

Chapter 1

Introduction

It is important to have management techniques in place to run an organisation effectively, but don't forget that people are managing.

Why Theory?

Theory makes sense of the world.

A theory is an account of how things work which is coherent in its terms and seeks to interpret understand and explain certain phenomena.

How we makes sense of things depends on the theory we use.

What is Practise?

In practice, managers situate themselves and are situated within knowledge that enables them to be coordinating, controlling, and communicating with various others.

Collective patterns are governed by a purpose, certain rules, formal and informal routines – in short, organization – which are embedded in technological and societal contexts.

Individuals in a societ y of organizations

In the contemporary world the bonds of organizations shape our lives: schools, universities, jobs, social activities etc.

What are individuals?

Being an individual means that each body – and all that it contains – is as unique as the fingerprints we leave or the DNA that constructed us.

Framing managing

A **frame** is a term that comes from the cinema: a director frames a shot by including some detail and omitting other detail. A frame defines what is relevant.

Managing is an active, relational practice which involves doing things. The things that managers do are supposed to contribute to the achievement of the organization's formal goals.

Organizations are systematically arranged frameworks relating people, things, knowledge, and technologies, in a design intended to achieve specific goals.

To be **organized** means being an element in a systematic arrangement of parts, hopefully creating a unified, organic whole.

Management is the process of communicating, coordinating, and accomplishing action in the pursuit of organizational objectives while managing relationships with stakeholders, technologies, and other artifacts, both within as well as between organizations.

Rationality: Action that is produced according to some rule; action that is not random or unpatterned.

Organization characteristics

1. The organization and its actions are consciously shaped by the organization's design, expressed through its routine practices and specific structure.
2. The organization is not time- and motion-less: changes will occur as organizations revise their practices intermittently in the light of experience.
3. The organization will be future oriented, as the members of the organization seek to achieve a desired and planned future. Often this future will be expressed in terms of key performance indicators or targets.
4. The organization will employ hierarchy and a division of labour to create distinct and related roles that are laterally separated and stratified vertically. A hierarchy is a systematic arrangement of powers of command and control with reciprocal obligations of obedience and consent lodged in those being managed.
5. Responsibilities are defined for roles, and actions, roles, and responsibilities are revised in the light of experience as future actions unfold.
6. As future action unfolds the preferential weighting of actions, roles, and responsibilities is systematically revised by programmes of change management or organization reform.

Organizations are huge repositories of rules

1. Formal rules.
2. Professional rules.
3. Legal rules.
4. Standards.
5. Informal social rules.

Organizations have distinct **identities**. Corporate organizations often strive to shape their -organizational identities in ways that reflect their conception of the corporate image.

Institutions are recognizable in as much as specific practices are widely followed, accepted largely without debate, and exhibit properties of endurance.

Hierarchy implies status differentia based on relations of super- and subordination and associated privileges and distinctions.

The **top management team** comprises the senior executives in any organization, the people who set strategy, direction, and purpose.

Capital is an abstract concept that might take many material forms. Traditionally, it was thought of purely in economic terms, as wealth invested in an asset with the intention of delivering a return to the owner of that asset. As such, capital implies complex sets of relations of ownership and control of the asset and employment in its service.

Sensemaking: Managers have to be highly skilled and competent in managing to make sense of what they do. In management, the key competency has become known as sensemaking.

Multiple sources of sensemaking in organizations

- Organizations often have multiple sources of formal meaning regarded as official. For instance, many organizations contain members who are represented by unions, which will formulate views on official policy of the organization that is equally formal and official but may well conflict with that of management.
- Unions are sensemaking devices that many employers and conservative political parties antagonistically oppose because they regard the sense they make as a restraint on the free market.
- In recent years managerialism – or new public management as it is known in the public sector – has come to pervade most aspects of organizational life.
- Among the major sensemaking tools in use in organizations are rational management plans, designs, structures, and theories – it is these that provide the categories and labels with which managing is done.

Sensemaking can be a matter of life and death

- Organizations are often difficult places to make sense in, especially as we cross their rational boundaries.

