

Vertrauen als Voraussetzung für Kreativität und Innovation:
Ein Plananalyse-Ansatz zur Förderung innovativer Leistung

Trust as a Prerequisite for Creativity and Innovation:
A Plan Analysis Approach to Foster Innovative Performance

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Bern, den 18. März 2022

Der Dekan Prof. Dr. Stefan Troche

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Widmung

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¹ Die Danksagung wie das nachfolgende Vorwort sind auch in englischer Sprache abgefasst. Dies wird damit begründet, dass die auf die theoretischen Grundlagen (A, B und C) folgenden Teile 1, 2 und 3 in Englisch verfasst sind. Diese bilden die Grundlage für eine spätere Publikation.

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Preface: The Cohesive Power of Trust Relationships in Business

Mutual trust creates lasting emotional relationships between people, thereby ensuring the continuity of a community. Through their cohesive power, trust relationships influence qualitative, creative, and innovative performance required for a company's survival in the economy. Trust and the willingness to take risks in threatening work situations are indispensable for the emergence of creativity, thus decisive for a company's innovative capacity. Consequently, lack of trust hinders a company's innovative performance. However, the interrelationship between trust relationships and innovative performance has not been specifically studied in relation to the properties of a dynamic company. To bridge the gap, a thematically guided, interdisciplinary literature review was first carried out to create an overall picture of the innovation process in companies. As a result, three priorities have been identified for the implementation of innovative initiatives. They span the disciplines of trust, emotions, and leadership by addressing the following subjects: learning corporate culture, trust relationships, and responsible leadership. Hence, the question arises: What are the working conditions for successful business action and the factors for an innovation-friendly corporate culture. In the second step, building on a systematic literature review on failure in business, an evaluation framework was created to systematically examine leaders' behaviour in critical work situations. Furthermore, with the help of the universally applicable Plan Analysis (Caspar, 2018a), the leaders' motivational structures and behavioural strategies underlying failure in business were prototypically mapped. The result offers a condensed representation of the Plan Structures of leaders in failure situations. It serves in management consultancy to design treatment programmes aimed at fostering innovative performance.

Zusammenfassung

Mit diesem Forschungsprojekt wurde ein zweifaches Ziel verfolgt. Im Mittelpunkt standen zunächst die theoretischen Grundlagen, die die Auswirkungen kritischer Arbeitssituationen auf die Vertrauensbeziehungen der Mitarbeitenden im Tagesgeschäft und damit auf die Innovationskraft eines Unternehmens beleuchten. Zweitens wurden auf der Basis eines systematisch angelegten Literatur-Reviews (SLR) die Erkenntnisse aus der wissenschaftlichen Forschungspraxis zum Thema Misserfolg in der Wirtschaft anhand des Plananalyse-Ansatzes (Caspar, 2018a) näher analysiert. Die drei interagierenden Faktoren Arbeitssituation, Vertrauensbeziehungen und Innovationsleistung, welche anhand der Forschungsliteratur über die Disziplinen Vertrauen, Emotionen und Führung identifiziert wurden, geben einen Hinweis darauf, worauf es im Umgang mit Veränderungsanforderungen im Unternehmen ankommt. Misserfolg wird auf dieser Grundlage dynamisch als Störung eines laufenden Prozesses verstanden, welcher durch die Interaktion der Mitglieder einer sozialen Einheit auf dem Weg zur Transformation bestimmt wird. Durch vertrauensbildendes Führungsverhalten können alarmierende Arbeitssituationen zum Ausgangspunkt für innovatives Verhalten werden und zum individuellen und unternehmerischen Wachstum beitragen. Dazu braucht es nebst Vertrauen in Beziehungen eine lernorientierte Unternehmenskultur und verantwortungsvolle Führungsleistung. Die Untersuchung der theoretischen Grundlagen zeigte, dass kritische Arbeitssituationen das Potenzial haben, eine ungünstige Neubewertung der zwischenmenschlichen Beziehungen innerhalb des Unternehmens zu bewirken und damit die Risikobereitschaft des Einzelnen, sich in emotional geladenen Situationen zu exponieren, zu untergraben. Diese Wechselbeziehung mit ihren Auswirkungen auf das kreative Verhalten der Mitarbeitenden, aber auch auf die Innovationskraft des Unternehmens, wurde bisher in ihrer Dynamik nicht gezielt untersucht. Mit der Durchführung eines SLR mit klaren Regeln zur systematischen Erhebung des zu untersuchenden Datenmaterials (Denyer & Tranfield, 2009) konnte eine Sammlung

bestehender Forschungsdokumente zur wissenschaftlichen Dokumentenanalyse sichergestellt werden (Döring & Bortz, 2016). Die anschliessende induktiv geführte qualitative Inhaltsanalyse lieferte annähernd vergleichbare Ergebnisse über die 43 untersuchten Forschungsartikel hinweg (Mayring, 2010) mit einem Framework für die Evaluation von Misserfolg in der Wirtschaft. Aufbauend auf der Auswahl von 13 Forschungsartikeln wurde mit der Methode der Plananalyse eine prototypische Planstruktur (Caspar, 2018a) für Führungskräfte im Umgang mit Misserfolg entwickelt, die in der Unternehmensberatung eingesetzt werden kann. Zur Weiterentwicklung des Ansatzes werden Empfehlungen für die zukünftige Forschung ausgesprochen.

Stichwörter: kritische Arbeitssituation, Vertrauensbeziehung, Innovationsleistung, Veränderungsanforderung, Framework zur Analyse von Misserfolg, Plananalyse, Planstruktur, lernorientierte Unternehmenskultur, Führungsleistung

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1. Einleitung

Gegenseitiges Vertrauen schafft dauerhafte emotionale Beziehungen zwischen Menschen und sichert auf diesem Weg den Fortbestand einer Gemeinschaft. Vertrauensbeziehungen beeinflussen aufgrund ihrer Kohäsionskraft die für das Überleben eines Unternehmens in der Wirtschaft qualitative, kreative und innovative Leistungsfähigkeit. Vertrauen und die Bereitschaft, sich persönlich auf Risiken in emotional geladenen Situationen einzulassen (Mayer et al., 1995), sind daher für das Entstehen von Kreativität und damit für die Innovationsfähigkeit eines Unternehmens unabdingbar. Ein Mangel an Vertrauen hemmt im Endeffekt die Innovationsleistung eines Unternehmens. Der Zusammenhang zwischen Vertrauensbeziehungen und Innovationsleistung wurde jedoch nicht gezielt in Bezug auf die Eigenschaften eines dynamischen Unternehmens untersucht. Um diese Lücke zu schließen, wurde zunächst eine themengeleitete, interdisziplinäre Literaturrecherche durchgeführt, um einen Überblick über den Innovationsprozess in Unternehmen zu erhalten. Es konnten drei Ansatzpunkte für die Umsetzung von Veränderungsstrategien identifiziert werden. Sie umspannen die Disziplinen Vertrauen, Emotionen und Führung, wobei die folgenden Themen schwerpunktmässig behandelt wurden: Vertrauensbeziehungen, lernende Unternehmenskultur und verantwortungsvolle Führungsleistung. Es ist für ein Unternehmen entscheidend, dass Arbeitssituazioni mit bedrohlichem Charakter für den Mitarbeitenden nicht unbeachtet bleiben und von Führungskräften gezielt dazu eingesetzt werden, an der Innovationsfähigkeit des Unternehmens zu arbeiten. Ein Unternehmen kann sich nur dann dynamisch entwickeln, wenn es sich auf eine Lernkultur stützt, die die grundlegenden menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse anspricht (Epstein & Morling, 1995; Gasiet, 1981; Grawe, 2004). In einem zweiten Schritt wurde aufbauend auf einer systematischen Literaturrecherche zum Thema Misserfolg in der Wirtschaft

ein Bewertungsrahmen für Misserfolg erarbeitet, um gezielt das Verhalten von Führungskräften in kritischen, emotionsgeladenen Arbeitssituationen zu untersuchen. Ferner wurden mit Hilfe des klinischen Ansatzes der Plananalyse (Caspar, 2018a) die handlungsbezogenen Motivationsstrukturen von Führungskräften prototypisch abgebildet. Das Ergebnis bietet eine verdichtete Darstellung des motivationalen Überbaus von Führungskräften in Misserfolgs situationen. Es dient in der Unternehmensberatung als Grundlage für die Gestaltung eines Massnahmenplans zur Förderung der innovativen Leistungsfähigkeit.

1.1 Gegenstand und Zielsetzung

Ziel dieses Forschungsprojekts ist es, die Ursachen für die schädlichen Faktoren und Auswirkungen des Fehlens von Intention und Motivationsfähigkeit der Mitarbeitenden in einem Unternehmen zu untersuchen. Mangelndes Vertrauen und mangelnde Bereitschaft, sich persönlich auf Risiken einzulassen, können die kreative und innovative Leistungsfähigkeit eines Unternehmens behindern. Im Rahmen einer interdisziplinär durchgeführten Literaturrecherche zu den theoretischen Grundlagen wird der Einfluss von Vertrauensbeziehungen in Unternehmen und deren Auswirkungen auf das Verhalten des Einzelnen in der Gruppe und der Gruppe innerhalb des Unternehmens untersucht. Kritische Arbeitssituationen, die vom Einzelnen als persönlich relevant betrachtet werden, können aufgrund der freigesetzten Emotionen die Neubewertung von Vertrauensbeziehungen erheblich beeinträchtigen und zu einer Verringerung der Risikobereitschaft führen (Mayer et al., 1995). Die Frage ist, welche Arbeitsbedingungen für ein erfolgreiches Handeln in Organisationen (von Cranach, 1986) zu berücksichtigen sind und welche Faktoren für eine innovationsfreundliche Unternehmenskultur in einem Unternehmen verantwortlich sind (Moynihan et al., 2013; Rogers, 2003; Schein, 2016).

Die vorliegende Arbeit ist wie folgt strukturiert: Das Verhältnis von Vertrauen, Risikobereitschaft und Innovationsleistung wird in drei aufeinander aufbauenden theoretischen Grundlagen thematisiert: der Mensch in seiner Funktionalität (1), der handelnde Mensch (2) und schliesslich das dynamische Unternehmen (3). Aufbauend auf diesen theoretischen Grundlagen werden drei in sich geschlossene Themenbereiche in englischer Sprache integriert². In einem ersten Forschungsbeitrag wird ein interdisziplinär ausgerichtetes Literaturen Review zur Problematik der Risikobereitschaft als Voraussetzung für innovative Performance im Unternehmen vorgenommen: „Why Innovative Performance Requires the Willingness to Take Risks: An Integrative View on Trust and Corporate Culture“. In diesem ersten Beitrag werden in Form eines Essays die drei Forschungsbereiche Emotion, Vertrauen und Führung zueinander in Beziehung gesetzt. Schlussfolgernd werden als Ergebnis drei Strategien zur kontinuierlichen Entwicklung eines innovationsorientierten Unternehmens entwickelt. Diese Entwicklung manifestiert sich in Form von drei aufeinander aufbauenden Unternehmenskulturen (Schein, 2016). Auf der Basis von lernorientiertem Verhalten (Moynihan et al., 2013) entwickelt sich im Unternehmen eine Unternehmenskultur, die die Grundlage für eine weitere Ausgestaltung bietet. Auf der Grundlage eines lernorientierten Unternehmens kann sich eine Unternehmenskultur entwickeln, die auf Vertrauen (Mayer et al., 1995) und gegenseitigem Respekt (Gasiet, 1981) beruht. Vertrauen bildet die Grundlage dafür, dass Mitarbeitende sich darin unterstützt fühlen, auch in für sie kritischen Arbeitssituationen, Chancen zur Veränderung zu erkennen und anzunehmen. In einer Weiterentwicklung kann sich letztendlich eine auf Offenheit und Kommunikation ausgerichtete Unternehmenskultur etablieren (Moynihan et al., 2013; Schein, 2003, 2016). Auf diese Weise können innovative Ideen so verbreitet werden, dass sich das Unternehmen den situativ bestimmten inneren und externen Anforde-

² Die drei Forschungsbeiträge sind in englischer Sprache verfasst. Sie bilden die Grundlage für eine spätere Publikation.

rungen stellen kann (Rogers, 2003). Durch Vertrauensbeziehungen können in kritischen Arbeitssituationen anhand geeigneter Führungseigenschaften die menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse so berücksichtigt werden, dass der Weg zur innovativen Performance frei gemacht werden kann. Ein vertrauensbasierter Führungsansatz regt die Kreativität der Mitarbeitenden an und erhöht die Innovationsfähigkeit eines Unternehmens.

Im zweiten Forschungsbeitrag wird ein Systematisches Literatur-Review (SLR) zur Beleuchtung des Phänomens Misserfolg und dessen Auswirkungen auf die Innovations- und Veränderungsfähigkeit eines Unternehmens durchgeführt: „The Building Blocks of Failure in Business: A Systematic Literature Review“. In diesem zweiten Beitrag wird ein definitorischer Ansatz zur Bestimmung von Misserfolg entwickelt, der über ein negativ bewertetes Leistungsergebnis hinausgeht. Misserfolg wird als Störung eines laufenden Prozesses verstanden, welcher durch die Interaktion zwischen den beteiligten Akteuren in einer sozialen Einheit in Richtung Transformation bestimmt wird. Dabei können zwei polarisierenden Haltungen wirksam werden: eine handlungsleitende, progressiv orientierte oder eine selbstbegrenzende, regressiv orientierte, die entweder zur Nutzung der in der Situation gegebenen Chancen oder aber zu Schutzvorkehrungen leiten.

Im dritten Forschungsbeitrag wird die aus der klinischen Psychologie übernommenen Plananalyse (Caspar, 2018a) für die Erstellung einer prototypischen Planstruktur für Misserfolg im Wirtschaftsbereich genutzt: „How Leaders can Learn From Failure: A Plan Analysis Approach“. Ausgehend von der zuvor erstellen SLR wird mit dem dritten Beitrag auf der Basis des Frameworks zur Evaluation von Misserfolg im Wirtschaftsbereich, dem Failure Evaluation Framework (FEF), eine prototypische Planstruktur entwickelt. Der Ansatz der Plananalyse wird dazu genutzt, die in der Forschungsliteratur der letzten sechs Jahrzehnte untersuchten kritischen Arbeitssituationen und Lösungswege von Führungskräften näher zu untersuchen. Das Ergebnis bietet eine verdichtet dargestellte prototypische Planstruktur von

Führungskräften in Situationen des Misserfolgs, welche als Grundlage für Unternehmensberatungen zur Förderung der innovativen Leistungsfähigkeit eingesetzt werden kann. Im letzten Teil der Arbeit werden die vorgelegten Erkenntnisse kritisch beleuchtet.

