-group category might lead officers to process information about them differently. For example, an officer legitimizes and defends in-group beliefs and behaviors, whereas he or she marginalizes and attacks out-group ones. Citizens know the differential power arrangement of police-citizen interactions. Officers learn to process people and events through a cognitive lens of present danger. For example, an officer uses force against a suspect. The event happens at 1: The officer learned to form a scaled impression of 1: Police work involves the possibility of danger all the time. Danger shapes police-training practices. Officers learn to see citizens as potentially uncooperative, armed, and dangerous. They learn that they work in an environment of condition yellow: Developing a police worldview through a cognitive lens of present danger is a major social psychological theme at both the recruit and the in-service levels of training. In-Service Phase At the in-service phase, integrative expressions of the social and the psychological disciplines emerge. They conform to police norms and develop work-style attitudes. When rookies graduate from academy training, they usually ride along with field-training or incumbent officers who provide on-the-job training. Rookies learn formal lessons such as work-area-relevant information and agency-specific policies and procedures. Formal and informal lessons during the field-training period cause rookie and incumbent officers to become more alike. Rookies conform to police norms or shared rules of conduct that establish in-the-box behaviors that most officers in most police situations accept and expect. Rookies accept a degree of conformity to these norms because they want to feel included and accepted by their peers. They learn quickly that there is a price to pay for acting outside the box. For example, a rookie officer responds with incumbent officers to a service call for disorderly conduct. The incumbent officers endorse values of toughness, aggressiveness, and respect. When the officers arrive, a male suspect becomes verbally abusive toward the rookie. Because the incumbent officers endorse toughness, aggressiveness, and respect, the rookie becomes tough and aggressive and uses a forceful response to earn respect where none is necessary. In this way, the rookie meets the expectations of incumbent officers. Rookie officers learn that police calls for service can be tense and uncertain: Calls sometimes evolve rapidly. Once rookies graduate from their field-training period, they find themselves in a new role, having a degree of autonomy in handling police calls for service, holding a police worldview of danger, having broad discretionary power, and asserting authority to carry out police objectives. To meet the demands of police service, initial changes in their psychological makeup often occur. Rookies develop different personal work-style attitudes that reflect in part their experience and organizational and occupational practices. The content and structure of their attitudes might reflect a professional, tough-cop, clean-beat crime-fighter, problem-solver, or avoider style of policing. For example, the rookie officer who assumes a tough-cop perspective believes that citizens are hostile to the police, holds a police worldview of danger, and carries out an aggressive style of policing to keep safe. Contemporary readings 5th ed. Observations on the making of policemen. Human Organization, 32, H8. A framework for analysis. American Journal of Police, 14

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### Chapter 9 : Police Occupational Socialization (Forensic Psychology) - iResearchNet

*eral sense, organizational socialization is then the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational role.*

Frustrated By Resistance To Change? I heard this recently from a senior manager. He had the best intentions, but found himself up against angry staff with their heels firmly anchored. Resistance is a normal response to change. Our attitude towards resistance is the key to successful change. Overcoming resistance - personal or organizational - depends on understanding: How to manage opposition to change. This suggests that there might just be something good, or at least useful, about resistance. Discovering what this is and learning to work with it is key to understanding reluctance to change. After all, change often occurs as a direct result of resistance. Great men, such as Nelson Mandela, are testimony to this. Resistance can be viewed as alternative, negative, or wrong. But we need to balance this with a healthy view of resistance which points to positive processes rather than placid acceptance. Benjamin Franklin valued this, telling us that questioning authority is the "first responsibility of every citizen". It helps to understand that resistance is a normal response and that trying to avoid any resistance is ridiculous. So why do people resist change? While there are many reasons people resist change, most of these reasons have a common source. Many of us hold a deep fear of change and doubt our ability to adapt to new expectations. These fears can also be related to loss associated with the change. All change involves loss at some level and this can be difficult to contemplate. Loss associated with change can be very practical such as loss of work, colleagues, or office environment. Or it can be less obvious, relating to concerns about loss of status, self esteem, or ability to perform new work. Fear of change can leave us feeling lost, confused, and torn between the need to take action and doing nothing. Recognising resistance to change There are a number of behaviours that are signs and symptoms of an adverse reaction to change. Manage resistance by being prepared The best laid plans and systems fail if the people side of change management is ignored. Resistance to change is a normal response, so plan for it, expect it and accept it. Resistance does not mean that the change is bad, or that the change process has failed. Nor does it mean that those resisting change are bad people who are getting in the way of change! Assessing resistance to change is an important part of a change impact assessment that should be conducted very early in the process. The clue to overcoming resistance is understanding that you cannot avoid resistance, but you can manage it. Remember that people experience change in personal ways. If the manager I introduced earlier had spent some time considering the impact of change and why staff might resist change his strategy could have been very different. Anticipating resistance to change is part of a successful change management strategy and will help to keep staff motivated and positive about change. Have your say about what you just read! Leave a comment in the box below.