Sensemaking produces what we take to be rational

- So, sensemaking is what all people in organizations will do routinely while they go about their busy organizational lives. Essentially, it is a process of pattern-making. We fit clues and cues together and make meaning out of them. We trace a frame, enabling us to connect things together and make a coherent and connected picture, often using metaphors to do so.
- The father of modern management, Taylor insisted that under rational management ‘all of the planning which under the old system was done by the workman, as a result of his personal experience, must out of necessity under the new system be done by management’

Metaphors framing rationality

- While the essential tool of the driver is the car, the essential tool of the manager is often said to be rationality.

Metaphors of division

- A very specific idea of rationality, one tied up with the division of labour, became embedded as the common sensemaking of modern management.
- A smart organization divides all its tasks in terms of different roles and responsibilities and assigns these to different occupational titles, suggested Smith. In turn, these titles describe in shorthand the jobs that people are supposed to do.

Metaphors of the organ

- Putting the organ into organization, some people like to think about organizations as having brains and other organic characteristics. The brains are usually seen to be in the ‘headquarters (headquarters), the hands on the factory floor, and so on, all working in a harmony and unison designed by the brain.

Chapter 2

Managing Individuals-Chapter 2-Lecture 6

- **Organizational behaviour (OB)** refers to the study of human behaviour in organizational contexts. OB is an applied discipline that concerns itself with individual level, group level and organizational level processes and practices that inhibit or enable organizational performance.
- **Perception**
 - is the process of receiving, attending to, processing, storing, and using stimuli to understand and make sense of our world. The stimuli can be experiences through any and all of the senses such as sight, sound, smell, taste, and touch.

-----**Schemas** are sets of cognitive constructs developed through social interactions that organize our thoughts, feelings, and attention.

- **-Person schemas** are structures of meaning that affect thinking, planning and behaviour concerning others; there are idealized person schemas which serve as prototypes which we compare all other persons with (see Horowitz, 1991).
- **Self-schemas** are specific self-conceptions we hold about ourselves and we believe are self-descriptive and highly important to possess.(Fong and Markus, 1982; Markus, 1977).
- **Script schemas** refer to schemas about how we operate upon our world and understand and remember information.
- **Social schemas**, as the name suggests, refers to our social knowledge (such as knowledge about public affairs, laws, politics, media and the arts, and anything else socially important).
- **Role schemas** refer to schemas about appropriate and inappropriate behaviour in specific contexts (for example, a woman's role as a mother, daughter, professional, wife, friend, etc.).

---**PERCEPTION AND COMMON ERRORS**

Halo effect was first developed by psychologist Edward Thorndike (1920) and refers to the process by which if we ascribe certain characteristics to a person in one situation based on one trait, we tend to apply those characteristics to that person in other situations and to other traits.

Stereotyping refers to the process of grouping objects into simplistic categories based on one's generalized perceptions of those objects.

self-fulfilling prophecy was originally conceptualized by the sociologist, Robert Merton (1957), to refer to the process by which a person who holds a belief or expectation, irrespective of the validity of that belief or expectation, causes that prediction to come true because people behave and act as if it is true.

devil effect refers to generally ascribing negative interpretations of people based on one negative trait in one situation (think of the former prisoner who cannot get a job when he divulges this information, even though he has done his time).

Attribution theory addresses how we explain away our own behaviour and the behaviours of others in our lives based upon two general types of attributions.

Later on we will look at internal and external locus of control, which is a social cognitive theory of personality. In essence locus of control is an attribution theory of personality. Attribution theory involves three general components, with **internal/external attributions** being one of those.

Attribution theory in its simplest definition refers to how people 'attribute' cause to their own and other people's behaviour (Heider, 1958).

Internal attribution refers to attributing the cause of an individual's behaviour to internal or dispositional factors such as being mean or being generous.

External attribution refers to attributing the cause of an individual's behaviour to an external or situational factor such as being 'Catholic', 'Jewish', or 'Muslim'.