1.2 Theoretische Grundlagen: Der Mensch in seiner Funktionalität

Im Vordergrund dieses Forschungsprojekt stehen zunächst die theoretischen Grundlagen, die die Auswirkungen kritischer Situationen auf die Mitarbeitenden im Unternehmensalltag und damit auf die Innovationskraft eines Unternehmens unterlegen. Im ersten Teil der theoretischen Grundlagen steht der Mensch in seiner Funktionalität im Vordergrund. Aufbauend auf den physiologischen Mechanismen, die den Menschen dazu befähigen, spontan, aber auch planend und organisierend zu handeln (LeDoux, 2012), werden die handlungslenkenden menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse (Gasiet, 1981) vertieft und auf deren Funktionalität in der Entwicklung des Selbst durch Erfahrung (Epstein & Morling, 1995) eingegangen. Emotionen, ob bewusst oder unbewusst, spielen im Prozess der Verarbeitung von Erfahrungen eine entscheidende Rolle. Sie lösen mentale Prozesse aus, welche anhand von Bewertungsprozessen zur Emotionsregulation (Werner & Gross, 2010) beitragen, Verhalten anstoßen (Schirmer, 2015) und die Entscheidung zu annäherndem oder vermeidendem Verhalten beeinflussen (Folger et al., 2018). Das in der persönlich als relevant eingeschätzten Situation angestossene Verhalten, dient der Konsistenzregulation und wird zur Erfüllung der tangierten Bedürfnisse durch deskriptive und motivationale Schemata unterlegt. Diese verkörpern einerseits die Vorstellungen eines Individuums über sich und die Welt und andererseits die im Laufe des Lebens auf die Befriedigung der menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse ausgerichteten Ziele (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995; Grawe, 1998, 2004). Die menschliche Realitätsgestaltung wird aufgrund der Intentionalität des menschlichen Verhaltens mit Ausrichtung

auf die Befriedigung der menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse durch Vertrauensbeziehungen unterstützt und zur produktiven Prozessgestaltung und Sinngebung angeregt.

1.3 Theoretische Grundlagen: Der handelnde Mensch

Im zweiten Teil der theoretischen Grundlagen steht der handelnde Mensch im Vordergrund. Durch Vertrauensbekundungen kann die Bereitschaft eines Mitarbeitenden gefördert werden, sich auf Risiken einzulassen, die seine Bereitschaft verlangen, sich mit Veränderungssituationen aktiv auseinander zu setzen. Durch die lenkende und energetisierende Rolle der Führungsperson in der Gruppe wird die individuelle und gruppeninterne Informationsverarbeitung und das Handeln der Gruppenmitglieder in Ausrichtung auf einen anzustrebenden Zustand (feed-forward) beeinflusst, so dass Aufgaben entsprechend der Rollenstruktur in der Gruppe durch die Beteiligten zur Umsetzung gelangen (von Cranach, 1986). Verhalten entsteht in der Vernetzung der Vorstellung eines angestrebten Zustands mit dem iterativ ausgeführten und rekursiv gebauten Plan (Miller et al., 1960). Verhalten kann durch Feedback zur persönlichen Kompetenzwahrnehmung und Festigung der handlungsleitenden intrinsischen Motivation gefördert werden oder auch extrinsisch durch Belohnungssysteme kontrolliert werden (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Infolgedessen kann die motivationale Struktur einer handelnden Person sowohl bottom-up durch Beobachtung als auch top-down anhand der angesprochenen Bedürfnisse rekonstruiert werden. Diese Rekonstruktion kann auch spezifisch auf den menschlichen Grundbedürfnissen aufbauen (Caspar, 2018a; Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995; Gasiet, 1981; Grawe, 1998, 2004) und als Planstruktur (Caspar, 2018b) therapieschulunabhängig für die Verfassung von Fallkonzeptionen dienen. Persönlich bedeutsame Ziele orientieren sich an Werten, welche in Form von Testkriterien für die Bewertung eines vorgestellten Ergebnisses als „Image of the desired outcome“ (Miller et al., 1960, S. 38) wirken. Entscheidend dabei ist, dass Lernorientierung aufgrund der persönlich zugeschriebenen

Bedeutsamkeit und des qualitativen Anspruchs zu höher motiviertem Verhalten als durch extern festgesetzte Leistungsziele zu führen vermag (Locke & Latham, 2006). Bedrohliche Situationen mit unklarem Ausgang lösen jedoch beim Betroffenen Emotionen aus, die zunächst zur Überprüfung der Situation auf Relevanz für die eigene Person führt und anschließend zur Situationsbewältigung Coping-Verhalten auslöst (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Die Wahrnehmung fehlender persönlicher Kompetenz und damit einhergehend die Befürchtung der Verletzung des Grundbedürfnisses nach sozialer Anerkennung (Gasiet, 1981) bewirkt aufgrund des wahrgenommenen Ungenügens im Sinne von „Stress through Insufficiency“ einen Angriff auf das eigene Selbstwertgefühl durch das Gefühl von Unzulänglichkeit (Semmer et al., 2007, S. 46) und die Senkung der intrinsischen wie auch extrinsischen Motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Verluste in Form von Gegenständen, aber auch von ideellen Werten wie beispielsweise Meinungen können zudem zu einer Bedrohung des Selbst (ego-threat) führen, weil die Betroffenen diesen Besitz als bestimmenden Bestandteil der eigenen Person betrachten (Beggan, 1992; De Dreu & van Knippenberg, 2005; Kahneman et al., 1991). Verluste dieser Art führen infolgedessen nach De Dreu und van Knippenberg (2005) zu aggressiv kämpferischen Verhaltensweisen, die bei einem schwachen Selbstkonzept, man gelnder Prozessverantwortung und geringer übergeordneter Zielausrichtung zu konflikteskalierendem Verhalten führen kann. Der handelnde, selbst-determiniert motivierte Mensch lenkt und energetisiert sich durch Feedback- und Feed-forward-Prozesse zur aktiven Übernahme und Ausführung von Aufgaben.

1.4 Theoretische Grundlagen: Das dynamische Unternehmen

Innovation stützt sich auf die Interdependenz zwischen operativer und strategischer Tätigkeit und ist nur auf der Grundlage des gegenseitigen Vertrauens auf allen Stufen in der Unternehmenshierarchie realisierbar. Dies bedeutet auch, dass bis heute die effiziente Orga-

nisation von Menschen innerhalb eines Unternehmens und im Rahmen der organisierten Tätigkeit sich auf eine partielle Regulierung und Begrenzung der Befriedigung der individuellen Bedürfnisse durch Autorität in hierarchisch gebildeten Strukturen stützt (Gasiet, 1981). Nach Meinung von Miller, Galanter und Pribram (1960, S. 70) werden organisierte Tätigkeiten überhaupt erst durch „shared Plans“ möglich. Gemeinsam geteilte Pläne gründen auf der individuellen Erwartungsbildung (Schank, 1982), die gemäss von Cranach (1986) in selbstaktiven Systemen, wie etwa einer Arbeitsgruppe, die Entwicklung von Erwartungen an zukünftige Gegebenheiten fördert. Um Kreativität zu ermöglichen und damit Innovationen zu schaffen, ist gemäss Dimock (1986) ein Gleichgewicht zwischen Regulierung und Autonomie notwendig. Entscheidend ist für Dimock die Berücksichtigung der Aufmerksamkeitsebenen (levels of attention), die auf der Idee des gegenseitigen Vertrauens und der Erkenntnis der zwischen den Ebenen bestehenden Interdependenzen beruht. Das bedeutet demzufolge, dass Handeln in der Gruppe sich aus dieser Optik auf die gegenseitige Bereitschaft zur Kooperation und Koordination der Zusammenarbeit entwickelt und nur durch aktive Kommunikationsprozesse und durch den Austausch der Ergebniserwartungen zu zielgerichtetem Handeln führen kann. Ohne Feed-forward-Prozesse können deswegen keine Steuerungs-, Anreiz-, Überwachungs-, und Bewertungsprozesse sinnvoll genutzt werden, weil für ein selbstaktives System, wie die Gruppe eines sein kann, die Orientierung auf ein gemeinsam deklariertes Ziel mit einem bestimmten zu erwartendem Zustand fehlen würde (von Cranach, 1986).

Die subjektive Wahrnehmung der kreativitätsfördernden Atmosphäre in der Unternehmung wird entscheidend durch das Vorliegen einer herausfordernden Arbeit und das Fehlen organisatorischer Hindernisse (Amabile et al., 1996) beeinflusst. Nachhaltigkeit in der kooperativen Zusammenarbeit ist aus diesem Grunde dann zu erwarten, wenn die Ziele des Unternehmens mit den sozialen Werten der Individuen in den organisatorischen Einheiten übereinstimmen und dadurch gesamthaft zu einem gesellschaftlich relevanten Wert beitragen

(Stogdill, 1950). Moynihan, Pandey und Wright (2013) vertreten die Meinung, dass durch die Qualitäten des transformationalen Führungsstils indirekt Einfluss auf die Zielausrichtung des Mitarbeitenden genommen wird, so dass sich die Bereitschaft der Mitarbeitenden erhöht, sich für übergeordnete Bedürfnisse (higher-order needs) einzusetzen und damit entscheidend Einfluss auf die Innovationsleistung eines Unternehmens ausgeübt wird. Die Mitarbeitenden fühlen sich in einer transformational orientierten Unternehmenskultur durch Feedback ange-
spornt und werden aufgrund der auf das Selbst bedrohlich wirkenden Kritik nicht zu einem defensiven Verhalten gedrängt (De Dreu & van Knippenberg, 2005), was zu einer Eindämmung des intrinsisch motivierten Verhaltens führen würde (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Überdies stärkt nach Meinung von Moynihan und Kollegen (2013) die bidirektionale Kommunikation (two-way communication) die Leistungsfähigkeit und Innovationskraft eines Unternehmens, indem durch die Vorbildfunktion der Führungskräfte eine qualifizierte Lernkultur gefördert wird.

A Theoretische Grundlagen I: Der Mensch in seiner Funktionalität

Die Funktionsweise des Menschen

Kreativität und Innovation gründen wie bereits in der Frühgeschichte des Menschen auch in der modernen Gesellschaft auf Vertrauensbeziehungen.

2. Grundüberlegungen zur Rolle von Vertrauensbeziehungen

Zwischen Vertrauen und dem anhaltenden Wohlstand der Gesellschaft wurde durch Riedl und Javor (2012) eine überraschend starke biologisch unterlegte Interaktion nachgewiesen. In ihrer Literaturrecherche zur Biologie des Vertrauens berücksichtigen sie die Ergebnisse der Forschung zur Hirnbildgebung, die auf drei verschiedenen experimentellen Ansätzen basieren: „Vertrauensspiel“, „Face-to-Face“ und „Internetkommunikation“. Mit Hilfe dieser ausgewählten Verfahren wurde die Bedeutung der Bewertung von vertrauenswürdigem Verhalten im Alltag untersucht und unterstrichen. Nach Riedl und Javor (2012) sind schlussfolgernd Investitionen in der Wirtschaft nur dann zu erwarten, wenn die Vertrauensverhältnisse gegenseitig bestätigt werden. Wenn die Wirtschaftsteilnehmenden enttäuscht und in ihrem Handeln getäuscht werden, kommt es zur Verarmung, dem Abbau von Beziehungen und infolgedessen zu materieller Armut.

Diese von Riedl und Javor (2012) hervorgehobene Interaktion zwischen Vertrauensbildung und gesellschaftlichem Wohlstand kann durch einen zusätzlichen Betrachtungswinkel ergänzt werden. Der amerikanische Politikwissenschaftler Dimock (1986) hat sich bereits in den 1980er-Jahren eingehend mit dem Thema Vertrauen und Wohlstand auseinandergesetzt und das Zusammenspiel von auf Kongruenz und Diskrepanz orientierten Kreativitätsfaktoren in sozioökonomischen Systemen analysiert. Kongruenz mit dem Bestehenden kann durch

Intuition, Synthese, Vorstellungskraft und die Berücksichtigung unterschiedlicher Aufmerksamkeitsebenen erreicht werden. Im Gegensatz dazu verursachen Krisen und daraus entstehende Konflikte Diskrepanzen, die dazu führen, dass bisherige Gewohnheiten, Ziele und Methoden in Frage gestellt und hinterfragt werden. Entscheidend aber ist, dass nur dann Führungsleitlinien und Visionen eines Unternehmens erfolgreich in die Praxis umgesetzt werden können, wenn die Abhängigkeitsverhältnisse zwischen den sozialen Mitgliedern durch gegenseitiges Vertrauen gesichert sind. Gegenseitiges Vertrauen und gegenseitige Abhängigkeit werden von Dimock (1986) als zwei zusammengehörende Gegensätze verstanden: einsteils von oben nach unten (top down) orientierend durch Festlegung strategischer Grundsätze und Inspiration und andererseits von unten nach oben (bottom-up) realisierend durch Motivation und praktischer Umsetzung durch die im sozialen System Beteiligten. Ferner führen bedrohliche Situationen durch aufeinander prallende Gegensätze zu Konflikten, die nur dann zur Möglichkeit führen, Gewohnheiten, bisherige Ziele und Methoden in Frage zu stellen, wenn sie als Chance zur Entwicklung betrachtet und angegangen werden.

Zusammenfassend lässt sich sagen, dass Organisationen, die ein Gleichgewicht zwischen den auf Kongruenz und auf Diskrepanz orientierten Kreativitätsfaktoren finden (Dimock, 1986), am effektivsten in der Lage sind, sich wirtschaftlich erfolgreich zu entwickeln und parallel dazu adäquat den menschlichen Bedürfnissen gerecht zu werden (Gasiet, 1981). In Bestätigung dieses Sachverhalts wird in der theoretischen Abhandlung von Mayer, Davis und Schoorman (1995) Vertrauen als eine Bereitschaft definiert, auf den Dialogpartner einzugehen. Diese Bereitschaft zu vertrauen, wird in der Meinung der drei Autoren dynamisch entwickelt und in einer Folge in situativen Feedbackschleifen durch die interaktive Auseinandersetzung der Beteiligten modifiziert. Damit kann das Vertrauensmodell von Mayer, Davis und Schoorman als ein Ansatz verstanden werden, Anforderungen aus den Berei-

chen der Unternehmensführung und Wirtschaft zu integrieren und deren Wirkung zu erklären.

2.1 Vertrauensbeziehungen und Wohlstand

Gegenseitiges Vertrauen schafft Vertrauensverhältnisse, die im Sinne der Evolution darauf abzielen, die Kontinuität einer Gemeinschaft zu erhalten. Vertrauensbeziehungen sind auch heute die Bindeglieder zwischen Kreativität und Innovation in einer modernen Gesellschaft. Riedl und Javor (2012) belegen in ihrer integrativ ausgerichteten Arbeit zwischen Neurologie, Psychologie und Wirtschaft, dass durch die Wahrnehmung von Vertrauenssignalen vertrauenswürdiges Verhalten durch die Freisetzung des Hormons Oxytocin gefördert wird, was zu einem näherungsorientierten Verhalten führt. Das Verhalten eines Mitglieds der Gesellschaft wird durch Umgebungs- wie auch biologische Faktoren beeinflusst. Die Autoren schlagen deshalb einen konzeptionellen Rahmen zur Untersuchung von Vertrauenssituationen vor, mit welchem sie die verschiedenen biologisch orientierten Forschungsbeiträge in ihrem Forschungs-Review in den Bereichen Genetik, Endokrinologie sowie Hirnfunktionalität untersuchen. Zusammenfassend folgern sie, dass die Wahrnehmung von Vertrauenssignalen den Oxytocin-Spiegel erhöht und damit ein Vertrauensverhältnis stabilisieren kann (Riedl & Javor, 2012). Ergänzend dazu wird durch wohlwollende kooperative Verhaltensweisen in Vertrauensbeziehungen Belohnung ausgelöst, die zusätzlich durch den positiven Einfluss von Oxytocin den Dopamin-Spiegel ansteigen lässt. Diese evolutionär angelegten Mechanismen sind entscheidend für die Gestaltung von Vertrauensbeziehungen in Familien wie auch in Unternehmen und mehr noch für das Funktionieren einer Wirtschaft. Vertrauen schafft Engagement und löst Prozesse der Kommunikation, Reflexion und Problemlösung aus. Wenn sich ein Mitglied der Gesellschaft auf der Grundlage einer positiven Einschätzung der Vertrauensbeziehungen dem sozialen Wohlbefinden in seinem Umfeld (Familie, Wirtschaft, Verein,

Politik) verpflichtet fühlt, kommt es zu einer positiven Entwicklung der externen Austauschprozesse. Der Umgang mit Unsicherheit und Ambivalenz sowie die Erlangung von Belohnung in einer vertrauensvollen Beziehung sind wichtige Funktionsmechanismen eines Individuums, die durch gegenseitiges Vertrauen zwischen den Mitgliedern in den sozioökonomischen Systemen unterstützt werden. So sind, in Anlehnung Riedl und Javor (2012), wirtschaftliche Investitionen nur dann zu erwarten, wenn Vertrauensverhältnisse gegenseitig bestätigt werden. Das bedeutet schlussfolgernd, dass das menschliche Grundbedürfnis nach gefühlsmässigen zwischenmenschlichen Beziehungen in sozialen Umgebungen als Antagonismus zur totalen Gleichgültigkeit zu respektieren ist (Gasić, 1981). Die aufmerksame Handhabung von vertrauensbildenden Prozessen in Organisationen erfordert volle Aufmerksamkeit.