Fundamental attribution error

Fundamental attribution error -is the tendency to make internal attributions when explaining the causes of the behaviour of others.

When a **self-serving bias** comes into play, people attribute their own successes to internal causes and their failure to external causes.

Cognitive dissonance-refers to the anxiety and discomfort we experience when we hold inconsistent and conflicting sets of cognitions (or schemas) flooding. A

number of people were convinced, and joined the cult, some of them were totally committed, others were less so. After the date of doom passed, and there was no flood or destruction what do you think happened? Those people who were on the periphery believed they had been conned, or left the cult. But a number of people became even more committed to the cult claiming that it was actually their faith and prayers that stopped the floods.

Value

Values are a person's or social group's consistent beliefs about something in which they have an emotional investment. Schwartz defines values as desirable goals, varying in importance, which serve as guiding principles in people's lives.

Trans-situational values are those that, irrespective of the situation in which you find yourself, your values do not change; you take them with you wherever you go.

Value priorities refer to the order of values in terms of their importance to us as individuals.

Personality

Personality refers to the stable patterns of behaviour and internal states of mind that help explain a person's behavioural tendencies.

Traits refer to a mixture of biological, psychological, and societal influences that characterize a person's thoughts and actions throughout their lives.

Factor analysis is a statistical method used to describe variability amongst variables by identifying inter-correlation coefficients that indicate underlying factors.

By **reciprocal determinism**, Bandura meant that our personality is a product of our behaviour, our thoughts, and our feelings in interaction with our environment.

Positive Psychology

In its simplest form, **positive psychology** is the study, research, and theorizing of the psychological bases for leading the best life possible through positive thinking, feelings, and behaviour. In a management sense, positive psychology

seeks to understand and to foster civic virtues, social responsibility, altruism, tolerance, happiness, and psychological wellbeing.

Emotions are by definition feelings in response to or expectation of an object or event.

The concept of **emotional intelligence** has been popularized by Daniel Goleman (1997), who conceives of it as the capacity to recognize our own emotions and the emotions of others, and the ability to manage our emotions in our relationships with others.

The difference between **moods** and emotions is duration – a mood is thought to last longer, and mood states can take time to develop. Emotions are seen as a response to an event, or emotional episode; the emotion subsides (sometimes within minutes), but a mood state remains for hours and even weeks.

Happiness can generally be defined as positive thoughts and feeling about one's life and can range from elation (being present when your team wins a grand final at the weekend), to a general feeling of satisfaction and contentment with one's life; it includes feeling calm, contented, satisfied, fulfilled, inspired, positive, and free.

Affective forecasting refers to the process of making basic decisions in the present based on predictions about your emotions in some future act or event.

Focalism refers to the tendency to underestimate the extent to which other events will influence our thoughts and feelings (Lench, Safer, and Levine, 2011).

Chap 4

Managing and Leading

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

- **Understand the assumptions underlying motivation theories and their relevance to leadership and**
 - **Identify the emerging and alternative approaches to leadership and the value of self-leadership**
 - **Evaluate the concepts of positive psychological capital and authentic leadership**
 - **Understand the complex relationship between leadership and culture**
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- In its simplest definition, **leadership** is the process of directing, controlling, motivating, and inspiring staff towards the realization of stated organizational goals.
 - A **leader**: (a) leads people as a ruler; (b) inspires people as a motivator; and (c) facilitates or guides them as a coach and mentor.
 - **Leadership** may thus be seen as a product of one's position; as a set of personality traits; as a set of observable behaviours; as dependent upon the situation in which it is exercised; and as contingent upon how the leader and the people being led react and interact with each other.

Perspectives on Leadership



- The **trait** approach to leadership assumes people are born with qualities that are stable across time and situations, and which differentiate leaders from non-leaders. For a long time, trait theorists believed that leadership depended on certain physical features and personality characteristics

LEADERSHIP AND CULTURE

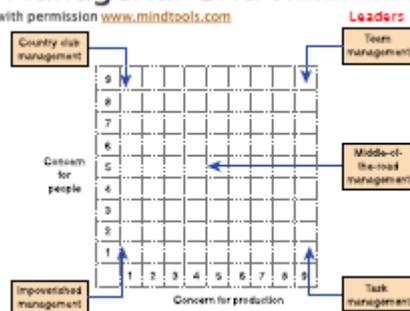
GLOBE leadership study

- Charismatic/values-based leadership, which refers to leadership that is perceived to be visionary, inspirational, self-sacrificing, and operates decisively with integrity
- Team-oriented leadership is collaborative, team playing, diplomatic, caring for others, and administratively competent
- Humane leadership operates with modesty and humanly
- Participative leadership is democratic and participative
- Self-protective leadership is self-centered, status conscious, face-saving, and procedurally oriented
- Autonomous leadership is highly individualistic, independent, autonomous, and unique

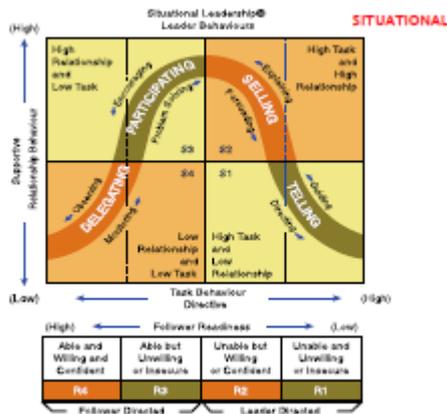
- The **behavioural** theory of leadership is not concerned with the traits or characteristics that make someone a successful leader: it is concerned only with observable behaviour. Thus, for behaviourists, you either act like a leader or you do not.

The Managerial Grid

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- The most recognized behavioural study of leadership was developed by Blake and Mouton (1985) at the University of Texas(above)
- Some recent approaches to leadership argue that leadership emerges out of the **situation**. The same person who may emerge as a leader in one situation may find themselves unable to cope, let alone lead, in a different situation.



- **Contingency** leadership theories have made one of the most important contributions to the evolution of leadership theory because leadership effectiveness is seen as being less dependent on innate traits or observable behavioural styles and more dependent on the context of leading, such as the nature of work, the internal working environment, and the external economic and social environment (Fiedler, 1964).

PATH-GOAL LEADERSHIP CONTINGENCY

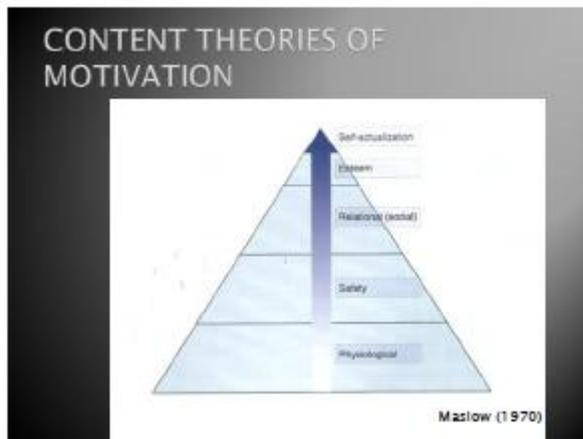
Directive	The directive leader clarifies goals, what must be done to achieve them, and the outcomes of achieving the goals. They use rewards, discipline, and punishment and are mostly task oriented
Supportive	The supportive leader shows concern for the needs – especially psychological – and the aspirations of people at work. They provide a supportive and enjoyable working environment
Participative	The participative leader actively seeks and encourages the input and involvement of staff in decision-making and other work-related issues
Achievement-oriented	The achievement-oriented leader, as the name suggests, expects from people the highest commitment to excellence both at a personal and an organizational level. This type of leader believes that work should be challenging and that people will strive toward achieving these goals by assuming responsibility
Networking	The networking leader knows how to play the political power games to acquire resources, to achieve goals, and to create and maintain positive relationships
Values-based	The values-based leader is skilled in creating, sharing, and inspiring vision, and in ensuring that the organization and its people are guided by that vision and the values related to that vision

From Clegg & al, 2011

- **Charismatic leadership** is a leadership type that emphasizes the articulation of a vision and mission that promise a better life. Sometimes such leaders develop a cult following.
- **Transactional leadership** epitomizes the initiating structure, concern for production, and task-oriented themes of the behavioural leadership literature.
- **Transformational leadership**, as you probably could guess, epitomizes consideration and concern for people and similar relations-oriented themes.