2.2 Ein Beispiel für eine Vertrauenssituation

Eine fremde männliche Person um die 30 spricht einen Reisenden im Bahnhof an, als dieser auf den Zug zum Bahnsteig möchte. Der Mann, unauffällig mit Jeans gekleidet, zeigt ein paar Zwei- und Fünffranken-Münzen in seiner Hand und fragt in gebrochenem Deutsch mit italienischem Akzent nach dem besten Weg, eine Stelle zu finden. Ist es besser nach Frankreich oder nach Deutschland zu reisen? Wo ist die Chance grösser, einen Job zu finden? Und er erklärt, dass er von der Bahnhofspolizei eine Busse von CHF 50.00 erhalten habe. In seinen Augen lässt sich Ehrlichkeit, aber auch Anspannung erkennen. Es geht ihm nicht ums Betteln, dies geschieht nur aus einer Notsituation heraus. Auf Italienisch gibt ihm der Reisende einen bestmöglichen Rat. Deutschland ist vermutlich die bessere Wahl, Süddeutschland oder dann in den Norden nach Hamburg. Und dann gibt ihm der Reisende noch eine Fünffranken-Münze in die Hand, als Zustupf für die Begleichung der Busse. Die fremde männliche Person ist unheimlich dankbar dafür. Beide wünschen sich gegenseitig Glück.

Analyse: Der Vertrauensnehmer (trustee) wird vom Vertrauensgeber (trustor) aufgrund seiner Erscheinung, seines beobachtbaren Verhaltens und seiner erklärten Intention als vertrauenswürdig eingeschätzt. Der Vertrauensgeber (trustor) ist überzeugt, nicht angelogen zu werden und gibt dem Vertrauensnehmer (trustee) einen Rat und eine Fünffranken-Münze. Beide belohnen sich mit Dankbarkeit für das entgegengebrachte Vertrauen.

Theoretische Grundlage: Eine fremde Person wird vom Vertrauensgeber (trustor) aufgrund ihrer Erscheinung so eingeschätzt, dass Überzeugungen bezüglich ihrer Vertrauenswürdigkeit generiert werden. Nach Meinung von Meyer, Davis und Schoorman (1995) entstehen Überzeugungen gegenüber dem Vertrauensnehmer (trustee) aufgrund der Einschätzung von Fähigkeiten, Wohlwollen und Integrität (ability, benevolence, integrity). Gleich einer Kausalkette entsteht eine Haltung und es bilden sich infolgedessen auch Verhaltensintentionen, welche schlussendlich im konkreten Verhalten zum Ausdruck von Vertrauen oder Misstrauen bzw. Annäherung oder Vermeidung führen. Das vom Vertrauensgeber (trustor) gezeigte Verhalten gründet auf Überzeugungen und Einstellungen, die auf seine Verhaltensintention einwirken. Diese manifestieren sich nach Mayer, Davis und Schoorman (1995) in einer konkreten Risikosituation (perceived risk) als Vertrauensdisposition (trustor's propensity) und Risikopräferenz (risk taking in relationship).

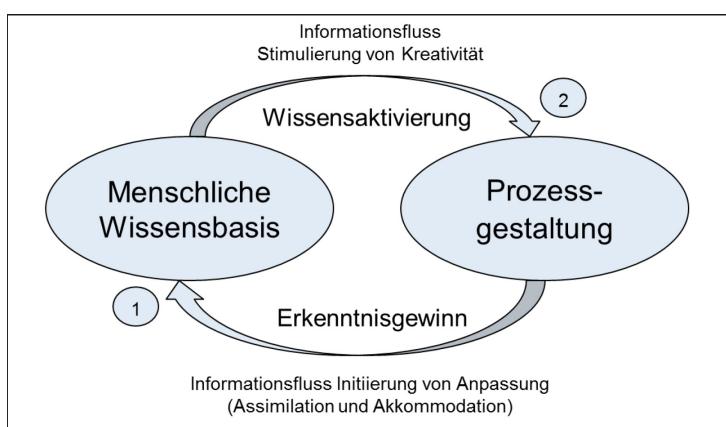
2.3 Durch Reziprozität zu kreativen Leistungen

Die menschliche Wissensbasis würde sich ohne die Existenz vertrauenswürdiger Beziehungen nicht entwickeln. Gegenseitiges Vertrauen gründet auf den Erfahrungen aus dem täglichen Leben in Dialogsituationen und bildet damit die Grundlage für den Erwerb neuen Wissens (siehe Abbildung 2.1). Reziprozität von Vertrauen ist nur dann möglich und macht nur dann Sinn, wenn soziale Strukturen wie Familien, Gruppen und Unternehmen so angelegt sind, dass sie bestrebt sind, gemeinsam gestaltete und gemeinsam erkannte Zukunftsvisionen

zu realisieren. Folglich entwickelt sich die Wissensbasis jedes Mitglieds konstruktiv durch herausfordernde Situationen, die als persönlich relevant und bereichernd empfunden werden. Aus der Interaktivität der menschlichen Funktionsmechanismen entstehen auf diese Weise durch Vertrauen situationsspezifisch und emotionsgebunden kreative und innovative Leistungen. Das menschliche Grundziel des Verhaltens ist es, entgegen der allgemeinen Vorstellung eines auf die Erreichung irgendwelcher Ziele ausgerichteten Verhaltens, die menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse zu befriedigen (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995; Gasiet, 1981; Grawe, 2004). Für Grawe bilden die menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse die aus der Evolution abgeleiteten Zielwerte, die in der ständigen Suche nach Konsistenz die Intentionalität des Menschen zum Ausdruck bringen (Grawe, 1998, 2004). Die dabei gewonnenen Erfahrungen bereichern das Selbst und fördern die Integration des erworbenen Wissens in die persönliche Wissensbasis. Die in Kommunikationssituationen aktivierten kognitiven Prozesse und emotionalen Zustände können in der Folge sowohl adaptives als auch maladaptives Verhalten auslösen.

Abbildung 2.1

Iterative Interaktion zwischen Wissen und Gestaltung



Die durch die kognitiven Prozesse generierten Informationsflüsse werden durch die situativ geprägten und emotionsgebundenen Aktivitäten in der Prozessgestaltung ausgelöst und führen zum Erwerb neuen Wissens (siehe Abbildung 2.1). Dieser Neuerwerb regt eine Anpassung der menschlichen Wissensbasis im Sinne der Erkenntnistheorie von Piaget (1976) an, entweder durch Assimilation oder durch Akkommodation. Einerseits fördert der von emotional bedeutsamen Erfahrungen geprägte Wissenserwerb den Vorgang der Assimilation (Piaget, 1976). Dieser führt zur strukturellen Erhaltung und Integration des Neuerwerbs in die bestehenden mentalen Schemata und damit zur Einpassung der wahrgenommenen Umgebung an die eigene Weltanschauung. Andererseits induziert der Neuerwerb den Vorgang der Akkommodation (Piaget, 1976), was die strukturelle Erweiterung der bestehenden mentalen Schemata ermöglicht, so dass die Weltanschauung des Individuums durch die neu erkannten Umgebungsbedingungen eine Umorientierung erfährt. Die zunehmende Lebenserfahrung, vermittelt durch die Gestaltung persönlich relevanter Lebenssituationen, fördert die Integration des neu erworbenen Wissens in die persönliche Wissensbasis (Abbildung 2.1: Pfeil 1). Auf der anderen Seite des Schaubilds können neue, emotional bedeutsame Lebenssituationen zu einer erhöhten Wissensaktivierung führen und damit als wesentliche Voraussetzung für die situationsgerechte kreative Prozessgestaltung dienen (Abbildung 2.1: Pfeil 2). Die iterative Interaktion zwischen Wissenserwerb in der menschlichen Wissensbasis und Prozessgestaltung ist der Schlüssel zum Selbstwachstum und fördert so kreative und innovative Problemlösungsprozesse. Neue Lebensumstände und menschliche Verhaltensabsichten (Grawe, 2004) bewirken neben den beiden Anpassungsprozessen der Assimilation und Akkommodation, dass vorhandenes Wissen durch Konnotation und Analogie aktiviert, in kreativen Problemlösungsprozessen weiterentwickelt und möglicherweise zu innovativen Ergebnissen führt. In Schlussfolgerung bedeutet dies, dass die Aktivierung von Wissen und der Erkenntnisgewinn durch neue Lebenssituationen interagierende kognitive Funktionen bilden, die einerseits An-

passungsprozesse der mentalen Schemata (Piaget, 1976) auslösen und andererseits kreatives Handeln und innovative Leistungen ermöglichen.

3. Emotionen und die Beurteilung kritischer Arbeitssituationen

In der Vorstellung von Epstein und Morling (1995) werden Situationen im Alltag auf verschiedene Eigenschaften hin geprüft, eingeschätzt und auf die vier menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse zurückbezogen: Selbstwerterhöhung (self-esteem enhancement), Orientierung und Kontrolle (self-verification), menschliche Verbundenheit (relatedness) sowie Balance zwischen Lust und Unlust (pleasure-pain-balance). In diesem Prozess der Beurteilung kritischer Arbeitssituationen spielen Emotionen eine entscheidende Rolle. Sie lösen mentale Prozesse aus, die aufgrund der in der Situation erkannten persönlichen Relevanz Verhalten zur Erfüllung der tangierten Bedürfnisse anstoßen. Ein entscheidendes Merkmal von Emotionen ist deshalb die Aktivierung von Verhaltensweisen zur Erfüllung der in der Situation betroffenen Bedürfnisse (Schirmer, 2015). Nach LeDoux werden Zustände, die wir Menschen mit Gefühlen assoziieren und als Gefühlszustände wahrnehmen, in der Regel in der neuronalen und psychologischen Forschung als Emotionen betitelt (LeDoux, 2012). In der Anwendung auf den Geschäftsalltag bedeutet dies, dass Arbeitssituationen auf persönliche Relevanz und emotionale Betroffenheit überprüft, bewertet und in ihrer Wahrnehmung auf die dadurch betroffenen menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse (Epstein & Morling, 1995) zurückgeführt werden. Folgt man dem US-amerikanischen Psychologen und Neurologen LeDoux (2012), initiiert die Aktivierung der Hirnregion Amygdala als Teil des limbischen Systems entweder eine langsame oder eine schnelle Verarbeitung selbstrelevanter Informationen. Die Amygdala, in ihrer Rolle als Relevanzdetektor, erkennt kontextspezifische Reize und führt das Individuum durch einen Interpretationszyklus, der einen Abgleich zwischen der Beurteilung der konkre-

ten Situation und der persönlichen Relevanz beinhaltet. Die Informationsverarbeitung erfolgt entweder automatisch schnell (low road) oder aber langsamer (high road), was auf die Aktivierung der Aufmerksamkeit und damit dem Cortex zurückzuführen ist.

Ausgehend von diesen informationsverarbeitenden Gehirnmechanismen lässt sich der Schluss ziehen, dass kritische, persönlich relevante Vertrauenssituationen im Geschäftsalltag zur Generierung und Regulation von Emotionen und Verhalten führen. Riedl und Javor (2012) machen deutlich, dass die Regulation des Verhaltens und damit auch der ausgelösten Emotionen in Vertrauenssituationen nebst den biologischen Faktoren wie Gene, Hormone und spezifische Hirnareale, von Umweltfaktoren wie Sozialisation, Kultur, Erfahrung und den spezifischen Anforderungen der Situation beeinflusst werden. Im Gegensatz zu den Auswirkungen biologischer Faktoren ist jedoch nur das menschliche Verhalten direkt beobachtbar.

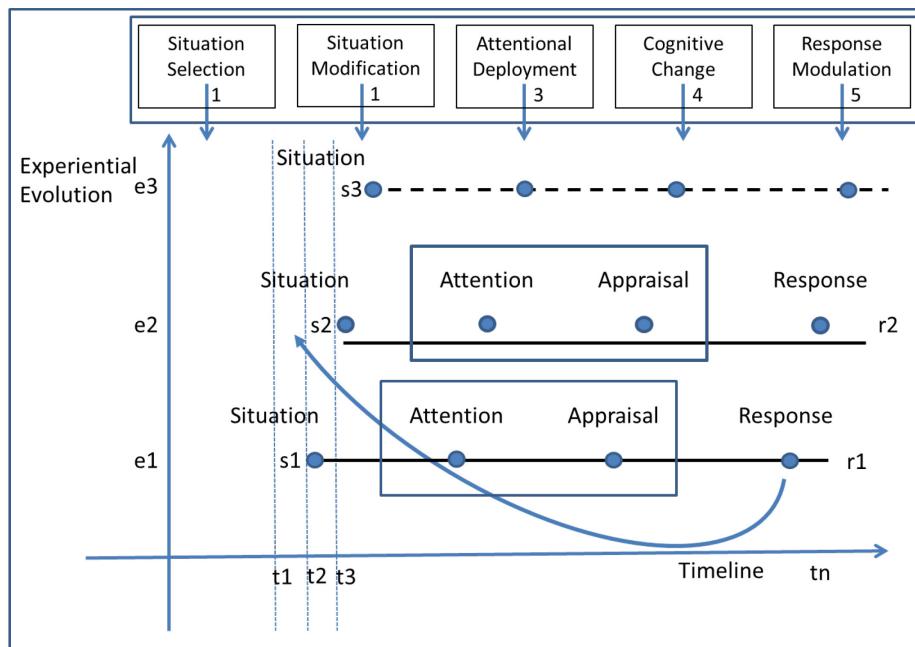
3.1 Emotionsregulation

Aufbauend auf diese neurologischen Operationsprinzipien haben Wissenschaftler und Therapeuten gezeigt, dass Emotionsregulationsstrategien in jeder neuen Situation iterativ beeinflusst und durch Interpretation ihrer Wahrnehmung modifiziert werden, was letztlich zu angepasstem oder fehlangepasstem Verhalten führen kann. Das von Gross und Thompson 2007 eingeführte Prozessmodell der Emotionsregulation (Werner & Gross, 2010, S. 18) zeigt potenzielle prozessspezifische Marker für die Umsetzung von Emotionsregulationsstrategien entlang der Schrittfolge: Situation (situation), Aufmerksamkeit (attention), Bewertung (appraisal), emotionale Reaktion (response) auf, die auf Basis von Feedbackschleifen geregelt werden (siehe Abbildung 3.1). Entlang des von Gross und Thompson propagierten Prozessmodells ist die Auswahl der Situation selbst die erste Schlüsselstrategie. Im Anschluss an diese Auswahlstrategie werden vier weitere intervenierende Optionen identifiziert, die die

Emotionsregulation durch situative Modifikation (situation modification), Aufmerksamkeiteinsatz (attentional deployment), kognitive Interpretationsänderung durch Neubewertung (cognitive change, reappraisal) und Antwortmodulation durch Emotionsunterdrückung (emotion suppression) oder Erfahrungshemmung (experience inhibition) unterstützen (Werner & Gross, 2010). Gross (2013) beschreibt in diesem Zusammenhang Suppression der Emotion als eine verhaltensorientierte Form der Emotionsregulation, in welcher eine Person ihren emotionalen Ausdruck unterdrückt, trotz ihrer emotionalen Erregung in der bestimmten Situation. Neubewertung (reappraisal) ist für Gross hingegen eine kognitive Form der Emotionsregulation. Die Person nimmt sich die Zeit, ihren Zustand in der Situation zu überdenken und neu zu bewerten, was eine sorgfältige Entscheidungsbildung unterstützt (Gross, 2013).