SERVANT model of leadership

- **S** is for servant. The leader is the servant to the network. Leaders serve people and the people, in turn, serve customers. For a long time in the past, leadership was about differentiating oneself so that a leader would be different from a follower. In a postmodern perspective on leadership, leaders seek to rid the world of such differentiation; the leader articulates the servant conceptions of what the leader should be..
- **E** is for empowers. The leader empowers participation in social and economic democracy.
- **R** is for recounter of stories. The leader tells stories about the organization's history, heroes, and future.
- **V** represents being visionary. Leaders without vision, the reasoning goes, offer nothing, and people's hopes perish. At their best, visionary leaders should articulate a clear concept of what it is that followers already are committed to and believe in.
- **A** is for being androgynous. Androgyny means no gender; the leader must be able to speak in both male and female voices.
- **N** is for networker. The leader manages the transformation and configuration of the diverse network of teams spanning suppliers to customers.
- **T** is for team builder. The leader mobilizes, leads, and dispatches a web of autonomous teams.
- **Mentoring** is the process of passing on the job expertise, skills, and knowledge in order to develop a protégé. Unlike coaching, mentoring is much more intensive than coaching, and often involves master and student, but mentoring can also include the mentoring of groups. In reality, everyone has a mentor at some stage in life. The mentoring relationship naturally occurs in our lives, even though we may not realize it – our parents, teachers, bosses, sports coach, and so on
- **Coaching** is the process of developing and enhancing employees' job competencies and capabilities through constructive suggestions and encouragement. Coaching differs somewhat from leadership because a coach is not a person who directs people; rather a coach 'develops' the individual's knowledge and skills
- **Motivation** is defined as the psychological processes that drive behaviour towards the attainment or avoidance of some object (be that object a person or relationship, an abstract concept such as love, or a material good such as money, an iPod, or a BMW).



Assumption	Theory X	Theory Y
Human nature	Inherently lazy and will seek to avoid work if able to. Behaviour based primarily on self-interest	Seeks fulfilment and meaning through work. Behaviour based mainly on society and community building
Wants and needs	Employees desire a sense of control, direction and clear instruction; avoid responsibility and autonomy	Employees desire autonomy and democratic leadership; avoid autocratic control and autocratic leadership
Motivational tools	Pay, bonus schemes and instrumental rewards, as well as punishment	Empowerment, opportunity for learning and career development, responsibility and self-leadership
Theoretical underpinnings	Scientific management (Taylorism), and Hard Human Resource Management. Management must assume control and the hierarchical relationship between manager and subordinate must be clear. Humans are important resources, but should be managed much as any other resource in order to achieve organizational objectives – thus if humans are a cost, then cost cutting involves downsizing	Human Relations, Soft Human Resource Management, Humanistic, and Positive Psychological approaches in which humans are perceived as the key assets in an organization. Humans are not a cost but a valuable source of capital and so downsizing should be avoided

- **Theory X** orientation assumes that people are lazy, require structure, direction and control, and want to be rewarded with money for a job well done.
- **Theory Y** orientation assumes that people crave responsibility and autonomy, want to be treated with respect, and are driven towards self-actualization (Pitsis, 2008a; 2008b).
- **Self-determination theory (SDT)** is a theory of motivation that emphasizes our intrinsic needs for being seen as competent, liked, and free from control of others.