Abbildung 3.1

Prozessmodell der Emotionsregulation in Anlehnung an Werner und Gross (2010)



In Abbildung 3.1 werden in Anlehnung an Werner und Gross (2010, S. 18) die Grundelemente des Prozessmodells der Emotionsregulation in modifizierter Form im Zeitablauf als

ein iterativer Prozess dargestellt und mit den von den Autoren propagierten Emotionsregulationsstrategien ergänzt. Response r1 nimmt dabei Einfluss auf die nächste zur Auswahl stehende Situation, s2 als erlebte Entwicklung (experiential evolution) und trägt dabei im Zeitablauf von t1 zu t2 zum Erfahrungsaufbau von e1 zu e2 bei.

3.2 Emotionen in Kommunikationsprozessen

Kritische Arbeitssituationen führen durch sogenannte „emotionale“ Stimuli (LeDoux, 2012) im Rahmen von Kommunikationsprozessen im Unternehmen zur Aktivierung von angeborenen und erlernten neuronal beeinflussten Regulierungsvorgängen. Sie werden von LeDoux als Überlebens-Schaltkreise (survival circuits) verstanden und dienen als sensorisch-motorisch integrative Mechanismen adaptiven Zwecken. Die durch „emotionale“ Stimuli angestossene Motivation löst Verhalten in Reaktion auf die Stimuli aus, entweder als Ziel-Annäherung (approach) oder als Ziel-Vermeidung (avoidance). In der Meinung von LeDoux (2012), wirkt sich annäherungsorientierte Motivation (approach motivation) in einem ersten Schritt im Informationsverarbeitungsprozess antizipierend und explorativ auf die Suche nach dem Zielobjekt aus. Sobald ein Zielobjekt in Aussicht steht, wird im zweiten Schritt auf der Grundlage der durch „emotionale“ Stimuli angestossenen Motivation der Ressourceneinsatz für die Leistungserbringung ausgelöst. Durch Assoziationsbildung lösen Konditionierungsvorgänge (klassisch und instrumentell) Lernprozesse aus, die über die angeborenen Reaktionsweisen hinausgehen und zur Wahrnehmung von Chancen und Herausforderungen führen. Die Syntax der Sprache liefert zudem nach Meinung von LeDoux (2012, S. 666) dem Menschen eine einzigartige Möglichkeit zur Vorstellung der in der sozialen Situation gegebenen Beziehungen mit der simplen Frage „Wer will wem was tun?“. Daher haben die in Kommunikationssituationen ausgelösten Emotionen und die einhergehende motivationale Energetisierung des Verhaltens das Potenzial, die Entwicklung von Vertrauensbeziehungen durch die

Manifestation von annäherndem oder vermeidendem Verhalten zu beeinflussen. Dies kann sich in der Folge in der Bearbeitung von Konflikten kooperativ, ablehnend oder eskalierend auswirken (Folger et al., 2018).

Vertrauensvolle Beziehungen bilden folglich einen grundlegenden Ausgangspunkt für die Entstehung der Bereitschaft, in Kreativität und Innovationsleistung zu investieren (Dimock, 1986; Riedl & Javor, 2012). Nach Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt und Camerer (1998) ist Vertrauen als ein psychologischer Zustand zu verstehen, der die Bereitschaft zur Verletzlichkeit beinhaltet, was auf einer positiven Erwartungshaltung gegenüber den Absichten der anderen Person beruht. Zu dieser zusammenfassenden multidisziplinär entwickelten Vorstellung kommen die vier Autoren unter Verwendung psychologischer, organisatorischer, ökonomischer und soziologischer Quellen. Sie differenzieren auf dieser Basis drei Vertrauensarten: ein institutionelles, ein berechnendes und ein Beziehungs-orientiertes Vertrauen. Das Beziehungs-orientierte Vertrauen entwickelt sich im Gegensatz zum laufend abschwächenden berechnenden Vertrauen später im Zeitverlauf (Rousseau et al., 1998). Vertrauen wird deswegen als dynamisch betrachtet, da es sich auf allen Ebenen vom Individuum bis zur Institution als psychologisch entwickelter Zustand im Zeitverlauf gestaltet, welcher jeweils aufgrund von organisatorischen Veränderungen im Unternehmen spürbar beeinflusst wird. Für Mayer, Davis und Schoorman (1995) wird in Ergänzung dazu Verhalten im Geschäftsalltag in zweifacher Hinsicht in interpersonellen Beziehungen beeinflusst. Einsteils entscheidet das in der Beziehungsgestaltung aufgebaute Vertrauen über die Bereitschaft zur Verletzlichkeit, welche andererseits durch die Risikoeinschätzung in der konkreten Situation des Vertrauenden abgewogen wird. Beides zusammen führt nach Mayer, Davis und Schoorman (1995) zu Verhaltensmanifestationen in Beziehungen, die durch die Bereitschaft zur Risikoübernahme gekennzeichnet sind (Risk Taking in Relationship: RTR). Situationen, welche RTR bewirken, unterscheiden sich vom generellen Risikoverhalten wie etwa beim Lottospiel, beim saisona-

len Einkauf einer Kleiderkollektion für eine Boutique oder beim Überqueren der Strasse bei roter Ampel, welche unabhängig von einem Beziehungspartner eingegangen werden. Beides zusammen, die Bereitschaft zur Verletzlichkeit und die Einschätzung des Situationsrisikos im organisationalen interdependenten Setting, führen im Endeffekt zum „Risk Taking in Relationship“ als konkret manifestiertes Verhalten, bei welchem Vertrauen die Risikoeinschätzung überwiegt. Vertrauen erhöht die Wahrscheinlichkeit, dass Risiken im täglichen Umgang mit Vertretern verschiedener Parteien eingegangen werden, wobei Vertrauen die Bereitschaft zur Verletzlichkeit erhöht. Persönlich relevante Situationen beinhalten darüber hinaus ein Verlustrisiko, was die Gefahr der Verletzlichkeit erhöht und in einem Zustand von Verletzlichkeit zu sein, bedeutet Risiken einzugehen, die gesichert werden müssen. Die Bereitschaft, sich in einer konkreten Situation auf Risiken einzulassen und trotz der beigemessenen persönlichen Relevanz Verletzlichkeit gegenüber dem Trustee zuzugestehen, bestimmt den Level an Vertrauen in der Beziehungsgestaltung. Dieser Effekt schafft Vertrauen oder Misstrauen und damit ein Verhalten, das darauf abzielt, den Ansprechpartner weiterhin in kooperativen Absichten anzusprechen oder aber zu vermeiden.

4. Die Entwicklung des Selbst

Die Interaktion zwischen Wissenserwerb und aktiver Prozessgestaltung im Laufe des Lebens bildet die Grundlage zum Selbstwachstum. Dieses Selbstwachstum ist entscheidend daran beteiligt, dass kreative und innovative Wege der Problemlösung erkundet werden. Die Entwicklung des Selbst stellt in diesem Sinne den entscheidenden Ansatzpunkt für die lebenslange Innovationskraft des Menschen dar.

Die Ursprünge des Begriffs „Selbst“ haben ihre Wurzeln in der Arbeit von Bartlett (1932, S. 201), in welcher er den Begriff „Schema“ als die interne Repräsentation und aktive

Organisation vergangener Reaktionen und Erfahrungen beschreibt. Lebenserfahrung ist daher die Quelle aller Informationen, die benötigt werden, um ein Bild von sich selbst und der Welt kontinuierlich zu entwickeln. Basierend auf dieser Prämisse hat Piaget (1976) die Schematheorie als Theorie der Selbstentwicklung und damit als kontinuierliche Anpassung an die Anforderungen des täglichen Lebens konzipiert. Die Entwicklung des Selbst wird durch Assimilations- und Akkommodationsprozesse auf der Suche nach einem Gleichgewicht zwischen den situativen Anforderungen und den bis dahin entwickelten Schemata gestaltet. In Anlehnung an Schirmer (2015), entwickelt sich das Selbst dynamisch durch die ständige Bewertung von Situationen, die als kritisch für das eigene Wohlbefinden empfunden werden. Die Schlussfolgerung aus Schirmers (2015) Analyse der historischen Entwicklung der Forschungserkenntnisse über die Entstehung und Regulation von Emotion, ist für die Wirtschaft bemerkenswert. Die in persönlich bedeutungsvollen Situationen hervorgerufenen Emotionen aktivieren zur Befriedigung der jeweiligen persönlichen Bedürfnisse Erinnerungen und Verhaltenstendenzen aus dem gespeicherten Erfahrungswissen. Diese können jeweils durch Neubewertungsvorgänge (reappraisal) beeinflusst und verändert werden. In Übereinstimmung von Miller, Galanter und Pribram (1960) trägt ein Bild über das Selbst und die Welt zur Spezifikation und zum Test eines vorgestellten Ergebnisses bei und damit zur Lösung von Inkongruenzen. Das bedeutet, dass die Intentionalität des menschlichen Verhaltens auf der Suche nach Konsistenz als ein universelles, durchdringendes Regulierungsprinzip verstanden werden kann (Grawe, 1998, 2004). Dabei wird die Kongruenz von persönlich bedeutsamen Erfahrungen wie Erfolg oder Misserfolg auf der Grundlage der aktivierten Schemata eingeschätzt. Auf diese Weise wird ein starker Einfluss auf die Motivation der betroffenen Person ausgeübt.

Zusammenfassend kann die Vorstellung des Selbst als eine persönliche Theorie verstanden werden (Grawe, 1998), die dazu angelegt ist, Verhalten in Interaktion mit der gege-

benen und gewählten Umgebung so zu steuern, dass die Grundbedürfnisse bestmöglich erfüllt werden.

4.1 Grundbedürfnisse als Grundbaustein des Selbst

Die menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse, wie sie von Epstein und Morling (Epstein & Morling, 1995) und darauf aufbauend auch von Grawe (1998) angesprochen werden, stellen den Nährboden für die Realisierung von Erfahrungen und damit die Entwicklung des Selbst dar. Sie bilden die aus der Evolution abgeleiteten Zielwerte, die das Verhalten auf der ständigen Suche nach Konsistenz leiten und damit die Intentionalität des Menschen begründen (Grawe, 2004).

Folgt man Epstein und Morling (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995) gibt es aufgrund der evolutionären Entwicklung der menschlichen Informationsverarbeitung zwei parallele Selbstkonzepte, die zwei verschiedene Systeme umfassen: das evolutionäre jüngere und langsamer arbeitende rationale System und das ältere schnell arbeitende, auf Erfahrung ausgerichtete System, das auf Emotionen basiert. Daher entwickelt sich das Selbst in der globalen Persönlichkeitstheorie (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995), der Cognitive-Experiential Self-Theory (CEST), auf der Grundlage von Lebenserfahrung, die von zwei verschiedenen Systemen zur Anpassung an die Realität ausgewertet werden. Das rationale System zeichnet bewusste, verbale Einschätzungen des Selbstwerts einer Person auf. Andererseits repräsentiert das auf Erfahrung gründende System schematische Beurteilungen und die daraus resultierenden Gefühle einer Person (Epstein & Morling, 1995).

Das Selbst entwickelt sich aufgrund der Lebenserfahrungen mit den grundlegenden Bedürfnissen einer Person. Auf der Suche nach massgeschneiderten Informationen zur Befriedigung der vier menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse entstehen nach Epstein und Morling (1995) Netzwerke aus Grundüberzeugungen (basic beliefs), die implizite Schemata über sich selbst,

die Welt und die gemachten Erfahrungen verkörpern. Diese impliziten Schemata sind mit den vier Grundbedürfnissen mittels vier miteinander verbundener und interagierender Netzwerke verbunden, die als Check-and-Balance-System wirken (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995). Es handelt sich um vier Grundbedürfnisse, die mittels zweier separater Systeme zur Adaption an die Realität erfasst und bewertet werden (Epstein & Morling, 1995): Selbstwert-erhöhung (self-esteem enhancement), Selbst-Verifikation zur Orientierung und Kontrolle (self-verification), menschliche Verbundenheit (relatedness) und Streben nach Gleichgewicht in der Lustvermehrung und Unlustvermeidung (pleasure/pain balance). Dieses auf Kontrolle und Ausgleich ausgerichtete System zielt darauf ab, keines der Grundbedürfnisse zu gefährden oder zu beeinträchtigen (Epstein & Morling, 1995). Alle vier grundlegenden Bedürfnisse sind prinzipiell simultan aktiviert und beeinflussen sich in konkreten Situationen gegenseitig. In der Vorstellung von Epstein (2003), speichert das auf Erfahrung ausgerichtete System Informationen über die Welt und das Selbst entweder als Erinnerungen über individuell erlebte Ereignisse oder aber in abstrakter, generalisierter Form. Es funktioniert automatisch, schnell verarbeitend, nonverbal, emotional und beruht auf Bildern, Episoden, Scripts, Erzählungen und Geschichten. Das rational-orientierte System hingegen ist bewusst, langsamer in der Verarbeitung und beruht auf abstrakter Analyse und geplantem Verhalten (Epstein, 2003). Auf diese Weise entstehen zwei verschiedene Konzeptionen des Selbst: eine bewusste, explizite Repräsentation des Selbst und eine implizite, erfahrungsbasierte Selbsteinschätzung (Epstein & Morling, 1995). Das gewählte Verhalten führt in der Regel zu einem Kompromiss zwischen den Ansprüchen der vier Grundbedürfnisse und kaum zur absoluten Erfüllung eines einzigen Bedürfnisses, was das Risiko der gegenseitigen Verletzung beinhalten würde (Epstein & Morling, 1995). Deswegen wird die Befriedigung eines Bedürfnisses gezielt in bestmögliche Harmonie mit den anderen Bedürfnissen gestellt.

4.1.1 Die Wirkung von Gefühlsverletzungen: ein literarisches Beispiel

Emotionen bilden die Grundlage für die Einschätzung der konkreten Situation auf Relevanz für die eigene Person. Zur Illustration folgt ein Ausschnitt aus dem Hörbuch zu Gottfried Kellers Erzählung „Kleider machen Leute“, erschienen 1874 im zweiten Band des Novellenzyklus „Die Leute von Seldwyla“, welches die Gefühlsbewegungen von Wenzel Strapski darstellt (Keller, 2006, Disc 2, Track 4). Die ausgewählten Textpassagen der Novelle entstammen dem Reclam Textbuch (Reclam XL –Text und Kontext) der Kindle-Version (Keller, 2017):

Das erste deutliche Gefühl, dessen er innewurde, war dasjenige einer ungeheuren Schande, gleich wie wenn er ein wirklicher Mann von Rang und Ansehen gewesen und nun infam geworden wäre durch Hereinbrechen irgendeines verhängnisvollen Unglücks. Dann löste sich dieses Gefühl aber auf in eine Art Bewusstsein erlittenen Unrechtes; er hatte sich bis zu seinem glorreichen Einzug in die verwünschte Stadt nie ein Vergehen zu Schulden kommen lassen; soweit seine Gedanken in die Kindheit zurückreichten, war ihm nicht erinnerlich, dass er je wegen einer Lüge oder einer Täuschung gestraft oder gescholten worden wäre, und nun war er ein Betrüger geworden dadurch, dass die Torheit der Welt ihn in einem unbewachten und sozusagen wehrlosen Augenblicke überfallen und ihn zu ihrem Spielgesellen gemacht hatte. Er kam sich wie ein Kind vor, welches ein anderes boshaftes Kind überredet hat, von einem Altare den Kelch zu stehlen; er hasste und verachtete sich jetzt, aber er weinte auch über sich und seine unglückliche Verirrung. ... Unser Schneider aber weinte bitterlich über sich, das heißt, er fing solches plötzlich an, als nun seine Gedanken an der schweren Kette, an der sie hingen, unversehens zu der verlassenen Braut zurückkehrten und sich aus Scham vor der Unsichtbaren zur Erde krümmten. Das Unglück und die Erniedrigung zeigten ihm mit einem hellen Strahle das verlorene

Glück und machten aus dem unklar verliebten Irrgänger einen verstoßenen Liebenden. ...

Der tolle Zug fuhr vorbei und verhallte endlich in der dunklen Ferne, ohne dass der Flüchtling bemerkt worden war; dieser aber, nachdem er eine gute Weile reglos gelauscht hatte, von der Kälte wie von den erst genossenen feurigen Getränken und seiner gramvollen Dummheit übermannt, streckte unvermerkt seine Glieder aus und schlief ein auf dem knisternden Schnee, während ein eiskalter Hauch von Osten heranzuwehen begann.

(Keller, 2017, S. 38-40)

Wenzel Strapinski, das arme Schneiderlein auf der Suche nach Arbeit, erlebt die Bedrohung seines Selbstwerts. Strapinski fühlt sich in seiner Ehre verletzt und empfindet dabei grosse Scham. Vor den Augen der Hochzeitsgesellschaft wird er im Wirtshaus auf der Strecke zwischen Seldwyla und Goldach als Betrüger entlarvt und lächerlich gemacht. Er ist nur das arme Schneiderlein aus Seldwyla und nicht mehr der Graf Strapinski, mit Geld und Ansehen. Die Verlobung mit Nettchen, der Tochter des Amtsrats von Goldach kann nicht vollzogen werden. Wenzel Strapinski weiss, dass das Ganze aufgrund einer unheilvollen Verkettung von Missverständnissen entstanden ist und nicht aus bösen Absichten. Er fühlt sich deshalb betrogen. Da er sich nicht mehr zu helfen weiss, legt er sich im kalten Winternachmittag auf dem Weg zurück von Goldach nach Seldwyla in den Schnee, in der Hoffnung sanft einzuschlafen.

4.2 Deskriptive und motivationale Schemata

Wie in den Grundüberlegungen zur Gestaltung der menschlichen Wissensbasis dargestellt (Abbildung 2.1), entwickelt sich die Wissensbasis laufend. Sie wird durch tägliche Erfahrungen im Umgang mit Vertrauensbeziehungen und in Ausrichtung auf die Umsetzung von übergeordneten Visionen für die Lebensgestaltung gespeist. Die Schematheorie, als Theorie der Selbstentwicklung (Piaget, 1976), begreift die Entwicklung des Selbst als eine stetige

Anpassung (adaption) an die Anforderungen des täglichen Lebens. Durch Übernahme und Integration von neuen Inhalten in bestehende Schemata (Assimilation) oder durch Modifikation der eigenen Schemata an die äusseren Bedingungen und durch Neuschaffung (Akkommodation) wird auf der Suche nach einem Gleichgewicht zwischen den situativen Anforderungen und den bis dahin entwickelten Schemata ein Anpassungsprozess gestaltet (Abbildung 2.1: Pfeil 1). Ausgehend von den verhaltensbestimmenden Grundbedürfnissen (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995) ist auf der anderen Seite der dynamischen Gestaltung der menschlichen Wissensbasis die Intentionalität des Menschen zu berücksichtigen (Grawe, 1998, 2004), welche auf der Suche nach Konsistenz in der Erfüllung der Grundbedürfnisse (Abbildung 2.1: Pfeil 2) durch Prozessgestaltung die Entstehung und Pflege von Vertrauensbeziehungen beeinflusst. Dies in der Idee, das Grundbedürfnis nach gefühlsmässigen zwischenmenschlichen Beziehungen und damit einhergehend auch die Grundbedürfnisse nach Orientierung und Kontrolle, nach Selbstwerterhöhung und nach der Balance zwischen Lustvermehrung und Unlustvermeidung anzustreben.

Die Erfüllung der Grundbedürfnisse führt auf Basis neuronaler Prozesse auf der Systemebene Mensch zur angestrebten Konsistenz und dynamischen Regulation des psychischen Funktionierens. Das Bedürfnis nach Konsistenz wird in seiner Intentionalität von Grawe zum übergeordneten grundlegenden Prinzip der innerorganismischen Regulation erklärt (Grawe, 2004). So ist es zu verstehen, dass der Mensch, ausgehend von emotional bedeutsamen Lebenserfahrungen, deskriptive Schemata zur Repräsentation der Welt und des Selbst entwickelt und diese durch motivationale annäherungs- oder vermeidungsorientierte Schemata ergänzt (Grawe, 1998). Deskriptive sowie motivationale Schemata beinhalten die verdichtete Erfahrung eines Menschen, was er tun oder vermeiden sollte, und die Mittel zur Befriedigung der Grundbedürfnisse mittels Aktivierung der damit verbundenen und erinnerten Pläne und Verhaltensweisen (Grawe, 1998). Die menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse dienen in dieser Hin-

sicht dem psychologischen System als aus der Evolution abgeleitete Zielwerte und drücken damit die Intentionalität des menschlichen Verhaltens auf der Suche nach Konsistenz als übergreifendes Regulationsprinzip aus (Grawe, 1998, 2004). Dieser evolutionäre lebensleitende Mechanismus der Intentionalität der Menschen und die ständige Suche nach Konsistenz beeinflussen die Entwicklung von Vertrauensbeziehungen und die Bereitschaft, Risiken einzugehen. Auf dieser Grundlage wird kreatives Verhalten der Menschen in ihrer Rolle als Mitglied der Gesellschaft, einer Gruppe oder als Mitarbeitende eines Unternehmens in Ausrichtung auf die innovative Entwicklung beeinflusst. Persönlich bedeutsame Erfahrungen wie Erfolg oder Misserfolg werden infolgedessen als kongruent oder inkongruent (Grawe, 2004) zu den entwickelten motivationalen Schemata interpretiert, wodurch der Grad der Motivation der betroffenen Person beeinflusst wird. Basierend auf den situationsbezogenen Einschätzungen der persönlich verfügbaren Ressourcen und der umweltbezogenen Handlungsoptionen bestimmt der Mensch jeweils aus seiner Sicht in Konfliktsituationen bei Inkongruenz-Signalen angemessene Bewältigungsstrategien und leitet Maßnahmen zur Situationsbewältigung durch Coping ein (Cox et al., 2011; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Gelegentlich kann der Bewältigungsprozess ins Stocken geraten und schließlich zum Misserfolg führen. Nach Carver und Scheier wird, gleich einem Regelsystem, die persönliche Einschätzung des Zielerreichungsgrads durch Beobachtung der emotionalen Zustände und der erwarteten Ergebnisse im Abgleich mit dem realisierten Verhalten identifiziert und dynamisch gesteuert (Carver, 2006; Carver & Scheier, 2000, 2001). Die zugrunde liegenden Handlungstendenzen (action tendencies) werden nach Carver (2006) durch Feedbackschleifen gesteuert und manifestieren sich durch zwei verschiedene selbstregulierende Funktionen, eine als zielbezogene Diskrepanz-Reduktion (approach) oder aber als zielbezogene Diskrepanz-Erweiterung (avoidance), was zu einem Rückzug und einem für die Kooperation ungünstigen Verhalten führt.

5. Konsistenzregulation als lebenserhaltendes Prinzip

Die Einschätzung des Befriedigungsgrades der Grundbedürfnisse trägt aufgrund der Aktivierung von Lernprozessen in Alltagssituationen zum Wissenserwerb bei. Auf der Grundlage der Ergebnisse dieser persönlichen Beurteilungen lösen die freigesetzten Emotionen Aktivitäten auf der Suche nach überzeugenden situationsgebundenen Hinweisen und Erklärungen aus. Die Theorie des Selbst CEST charakterisiert dieses Streben des Menschen als eine unermüdliche Suche nach bedürfnisrelevanten Informationen (Epstein & Morling, 1995). Grundlegende Überzeugungen über das Selbst und die Welt werden nach CEST auf der Grundlage von persönlich bedeutsamen Erfahrungen generiert, die zu impliziten Schema verfestigt werden und damit das zukünftige Verhalten beeinflussen. Die resultierenden Einschätzungen führen zu individuell unterschiedlichen verhaltensbestimmenden Überzeugungen. Das Selbst und die Welt wird auf einem bedürfnisspezifischen Kontinuum bewertet, das von angenehm bis bösartig (pleasure principle), von vertrauenswürdig bis gefährlich (interpersonal relationships, relatedness), von wertvoll und geschätzt bis unwürdig (self-esteem enhancement) und von sinnvoll bis bedeutungslos (predictability, controllability, justice, self-verification) bezüglich der Stabilität und Kohärenz der persönlichen Theorie der Realität reicht. In der kognitiv-erfahrungsorientierten Theorie des Selbst (CEST) beeinflussen sich die vier Grundbedürfnisse jeweils simultan und lösen dann Druck zum Ausgleich der gleichberechtigten Interessen aus, wenn eines der Bedürfnisse überbetont wird (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995).

Die Bewertung von selbstrelevanten Informationen in persönlich kritischen Situationen baut nach LeDoux (2012) auf biologischen Wurzeln auf. Zum einen werden sie aufgrund von angeborenen oder erlernten Stimuli automatisch aktiviert und bewirken unter anderem die aktive Verteidigung in bedrohlichen oder führen zur Flucht in Angst auslösenden Situationen.

Zum anderen aber führen sie aufgrund bewusster Informationsverarbeitung zu einer Kategorisierung und einem Abgleich des wahrgenommenen Zustands mit früheren Erfahrungen. Aus klinisch-psychologischer Sicht kann die Bewertung der selbstbezogenen Information zusammen mit der Regulierung der hervorgerufenen Emotionen zu einem der Situation angemessenen oder aber zu einem für die betroffene Person ungünstigen Verhalten führen. Gemäß Epstein (2003) kann diese Tatsache verwendet werden, um die Interaktion zwischen der rational, mit Hilfe der Sprache entwickelten Logik (rational system) und den aus Erfahrungswerten abgeleiteten emotional unterlegten Überzeugungen (experiential system) zu nutzen. Dies geschieht, um ungünstige Verhaltensweisen mit dem Ziel anzupassen, neue zu erlernen, was zu einer Erweiterung des Erfahrungsraums führen würde. Die impliziten ganzheitlichen Schemata des menschlichen Erfahrungssystems können gemäss der globalen Theorie des Selbst CEST durch Beobachtung des Verhaltens und den parallel dazu erfahrenen Emotionen abgeleitet werden und als Grundlage für die Planung psychotherapeutischer Interventionsansätze dienen (Epstein & Morling, 1995).

5.1 Vertrauen und die Bereitschaft zur Risikoübernahme

In Übereinstimmung mit LeDoux (2012), beinhaltet das manifestierte Verhalten Motivation, sowohl als ein Streben in Richtung des Erwünschten als auch zur Vermeidung des Unerwünschten. Ausgehend von der Suche nach Konsistenz werden aus intrapersoneller Sicht Annäherungs- oder Vermeidungsstrategien mit dem Ziel initiiert, den Abstand zu einem gewünschten Ziel zu verkürzen oder umgekehrt zum Anti-Ziel zu vergrößern. Nach Carver und Scheier (Carver, 2006; Carver & Scheier, 2000, 2001) unterliegen deshalb beide Strategien einem neuronal getrennten Regulationssystem, das aufgrund von Feedback-Loops durch zwei bipolare Dimensionen der affektiven Erfahrung gesteuert wird. Entweder wirkt sich die Diskrepanz-Erweiterung zum Anti-Ziel auf einer Skala von Angst bis Erleichterung oder die

Diskrepanz-Reduktion zum Ziel auf einer Skala von Begeisterung bis hin zu Depression aus. Feedback entsteht auf diese Weise durch die mit der Einschätzung des Zielerreichungsgrades ausgelösten Emotionen, welche den weiteren Verlauf des Verhaltens auf der Suche nach Konsistenz zum angestrebten Ziel oder Anti-Ziel steuern. Es wird deutlich, dass eine Diskrepanz-Erweiterung zum Anti-Ziel bedeutend schwieriger zu erreichen ist und daher ungemein mehr emotionale Betroffenheit verursacht als eine Diskrepanz-Reduktion zu einem Ziel. Für Grawe (2004) bedeutet dies, dass Vermeidungsziele, wie Anti-Ziele es sind, im Gegensatz zu Annäherungszielen nie effizient verfolgt und kaum erreicht werden können.