SUMMARY

What leaders do and what they say have profound effects upon the world. Leaders influence others and can make life fulfilling, enriched, and empowered (of course they can also make it empty, shallow, and powerless). Although some leaders provide others

with the tools to become leaders themselves, other leaders abuse their power, authority, and trust to achieve and to realize their vision and mission of how they think society ought to be. In this chapter, we have seen that leadership is an extremely complex and value-laden domain of theory and research. Is a leader, as the trait theory suggests, made up of inherent characteristics? The literature does not support such an argument.

Behavioural theory sought to refocus leadership away from traits to how a person behaves – that is, one's behaviour makes one a leader or not. Yet even the behaviourists could see that this was not the entire story, so theorists concluded that situational/contingent factors were influential in determining what made leaders and, more important, what made them effective. Leaders were then conceptualized as charismatic and transformational, with an ability to envision, to inspire, and to implement change. Others may be transactional in that they know how to be exemplary managers. Of course, if full-range leadership theory is correct, the best leaders are both transformational and transactional.

Some contingency theorists argued that the situational factors are so strong that contingencies could be used as substitutes for leadership, and some others even argue that leadership is null and void. The dispersed and postmodern approaches to leadership attempted to turn leadership around. The leader has changed over time, from premodern to modern to postmodern. The postmodern leader is a SERVANT.

No matter which leadership theory we look at, motivation emerges as a critical concept. Leaders must be motivated, but they must also motivate others by inspiring, envisioning, and empowering. We tied motivation into Maslow's hierarchy of needs by focusing on eupsychian management. We then discussed the importance of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as a way of understanding motivation and leadership, and we emphasized the growing influence of Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory.

In light of Maslow, SDT, and from the perspective of positive psychology, we discussed what our roles and responsibilities might be as members of the human race and related this discussion to the positive psychological traditions of leadership, including the authentic leader and leadership wisdom.

Finally, we closed this chapter with a discussion of the exciting work being done in the GLOBE leadership project. In all, after studying this chapter we hope you have developed an appreciation of the main approaches to leadership, coaching, and motivating people.

Chap 5

DEFINITION: POWER

- **Power** is the chance of an actor to realize their will in a social action, even against the resistance of others.
 - The actor may be an individual or a collective entity
- **Organization politics** corresponds to the **practice of power** by organisational actors

Sources of power

RESPONSIBILITY AND AUTHORITY **Milgram (1974)**

- Volunteers to take part in what they were told was a study of the ‘effect of punishment on memory and learning’
- Volunteers instructed to administer what they thought were increasing levels of electric shocks to a protesting victim
- Psychiatrists predicted less than 0.1% would administer high shock levels

SOURCES OF POWER

- **Legitimacy**
- **Uncertainty**
- **Strategic contingency theory**
- **Resources dependency theory**

LEGITIMACY

- **Legitimacy**
When there is a widespread belief that something is just and valid
- **Authority (Weber)**
 - Charismatic
 - Traditional
 - Rational/Legal (Bureaucratic)

DIFFERENT TYPES OF LEGITIMACY?

UNCERTAINTY

- **Uncertainty** inability to determine the preferred course of action
Arises from lack of rules
if a person has organizational skills that can reduce that
 - uncertainty, they will derive power from such expertise

It sought to build a theory from existing ideas, particularly that power was related

- to the control of uncertainty and that, following Tannenbaum (1968), it could be measured

STRATEGIC CONTINGENCY THEORY

- four functional subsystems or subunits dealing with production, marketing, maintenance and finance
- The subunits were seen as interdependent

What connected them was the major task of the

- organization, coping with uncertainty the most powerful are the least dependent subunits that cope with the greatest systemic uncertainty, although there are certain qualifications

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•Management are in charge of strategies to **adapt to the environment**

•Managers will have power if

- Managing a subunit that copes with uncertainty
- Not dependent on other units
- And is not easily substitutable
- Central to the organization system

RESOURCE DEPENDENCY THEORY

•The control of resources, results in power

•Power will give access to more resources

–Organizations strive to influence organisations upon which they are dependent for scarce and critical resources

–Money, information, knowledge,...

- Resource dependency theory was formulated in the 1970s as an **open systems** model that examined how environmental contexts affect organizational behaviours and decisions.
- The focus is on how managers in organizations secure the flow of resources essential for organizational survival.
- Resources may be raw materials, capital, information, authority, or any other essential resource.
- Anything can be a resource in the right context – the context is what is important. Thus, possessing scarce resources is not enough to deliver power over and above that formally authorized; one also needs to have an explicit knowledge of context.

POLITICS

- Politics arise from
 - The **complexity** and the degree of **uncertainty**
 - Structural **divisions** in the organization

POLITICAL ARENAS & RESISTANCE

Resistance through distance: Collinson termed this phenomenon ‘resistance through distance’. The workers distanced themselves from management by asserting that it was ‘management’s right to manage’ and something they wanted no part of. They resisted through keeping their distance.

- Organizations are *political arenas*
- *Resistance* consists of activities and attitudes that aim to thwart, undermine, and impede managerial initiatives
- Construed by management as **illegitimate resistance** against **legitimate authority**
- Dialectics of power and resistance
 - Political games
 - Actors are in search of legitimacy

WHAT ARE THE FORMS OF RESITANCE?

Compliant resistance

- Distancing oneself
- Maintaining appearances
- Small acts of resistance
- Sabotage

Hidden agenda

- Using the organization’s rhetoric to impose your views
- Building a business case for a CSR or gender parity

Productive resistance (Courpasson, Clegg and Dany, 2011)

- Creating an enclave (an emergent coalition)
- Underlining key points of resistance and key points of convergence

Whistle blowing

- Denouncing unethical practices
- The whistle blower often becomes an outcast

Collective resistance

- Union
- Spontaneous coordination (including social networks)
- Constructive opposition or systematic opposition

Authority: attaches to forms of domination over others that are viewed as legitimate.

Soft Domination: is characterised by the administration of rules that give managerial discretion to managers while reinforcing the strength of centralised authorities.

BUREAUCRACY

- Bureaucracy
 - Based on bureaucracy
 - Coercive power
- Many studies underline the limitations of bureaucracy in the current world

THE LIMITS OF BUREAUCRACY

- Coercive power relies on non-voluntary involvement

Is likely to elicit resistance...

... in context where resistance is possible

- Rule tropism
 - Rules become absolutes rather than means to an end
 - No adaptation

RETHINKING BUREAUCRACY

- Coercive power is replaced by “soft” power
- Soft power frames what others want to do

SOFT DOMINATION

- Organization
 - Based on the appearance of equality in the organization among peers
 - Decentralization
 - Empowerment
- Control

- Pervasive system of controls
- Concertive control (team surveillance)
- Flexibility in rules and process
- Evaluation by results not process
- Electronic panopticon

From panopticon to virtual panopticon

Foucault: Power as knowledge

- Equates power with knowledge
- Knowledge & values a more efficient mode of governance than force

Chap 6

•Introduction

Culture represents the totality of everyday knowledge that people use habitually to make sense of the world around them through patterns of shared meanings and understandings passed down through language, symbols, and artifacts.

Culture largely comprises the habits, values, mores, and ways of acting – often referred to as **norms** – by which people identify themselves and others, both those whom they see as alike and those whom they see as different, as members of distinct groups. One way to establish clearly what the norms are is by breaking them; breaching the norm draws it to attention so that it becomes remarked upon.

•Levels of culture (p 221-222)

Organization culture as the deep, basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by organizational members.

Level I Artifacts

- Including visible organizational features such as the physical structure of buildings and their architecture, uniforms, and interior design.
- **Artifacts can be**
 - ✓ Physical artifacts: decoration of a building, furnishing, styles of clothes, looks,...
 - ✓ Symbolic artifacts: logo, image, brand,...
 - ✓ Language: type of language used, specific jargon,...
 - ✓ Myths, rites and stories christmas party, Melbourn Cup, founders,...

Level II Espoused values

- Espoused values are a person's or social group's consistent beliefs about something in which they have an emotional investment as they express them; they are articulated in speeches, writings, or other media.

Level III Basic assumptions