In Ergänzung zu dieser Diskrepanz-orientierten Betrachtung des emotionalen Geschehens wird Konsistenz von Grawe (2004) als ein eigenständiges pervasives Regulationsprinzip verstanden, das auf der Grundlage von vier Grundbedürfnissen Verhalten steuert. Mit dieser Ausrichtung auf die vier Grundbedürfnisse wird die Intentionalität des Menschen in Verbindung mit seiner Umgebung gestellt. Es sind dies, in analogem Verständnis zu Epstein und Morling (1995), das Streben nach Selbstwerterhöhung und Selbstwertschutz, nach Orientierung und Kontrolle, nach erfüllenden zwischenmenschlichen Bindungen und nach Lustgewinn und Unlustvermeidung. So ist die Konsistenzregulation darauf ausgelegt, einerseits die Diskordanz zwischen persönlich relevanten und abweichenden Motivationstendenzen zu lösen und andererseits die Inkongruenz mit der wahrgenommenen Erfahrungsrealität zu beseitigen. Bereits das Neugeborene ist mit seinem ersten Atemzug auf die vertrauensvolle Beziehung zu einer Bezugsperson angewiesen. In der Folge führen persönlich relevante Ergebnisse aus Vertrauenssituationen (Mayer et al., 1995) auf der Suche nach erfüllenden zwischenmenschlichen Beziehungen situationsspezifisch zu Neubewertungen der Vertrauensverhältnisse (Grawe, 2004). Die Ergebnisse der wahrgenommenen Vertrauenswürdigkeit beeinflussen in der Folge die Bereitschaft, Risiken einzugehen und etwa Gelegenheiten zur Einleitung von Veränderung im Privaten wie auch in organisatorischen Strukturen eines Unternehmens

zu erkennen und nutzbringend für sich und das Unternehmen umzusetzen. Grundsätzlich ist Zusammenarbeit im Unternehmen von Interdependenz geprägt, in welcher einander zwei Parteien gegenüber stehen: eine vertrauende Partei als dem Trustor und dem Trustee zu welchem Vertrauen entgegengebracht wird (Mayer et al., 1995). Dies bedeutet, dass Mitarbeitende zur Erfüllung ihrer eigenen Ziele und der Ziele des Unternehmens in einem Abhängigkeitsverhältnis stehen und Vertrauen die notwendige Kohäsion zur erfolgreichen Zusammenarbeit bildet.

Die Wahrnehmung von Diskrepanzen in der Erfüllung der Grundbedürfnisse lösen diskordante und inkongruente Signale aus, die als Krisensituation Verhalten auf der Suche nach einer konsistenten Sinngebung aktivieren. Ausgehend von der Intentionalität des menschlichen Verhaltens als stetigem Steuerungsmechanismus werden in persönlich relevanten Situationen Diskordanzen zwischen in Konflikt stehenden motivationalen Tendenzen und Inkongruenzen zwischen der Realität und den aktivierten motivationalen Zielen als Diskrepanz wahrgenommen (Grawe, 2004). In der Überzeugung von Grawe (2004) sind es letztendlich die Grundbedürfnisse, die der Mensch durch Annäherungs- oder Vermeidungsziele zu befriedigen oder vor Verletzung zu schützen sucht. Diskordanzen lösen, aufgrund der gleichzeitig aktivierten und sich dadurch hemmenden Tendenzen, motivationale Konflikte aus in denen es zu parallel wirkenden und sich blockierenden Verhaltensintentionen (Annäherungs-Annäherung, Annäherung-Vermeidung oder Vermeidung-Vermeidung) kommt. Inkongruenzen hingegen führen bei einem in der realen Situation erlebten Fehlschlag entweder zu Annäherungs- oder zu Vermeidungskongruenz, welche bewusst oder unbewusst aufgrund der aktivierten persönlich relevanten Ziele einen emotional starken Zustand auslösen. Verhaltens-Blockierung und in der Folge das Nichterreichen von Annäherungs- und Vermeidungszielen führen in der Summe zu einem hohen Inkongruenz-Niveau mit einem andauernd erhöhten Pegel negativer Emotionen. Nach Grawe (2004) ist ein erhöhtes Inkongruenz-Niveau als ein

höchst komplexer Stresszustand anzusehen. Diese als Inkonsistenz des Systems erlebten Diskrepanzen lösen Verhalten auf der Suche nach konsistenter Sinngebung aus. Die motivationalen Ziele bestimmen, bewusst oder unbewusst, das Erleben und Verhalten eines Menschen, das auf die Erfüllung der Grundbedürfnisse ausgerichtet ist (Grawe, 2004).

In interdependenten Beziehungsstrukturen, wie sie im organisationalen Kontext strukturell angelegt sind, wird nach Meinung von Folger, Poole und Stutman (2018) in der Differenzierungsphase von Konfliktbearbeitungen der Weg zu einer kooperationsfähigen Zusammenarbeit der beteiligten Parteien eingegrenzt. Wenn es den einander gegenüberstehenden Parteien gelingt, sich auszusprechen und die eigene Position darzustellen, dann ist der Weg zur Lösungsfindung in der Integrationsphase der Konfliktlösung vorbereitet. Der Weg zur Integration der Positionen wird jedoch generell durch starr vermeidendes oder durch eskalierendes, auf Macht ausgerichtetes Verhalten eingegrenzt (Folger et al., 2018). Die in der Interaktion wahrgenommene Inkompatibilität und Vorwegnahme von Interferenzen zwischen den Parteien führt aufgrund der Personalisierung des Konflikts zu Emotionen, die die Unsicherheit bezüglich des Ausgangs und dessen Konsequenzen verstärken. Beide Tendenzen, ob starr, vermeidend oder eskalierend, gilt es nach Meinung von Folger und Kollegen (2018) durch die Analyse der Machtstrukturen als Grundlage der Konfliktarchitektur und dem Einsatz geeigneter Interventionsstrategien wie der Gesichtswahrung (face-saving) oder der Entwicklung einer Konfliktkultur zu begegnen. Die Anwendung von Gesichtswahrungsstrategien wie auch die Pflege einer Unternehmenskultur, die Regeln und Verhaltensweisen für ein positives Klima zwischen den interdependenten Interaktionspartnern schult und fordert, bewirken, dass sich Konfliktsituationen in Richtung Problemlösung bewegen, ohne durch Eskalation zu provozieren oder aufgrund von Vermeidung den Prozess lahmzulegen. In Arbeitssituationen sind aber Intentionalität und Umsetzungsmotivation als Lebensprinzip (Grawe, 2004) zusammen mit der auf Vertrauen beruhenden Bereitschaft, Risiken im organi-

sationalen Kontext einzugehen (Mayer et al., 1995) unverzichtbar für Kreativität und Wachstum von Menschen und Organisationen.

5.2 Die Einschätzung von Vertrauenswürdigkeit

Mayer, Davis und Schoorman (1995) liefern im Journal „The Academy of Management Review“ eine theoretische Argumentation für den Zusammenhang zwischen Vertrauen und Risikobereitschaft. Sie ergänzen ihr vorgeschlagenes integratives Modell des dyadischen Vertrauens im organisationalen Kontext durch sechs Aussagen, die sie zur weiteren Untersuchung vorschlagen (propositions). Sie beschreiben Vertrauen zwischen interdependenten Parteien als dynamisch entwickelt und durch eine Reihe von situativen Feedbackschleifen modifiziert. Andere Konzepte wie Kooperation (cooperation), Zuversicht (confidence) und Vorhersagbarkeit (predictability), die parallel in der Forschungsliteratur zum Thema Vertrauen verwendet werden, grenzen sie vom Konzept Vertrauen ab. Das von Mayer, Davis und Schoorman vorgeschlagene integrative Modell des organisationalen Vertrauens ist gewollt sparsam in seiner Konstruktion. Es bildet in seiner Schlichtheit den konzeptionellen Rahmen für weiterführende empirische Forschung der Beziehung zwischen Trustor und Trustee, der Entstehung von Vertrauen im Verlaufe der Zeit, den Ursachen für Vertrauen und den Folgen für die Entwicklung von Vertrauen. Als Modell bietet es den Rahmen für die organisationale Betrachtung, die Potenzialanalyse und die Bestimmung von vertrauensbildenden Massnahmen im Unternehmenskontext aus führungs- und betriebswirtschaftlicher Sicht.

Entscheidend bei der Beurteilung von Vertrauen im organisationalen Kontext ist, dass persönlich relevante Erkenntnisse aus Kommunikationssituationen zu einer Neubewertung der gegebenen Beziehungen führen. Auf diese Weise beeinflusst die wahrgenommene Vertrauenswürdigkeit die Risikobereitschaft in neuen Situationen, wie beispielsweise sich für die Notwendigkeit oder Planung von Veränderungen im Unternehmen zu engagieren. Persönlich

relevante Situationen bergen das Risiko von Verlusten, was die Verletzlichkeit erhöht, und in einem Zustand der Verletzlichkeit zu sein, bedeutet, Risiken einzugehen.

Die Kernidee des Vertrauensmodells von Mayer, Davis und Schoorman (1995) ist es, die doppelte Wirkung des Vertrauensverhaltens zwischen den an der Kommunikation beteiligten Parteien im Strukturmodell darzustellen. Die wahrgenommene Vertrauenswürdigkeit trägt einerseits zur Überarbeitung einer früheren Bewertung bei und bildet andererseits den Ausgangspunkt für die weitere Gestaltung des Dialogs in der anstehenden Situation. Dies bedeutet, dass in den Kommunikationssituationen mit den Gesprächspartnern die Vertrauenswürdigkeit anhand der Wahrnehmung ihres Wohlwollens im Sinne von Engagement und Begeisterung (benevolence) und ihrer Integrität, interpretiert als Verantwortlichkeit und Authentizität (integrity), beurteilt und durch die Bewertung ihrer ausgewiesenen Eignung, verstanden als Kompetenz und Fähigkeit (ability), ergänzt wird. Werden diese Vertrauensvoraussetzungen schließlich als hoch eingestuft, kann angenommen werden, dass der Trustor davon ausgeht, dass der Trustee vertrauenswürdig ist. Der Vertrauensgeber (trustor) ist auf dieser Grundlage bereit, in der konkreten zwischenmenschlichen Situation ein Risiko einzugehen. Mit anderen Worten, das Zusammenspiel von Vertrauen und Risikobereitschaft, wie das Modell zeigt, bietet einen konstruktiven theoretischen Rahmen, der die Grundlagen für die Entwicklung von Kreativität und Innovationskraft im Unternehmen verdeutlicht.

Die Ergebnisse vertrauenswürdiger Verhaltensweisen haben eine doppelte Wirkung. Sie tragen einerseits zu einer Überarbeitung einer früheren Bewertung bei und bilden andererseits den Ausgangspunkt für die weitere Gestaltung des Dialogs, was zu einer dynamischen Entwicklung des Vertrauensgrades durch Feedbackschleifen führt. Mayer, Davis und Schoorman (1995) beschreiben Vertrauen in ihrem grundlegenden Vertrauensmodell als die Bereitschaft einer Partei, sich den Handlungen einer anderen Partei gegenüber in einer konkreten, für den Betroffenen persönlich relevanten Situation, verletzbar zu machen. Diese Be-

reitschaft zur Verletzlichkeit wird eingegangen, auch ohne dabei die Möglichkeit zur Einflussnahme auf den Handlungsverlauf zu haben. Als Folge dieser ineinander greifenden Rückkopplungsschleifen beeinflusst eine konkrete Erfahrung im Sinne eines Ergebnisses (outcome) die Wahrnehmung und Bewertung der Vertrauenswürdigkeit des Trustee im Kontext sich ändernder situativer Bedingungen und trägt so dynamisch als Funktion der Wahrnehmung zu dessen Neubewertung bei (proposition 6). Werden in der Folge die drei vertrauensspezifischen Qualitätsfaktoren als hoch eingeschätzt (proposition 2), kann davon ausgegangen werden, dass der Trustor den Trustee als vertrauenswürdig einschätzt und bereit ist, sich in einen Risikozustand zu begeben und damit ein Risiko einzugehen. Nach Mayer, Davis und Schoorman (1995) werden zudem Kompetenz und Integrität in einem frühen Stadium einer für den Trustor relevanten Beziehung bewertet, wobei Wohlwollen erst später im Laufe der Zeit bei der Gestaltung der Beziehung berücksichtigt wird (propositions 3, 4). Zusammenfassend lässt sich sagen, dass das Eingehen eines Risikos in einer konkreten Beziehungs situation (risk taking in relationship) nicht nur von der Neigung des Trustor, zu Vertrauen abhängt (risk propensity, proposition 1), sondern auch von dem bis dahin gebildeten Vertrauensgrad und von der Risikobewertung des vertrauenden Verhaltens (perceived risk) in der jeweiligen konkreten Situation (proposition 5). Ist das Level an Vertrauen im Verhältnis zur Einschätzung des einzugehenden Risikos höher, kann davon ausgegangen werden, dass das Risiko in der konkreten Situation (RTR) eingegangen wird (Mayer et al., 1995).

5.3 Vertrauen im organisationalen Kontext

Im organisationalen Setting stehen Führungskräfte und Mitarbeitende einander gegenüber, so dass aufgrund der gegebenen hierarchisch strukturierten Machtverhältnisse und der asymmetrischen Informationsverfügbarkeit nicht reziproke Vertrauensbeziehungen zu erwarten sind. Mit den folgenden zwei Beispielen werden Dynamik im Zeitverlauf und Vertrau-

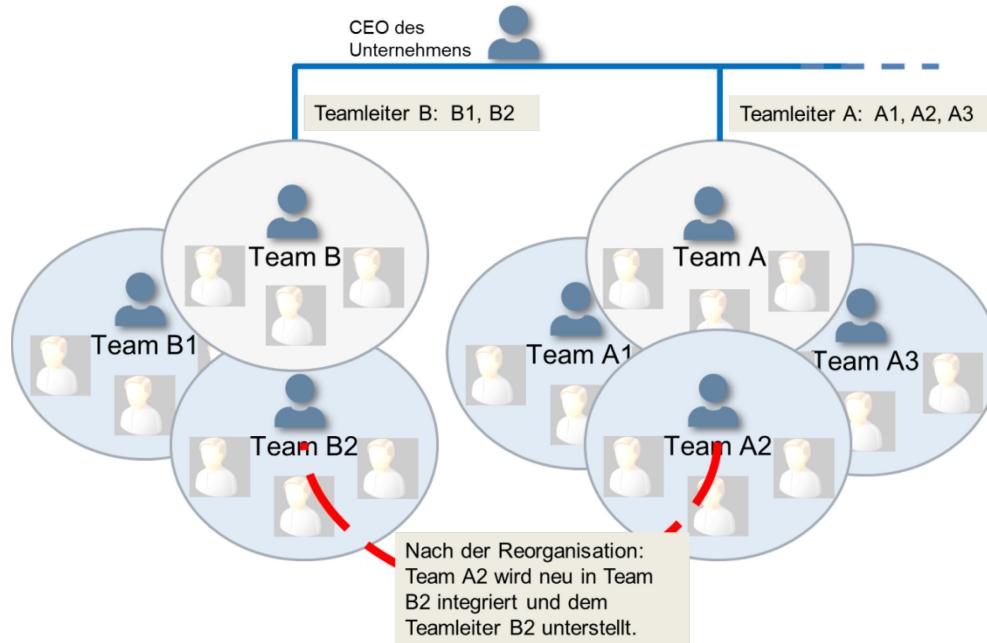
ensbildung in der Beziehungsgestaltung im Unternehmen illustrativ dargestellt. Die explizit auf Parsimonität ausgerichtete Entwicklung des integrativen Modells der organisationalen Vertrauensbildung nach Mayer, Davis und Schoorman (1995) gründet unidirektional auf Dyaden zwischen Einzelpersonen oder organisatorischen Einheiten, welche aus der Perspektive des Vertrauensgebers (trustor) dem Vertrauensnehmer (trustee) gegenüber gebildet werden.

5.3.1 Beispiel: Vertrauen und Vertrauensverlust

Vertrauenshandlungen entstehen kontextspezifisch in bestimmten Situationen. Führungskräfte (trustee), die zu einem bestimmten Zeitpunkt im Unternehmensgeschehen von ihren Mitarbeitenden (trustor) als vertrauenswürdig eingeschätzt werden, werden nach Reorganisationen von ihren Mitarbeitenden je nach Erfolg im hierarchischen Ranking und den damit verknüpften persönlich zu erwartenden Unsicherheiten für die Zukunft neu eingeschätzt (siehe Abbildung 3).

Abbildung 5.1

Beispiel: Vertrauen und Vertrauensverlust



Wie mit Abbildung 5.1 dargestellt, werden nach einer Reorganisation Team A2 und Team B2 zusammengeführt. Das bedeutet für die Mitarbeitenden von Team A2, dass sie nicht mehr dem Teamleiter A unterstellt sind; Sie werden hierarchisch eine Stufe tiefer eingereiht. Teamleiter B2 übernimmt neu die Führung für beide Teams. Die aufgrund der Zusammenlegung entstehenden doppelspurigen Aufgaben zwischen Team A2 und B2 werden aufgelöst.

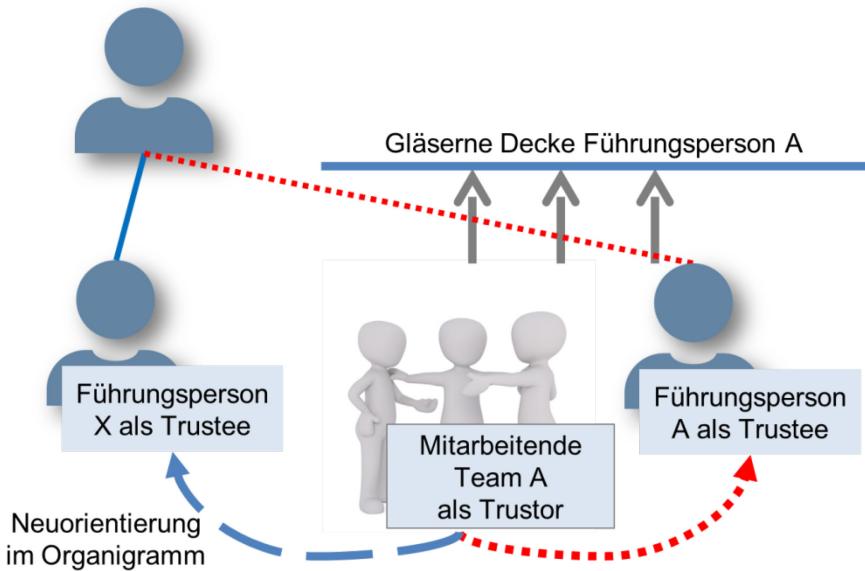
5.3.2 Beispiel: Vertrauen und die gläserne Decke

Weibliche Führungskräfte (trustee) haben bis zu einer bestimmten, für jedes Unternehmen spezifischen, Hierarchiestufe gute Chancen, von ihren Mitarbeitenden (trustor) als vertrauenswürdig eingeschätzt zu werden. Sobald die Chancen für einen Karrieresprung der Chefin und damit auch der Mitarbeitenden als gering eingeschätzt werden, entsteht aufgrund

der entstehenden gläsernen Decke eine Fluchtsituation zu anderen mehr versprechenden organisatorischen Bereichen (siehe Abbildung 5.2).

Abbildung 5.2

Beispiel: Vertrauen und die gläserne Decke



Wie in Abbildung 5.2 dargestellt, suchen sich Mitarbeitende aufgrund der existierenden Interdependenz neue karrieremässig mehr versprechende Führungspersonen, sobald sie die gläserne Decke wahrnehmen und die Vorgesetzte in ihrer Rolle im Unternehmen nicht genügend respektiert wird. Es entsteht eine Fluktuation aufgrund der Situationseinschätzung, die eigenen Ambitionen blockiert zu sehen.

6. Die Befriedigung der menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse in Organisationen

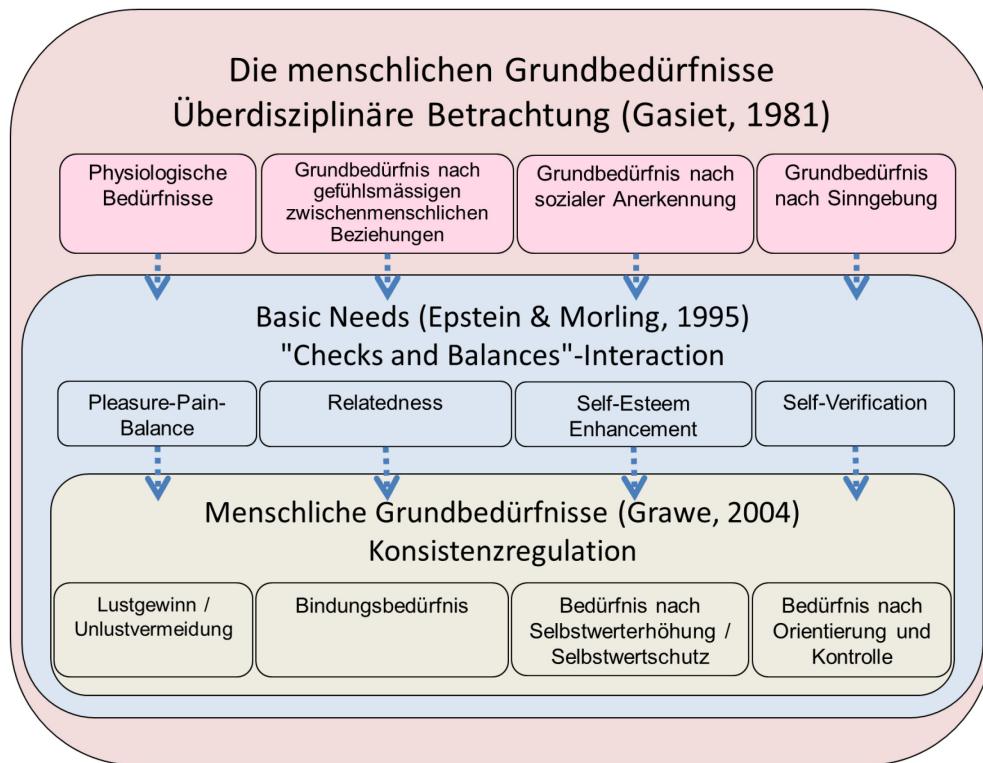
Nach gründlicher Analyse philosophischer, soziologischer und psychologischer Quellen kommt Gasiet zur überdisziplinären Erkenntnis (Gasiet, 1981), dass die Entwicklung des Menschen wie seine zunehmend sozio-historisch geprägte menschliche Reife phylogenetisch wie auch ontogenetisch in der theoretischen Synthese Gegenstand von vier menschlichen

Grundbedürfnissen ist. Nebst den physiologischen Bedürfnissen sind dies die Bedürfnisse nach gefühlsmässigen zwischenmenschlichen Beziehungen, nach sozialer Anerkennung und schliesslich nach Sinngebung (siehe Abbildung 6.1). Die damit erklärtermassen objektiv aus der phylogenetischen Entwicklung angelegten vier Grundbedürfnisse werden in ontogenetischen Entwicklungsstufen in verkürzter Form nachvollzogen (Gasiet, 1981). Gasiet stellt in seiner theoretischen Synthese die weit voneinander entfernt liegenden phylogenetischen Entwicklungsstadien der Menschheit der ontogenetischen Entwicklung des Menschen von der Geburt bis ins Erwachsenenalter gegenüber. Auf diese Weise begründet Gasiet anhand der Evolution der menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse ihre schöpferische Wirkung auf die ontogenetische Entwicklung des heutigen Menschen. Die Evolutionsschritte in der Entwicklungsgeschichte des Menschen wiederholen sich im Lauf des Lebens eines jedes Menschen und gelangen aufs Neue zur Ausprägung. Unter der Voraussetzung, dass die physiologischen Grundlagen erfüllt sind, werden die grundlegenden menschlichen emotionalen, sozialen und sinnstiftenden Bedürfnisse individuell erlebt. Insbesondere wenn sich im individuellen und sozio-historischen Kontext durch Krisensituationen Diskrepanzen manifestieren, wird die Suche nach Sinngebung als vorrangiges Bedürfnis betrachtet. Die Diskrepanzen zwischen objektiv-notwendigen menschlichen Bedürfnissen und ihrer subjektiven, bewussten Konkretisierung bewirken, dass eine gegebene Vorrangigkeit durch eine Krisensituation in Frage gestellt wird (Gasiet, 1981). Psychopathologische Erscheinungen werden in diesem Kontext als misslungene Lösungen einer solchen Krisensituation verstanden. Nach Ansicht von Gasiet (1981) inspiriert die Befriedigung der vier Grundbedürfnisse vier heterogene, parallel laufende Lernprozesse, durch die der Mensch die Realität wahrnimmt und kreativ beeinflusst, was auf eine spezifisch menschliche Errungenschaft hin deutet. Diese vier Determinanten der Lebensqualität, welche durch Produkte der menschlichen Tätigkeit physisch, symbolisch wie auch wertemässig befriedigt werden, stellen die objektiven und notwendigen Bedingungen

für das Überleben des Menschen dar. In Bündelung der unterschiedlichen Bedürfnisse des Menschen zu jeweils einer der vier charakteristischen menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse werden diese in ihrer Verflochtenheit in Form von spezifischen Bedürfniskonstellationen in gegebenen individuellen Lebensbedingungen und sozio-historischen Lebensumgebungen angestrebt (Gasiet, 1981).

Abbildung 6.1

Die menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse im Vergleich



Wie in Abbildung 6.1 dargestellt, können die vier phylogenetisch und ontogenetisch entwickelten menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse, wie sie von Gasiet beschrieben werden, auf die vier Grundbedürfnisse abgebildet werden, die von Epstein und Morling (1995) zur Begründung der Cognitive-Experiential Self-Theory CEST und darauf aufbauend von Grawe (2004) zur Konsistenzregulation in der neurologisch begründeten Psychotherapie verwendet werden.

Folgt man Epstein und Morling (1995), so wird die Einschätzung einer als persönlich relevant eingeschätzten Situation in dynamischer Wechselwirkung rational (rational system) und emotional (experiential system) als Erfahrung wahrgenommen und als Überzeugung (basic belief) im Verhalten handlungsleitend wirksam. Erfahrungen werden auf einem bedürfnisspezifischen Kontinuum bewertet, das von angenehm bis bösartig (pleasure-pain balance), von vertrauenswürdig bis bedrohlich (relatedness, interpersonal relationships), von wertvoll und geschätzt bis unwürdig (self-esteem enhancement) und von sinnvoll bis sinnwidrig bezüglich der Stabilität und Kohärenz der persönlichen Theorie der Realität (self-verification) reicht. Erfahrungen werden in diesem Sinne selbstüberprüfbar genutzt und die Realität entweder als beherrschbar, steuerbar, lenkbar und regelbar oder als unsinnig, ungerecht und willkürlich wahrgenommen. Auf diese Weise entstehen auf der Suche nach bedürfnisrelevanten Informationen implizite Schemata und damit Grundüberzeugungen (basic beliefs) über sich selbst und die Welt. Die Informationsverarbeitung erfolgt letztendlich, um den Grad der Sinnhaftigkeit und Vorhersehbarkeit im Gegensatz zur Sinnlosigkeit und Unkontrollierbarkeit zu bewerten. Diese Bewertung trägt zur Aufrechterhaltung einer stabilen und kohärenten Vorstellung der Realität bei und dient nach Grawe (Grawe, 1998, 2004) einerseits dem übergeordneten Grundprinzip der Konsistenz des psychischen Funktionierens und andererseits der Orientierung und Kontrolle, die die notwendige Zuversicht gibt, dem Leben einen Sinn zu geben.

6.1 Die soziale Anerkennung im organisationalen Kontext

Nach Ansicht von Gasiet (1981) ist nicht allein die allgemeine Lebenssituation eines Individuums zu verstehen und zu erforschen, sondern die gesamte objektive Realität, in der sich die subjektive allgemeine Lebenssituation abwickelt (Gasiet, 1981). In diesem Sinne, wird der Mensch erst dann wirklich Mensch, wenn er in der Lage ist, die physiologischen

Bedürfnisse durch seine nicht-biologischen und spezifisch menschlichen Bedürfnisse zu regulieren. So ist es in der Vorstellung von Gasiet zu verstehen, dass durch die Fähigkeit des Menschen, physiologische Bedürfnisse zu begrenzen, sich im Laufe der Evolution andere menschliche Grundbedürfnisse und damit ihre schöpferischen Wirkungen entfalten konnten. Das Bedürfnis nach gefühlsmässigen zwischenmenschlichen Beziehungen, als der entscheidende „Sprung“ zur eigentlichen Menschwerdung (Gasiet, 1981, S. 260), führt dazu, dass durch die Fähigkeit zum Aufschieben die Einnahme einer gemeinsamen Mahlzeit in vorstaatlichen Stammesgemeinschaften ermöglicht wird. Eine reichhaltigere Nahrung, eine verbesserte Zubereitung und die Speicherung der Nahrungsmittel sind die Folge in der kulturellen Entwicklung. Gleichzeitig aber wird die Befriedigung der physiologischen Bedürfnisse von gefühlsmässigen zwischenmenschlichen Beziehungen abhängig gemacht, was bei einem Ausschluss von der Gruppe zum Todesurteil führen würde. In diesen Gemeinschaften kann sich das Bedürfnis nach sozialer Anerkennung und nach Sinngebung nur innerhalb der engen Grenzen der Gruppe und in klarer Ausgrenzung der nicht zugehörigen Aussenstehenden entfalten. Das Bedürfnis nach emotionalen zwischenmenschlichen Beziehungen und die Forderung nach sozialer Anerkennung fördern in der Folge die Entwicklung der Stammesgesellschaften hin zu Staats- und Klassengesellschaften (Gasiet, 1981). Anerkennung, als Ausdruck einer gefühlsmässigen zwischenmenschlichen sozialen Beziehung, wird einem Menschen dadurch zuteil, dass der andere ihm einen sozialen Status zuerkennt und sich selbst unterordnet, wobei er selbst auf das zugestandene Recht verzichtet, was im heutigen Sprachgebrauch zu Anerkennungsprozessen (endorsement) in Beziehungsstrukturen führt (Folger et al., 2018). Das durch konflikthafte Situationen im Rahmen von Klassenkämpfen ausgelöste Streben nach Vernunft und Sinnsuche fördert die Fähigkeit, neue Wege der Gestaltung der menschlichen Realität aufzudecken. Deshalb ist es auch zu verstehen, dass jede Generation und jedes ihrer Individuen immer wieder die Bedeutung der menschlichen Realität auf ihre

eigene neue Weise erkennen und durch menschliches Handeln gestalten muss (Gasiet, 1981). Dies bedeutet schlussfolgernd auch, dass sich bis heute die effiziente Organisation von Menschen innerhalb eines Unternehmens und im Rahmen der organisierten Tätigkeit auf eine partielle Regulierung und Begrenzung der Befriedigung der individuellen Bedürfnisse stützt und durch Autorität in hierarchisch gebildeten Strukturen geregelt wird. Mayer, Davis und Schoorman (1995) weisen, mit Blick auf den Ausbau ihres vorgeschlagenen Vertrauensmodells, auf zukünftige Forschungsbereiche für ein besseres Verständnis der Wirkung von sogenannt selbstgesteuerten Teams (self-managed teams) und der Beziehungsstruktur zwischen dem Mitarbeitenden und der Organisation (employee-organization linkages) hin.

6.2 Die Gefahr von Pseudo-Befriedigung

Die Überzeugung von Gasiet (1981) ist es, dass ohne gefühlsmässige Zugehörigkeit zu einer realen oder imaginären menschlichen Gruppe, eine Person nicht in der Lage ist, ein erträgliches Leben zu führen. Ausgehend von dieser phylogenetischen Position verlangen die charakteristischen Entwicklungsphasen des Menschen mit ihrer jeweiligen vorrangigen Bedeutung einzelner Grundbedürfnisse, ausgehend von den physiologischen Bedürfnissen eines Neugeborenen, die Gewährleistung von gefühlsmässigen zwischenmenschlichen Beziehungen, von sozialer Anerkennung und der Sinnfindung im eigenen Leben. Auch wenn technologische Entwicklungen durch den Einsatz von Massenmedien wie Kino, Radio, Fernsehen und Zeitschriften zu einer emanzipatorischen Entwicklung geführt und breite Bevölkerungsschichten den einfachen Zugang zur Kultur ermöglicht haben, besteht nach Gasiet (1981) die Gefahr der teilweisen illusorischen Befriedigung der Bedürfnisse. Durch Kommunikationstechniken wie SMS als Short Message Service Anfang der 1990er-Jahre (Wikipedia, 2021b), das Abonnieren von „Tweets“ als Follower ab 2006 (Wikipedia, 2021c) oder der erstrebten Anzahl „Likes“ ab 2009 (Wikipedia, 2021a) für einen „geposteten“ Inhalt in einem sozialen

Netzwerk entstehen Abhängigkeiten, die die Pseudo-Befriedigung zwischenmenschlicher Zugehörigkeit und sozialer Anerkennung vortäuschen und marketingtechnisch manipulativ eingesetzt werden können.

6.3 Das dynamisch definierte Selbst auf der Basis der Konsistenzregulation

Die ontologisch ausgerichtete Position von Epstein und Morling (1995) begründet die Entwicklung der persönlichen Theorie des Selbst und der Welt auf dem Streben des Menschen nach Verbundenheit und verbessertem Selbstwert. Dies erfolgt durch eine dynamisch gestaltete Wechselwirkung zwischen zwei evolutionär angelegten Systemen, welche zwischen rationalem (rational system) und emotionalem (experiential system) Erkennen der Welt unterscheiden und zu Erfahrungen und Überzeugungen führen. Dies wird durch die Notwendigkeit der Aufrechterhaltung eines sinnreichen, stabilen und kohärenten konzeptionellen Systems geleitet, wobei ein Gleichgewicht zwischen Lust und Unlust grundlegend ist. Ferner werden zum einen die vier Grundbedürfnisse des Individuums durch einen „Checks and Balances“-Mechanismus (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995) im Gleichgewicht gehalten, was ein angemessenes Verhalten durch Kompromisse stützt.

Das Prinzip der Konsistenzregulierung (Grawe, 1998, 2004) fördert die Wahrnehmung und Lösung von Diskordanzen und Inkongruenzen und trägt damit durch Sinnfindung zur Konfliktlösung bei. Das Individuum befriedigt oder schützt seine Grundbedürfnisse mittels der motivationalen Schemata, welche in Form von Annäherung oder Vermeidung seine Intentionalität zum Ausdruck bringen und zielorientierte Aktivität auslösen. Dies bedeutet auch, den Anspruch zur Kontrolle und Orientierung über Lebenserfahrungen und Lebenssinn konsistenzregulierend zu erhalten (Grawe, 2004). Sowohl bei kontrollierbaren wie auch unkontrollierbaren Inkongruenzen werden neuronale Erregungsmuster gebahnt, die zu qualitativ neuen Erlebnis- und Verhaltensweisen führen und im positiven Fall zu einer erhöhten Effizi-

enz im Umgang mit herausfordernden Situationen führen, was in den Worten von Grawe als „Motor der psychischen Entwicklung“ betrachtet werden kann (Grawe, 2004, S. 242). Diese neuronalen Erregungsmuster entsprechen der immerwährenden konkreten physiologischen Beziehung der Grundbedürfnisse des Menschen zur Ergründung der menschlichen Wirklichkeit, was nach Gasiet (1981) Intentionalität voraussetzt. Das Problem bei nicht kontrollierbarer Inkongruenz liegt in der Entstehung von Erwartungsangst und der Generierung von Vermeidungszielen (Grawe, 2004). Unkontrollierbare Situationen in Arbeits- und Führungsprozessen, welche subjektiv als bedrohlich erlebt werden, können als Folge ungeeignete psychische Veränderungen mit neuronalen Anpassungen auslösen. Konsistenzregulation bedeutet demzufolge Anstrengung zur Sinngebung auf der Suche nach Konfliktlösung durch produktives Gestalten und Umgestalten der eigenen Lebenssituation (Gasiet, 1981). Zusammenfassend lässt sich festhalten, dass aus klinisch-psychologischer Sicht die identifizierten ontogenetischen Grundbedürfnisse des Individuums auf vier phylogenetisch entstandenen menschlichen Grundbedürfnissen und den heterogenen Lernprozessen gründen. Sie sind weder auf gleiche Weise entstanden, noch werden sie auf gleiche Weise befriedigt, sind aber miteinander verflochten (Gasiet, 1981).

7. Zusammenfassung

Sinngebung in der Konfliktlösung

Es können drei Schwerpunkte in der menschlichen Realitätsgestaltung ausgemacht werden, die Einfluss auf die Beziehungsgestaltung zwischen den Akteuren einer Gesellschaft nehmen: Grundbedürfnisse, Konsistenzregulation und Vertrauensbeziehungen. Diese funktional die Dynamik der Prozessgestaltung bestimmenden Faktoren bilden die Grundlage zur produktiven Sinngebung in der täglichen Konfliktlösung der Menschen in einer Gesellschaft.

Gegenseitiges Vertrauen und Wohlstand einer Gesellschaft (Dimock, 1986; Riedl & Javor, 2012) entstehen, wenn aufgrund der Intentionalität des menschlichen Verhaltens mit Ausrichtung auf die Befriedigung der menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995; Gasiet, 1981; Grawe, 1998, 2004) Vertrauensbeziehungen zur produktiven Prozessgestaltung möglich werden. Durch emotional bedeutsame Erfahrungen im Umgang mit Situationen des Alltags entstehen Chancen und Risiken, die zu neuen Erkenntnissen führen und durch Assimilation und Akkommodation die menschliche Wissensbasis bereichern (Piaget, 1976). Auf der anderen Seite der dynamischen Gestaltung der menschlichen Wissensbasis leitet die Intentionalität des Menschen das Verhalten, und zwar auf der Suche nach Konsistenz in der Erfüllung der Grundbedürfnisse (Grawe, 1998, 2004). Das Prinzip der Konsistenzregulation nach Grawe fördert darüber hinaus die Wahrnehmung und Lösung von Diskordanzen als auch Inkongruenzen und trägt damit durch Sinnfindung zur Konfliktlösung bei. Dies auch in der Idee, dass Reziprozität von Vertrauen nur dann entsteht, wenn soziale Strukturen wie Familien, Gruppen und Unternehmen bestrebt sind, eine gemeinsam erkannte Zukunftsvision zu realisieren. Vertrauensbeziehungen wirken als kohäsive Kraft einer modernen Gesellschaft. Sie lösen Austauschprozesse aus, die kreative Ideen in innovative Leistungen umwandeln können. Wenn sich die Mitglieder einer sozialen Einheit einer gemeinsamen Vision der zukünftigen Entwicklung verpflichtet fühlen, kommt es zu produktiven Austauschprozessen. Durch die Regulation der ausgelösten Emotionen (Werner & Gross, 2010) entstehen potenziell neue Situationen, die als Grundlage für die dynamische Entwicklung von Vertrauen zwischen den beteiligten Akteuren dienen (Mayer et al., 1995). Emotionen haben die Kraft, Motivation zur Handlungsausführung auszulösen (LeDoux, 2012; Schirmer, 2015) und damit die notwendige Energetisierung zu leisten, die zur produktiven sinnorientierten Prozessgestaltung benötigt wird (Gasiet, 1981).

B Theoretische Grundlagen II: Der handelnde Mensch

Der Mensch in seiner dynamischen Funktionalität

Pläne werden durch das Individuum zur Handlungssteuerung wertorientiert mit anderen Plänen integriert. Sie werden aufgrund der persönlichen Entwicklung im Laufe des Lebens kontinuierlich durch Erfahrung angepasst.

8. Die Bedeutung von Kommunikation für die handlungsleitende Motivation

Durch adäquate Führungsqualitäten kann in Krisen- und Umwälzungssituationen eines Unternehmens die Emotionsregulation des einzelnen Mitarbeitenden zu Gunsten produktiver Sinngebung und kreativer Leistung beeinflusst werden. Ambivalente Situationsbedingungen, in denen der Ausgang eines in Angriff zu nehmenden Projekts, einer neuen Aufgaben- oder einer neuen Prozessverantwortung unklar ist und man seine Reputation aufs Spiel setzt, können Vertrauensbekundungen die Bereitschaft fördern, persönliche Risiken einzugehen und zur kreativen Lösungssuche anregen. Führung ist eine wesentliche Funktion im Innovationsmanagement, da es das Handeln von Individuen in Gruppen durch kompetente Steuerung, Energetisierung, Überwachung und Bewertung (von Cranach, 1986) zum Wachstum der beteiligten Individuen und zur innovativen Leistung des Unternehmens führt. Eine Gruppe von Menschen, die ein bestimmtes Ziel zu erreichen versucht, wird von einem gemeinsamen Plan und einer gemeinsamen Zielvorstellung des gewünschten Ergebnisses geleitet (Miller et al., 1960). Pläne und Ziele gebunden in Form von Aufgaben sind deshalb gemäss von Cranach (1986) Komponenten, die eine aktive Kommunikationsarbeit in gruppeninternen und gruppenübergreifenden Interaktionsprozessen erfordern.

8.1 Das Handeln in der Gruppe

Gruppen sind selbstaktiv funktionierende Systeme, welche aus zielorientiert handelnden Individuen bestehen. Gruppen reagieren zwar auf äußere Reize und passen sich diesen an. Sie werden vor allem aber durch gruppeninterne Informationsprozesse gesteuert, welche aufgrund der ausgelösten Emotionen der Gruppenmitglieder motivationale Tendenzen zur Annäherung an die Problemlösung oder zur Vermeidung von Problemlösungsaktivitäten aktivieren (Miller et al., 1960). Von Cranach (1986) kommt zur Überzeugung, dass im Wesentlichen ohne funktionierende Kommunikationsprozesse weder Koordination noch Kooperation zwischen den Gruppenmitgliedern, noch Gruppenidentität und damit auch kein zielorientiertes Gruppenhandeln erwartet werden können. Selbstaktive Systeme (self-active systems) sind gemäss von Cranach (1986) Systeme, die in Abgrenzung zu ihrer Umgebung mittels ihres Verhaltens danach streben, zukünftige Zustände zu erreichen. Selbstaktive Systeme werden durch externe Stimuli wie auch durch intern laufende Informationssteuerungsprozesse gelenkt. Die Interaktion mit der Umgebung wird auf diese Weise durch zwei funktional unterschiedliche Mechanismen gelenkt, die in ihrer kombinierten Form gestaltend auf die Gruppe als soziales System wirken. Diese lenkenden Mechanismen steuern einerseits die Gruppe Schritt für Schritt entlang der Ausführungsprozesse von der Wahl des Vorgehens bis zur Evaluation und Speicherung der gemachten Erfahrungen und Erkenntnisse. Andererseits wird die Gruppe durch die intern in der Gruppe laufenden Kommunikationsprozesse mit motivierender Energie gelenkt, so dass das Verhalten gestartet und auch beendet werden kann und Ausführungsschwierigkeiten überwunden, Konflikte zwischen widersprechenden Ansprüchen gelöst oder Richtungsänderungen eingeleitet werden können (von Cranach, 1986). Die Rolle der Führungsperson führt aufgrund der simultan laufenden Aufmerksamkeitsprozesse der Gruppenmitglieder zu bewusster Kognition der Gruppenmitglieder. Auf diese Weise kommt die zur Selbstkontrolle der Gruppe notwendige Informationsverarbeitung im Kommunikationsnetzwerk zum Fließen.

Führung verkörpert nicht nur die Grundfunktionen der inneren und äußeren Anpassungsvorgänge der Gruppe, sondern auch die Lenkung und die Energetisierung der Gruppenhandlung. Führung unterstützt entscheidend die Weiterentwicklung der Gruppe, indem sie eine wichtige Quelle für Gruppenidentität und Gruppenkohäsion bildet. Aufgaben als Ziel-Plan-Einheit und die gruppeninternen Kommunikationsprozesse werden zur Umsetzung entsprechend der Rollenstruktur auf die Gruppenmitglieder verteilt. So ist es zu erklären, dass sowohl die Informationsverarbeitung als auch die Aufgabenausführung auf individueller und auf Gruppenebene erfolgen (von Cranach, 1986).

8.2 Motivation und Verhaltenskontrolle

Folgt man den Überlegungen von Gagné und Deci (2005), so kann die Self-Determination Theory (SDT) als Makro-Theorie der Motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1995) zur Erklärung der Wirkung von Erfolgen und Misserfolgen im Arbeitskontext benutzt werden. Fühlt man sich für den Erfolg einer Leistungserbringung selbst verantwortlich, fördert positives Feedback nach den Überlegungen von Gagné und Deci die persönliche Kompetenzwahrnehmung deswegen, weil die wahrgenommene Kausalitätszuschreibung aufgrund des „perceived locus of causality“ (PLOC) nicht in Frage gestellt wird. Positives Feedback wirkt sich förderlich auf die intrinsische Motivation aus. Demgegenüber sinken intrinsische wie auch extrinsische Motivation, wenn aufgrund eines negativen Feedbacks die Einschätzung der persönlichen Kompetenz angezweifelt wird (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Die Wirkung persönlich bedeutsamer Situationen nimmt infolgedessen Einfluss auf die Gestalt und Verfügbarkeit von Motivation. Wenn sich Mitarbeitende für die Erreichung von Leistungen im Unternehmen verantwortlich fühlen und sie sich durch ihre Bereitschaft zur Verletzlichkeit und Risikoübernahme einer im Ausgang unsicheren Situation aussetzen, wird Feedback zum Schlüsselfaktor für die Wahrnehmung persönlicher Kompetenz und somit von handlungsleitender Motivation.

Motivation kann entweder autonom aus dem Selbst hervorgehen, was zu einem selbst-determinierten (agentic) Verhalten führt, oder aber in unterschiedlichem Ausmass entlang eines Kontinuums durch externe Kontrollen in Form von extrinsischen Motivatoren fremdge-steuert werden und zu vorgegebenen Ergebnisse führen (Deci & Ryan, 1995; Gagné & Deci, 2005). Die SDT von Deci und Ryan (1995) bietet ein theoretisches Rahmenwerk zur Bestim-mung der Selbst-Determination und Einschätzung des Motivationsgrades im organisationalen Kontext. Motivation kann deshalb auf einem Kontinuum zunächst als fehlend (amotivation), dann als extrinsisch und weiter als autonom intrinsisch das Arbeitsverhalten beeinflussen (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Entscheidend in der SDT ist die intentionale Entwicklung, die durch die Integration von internen und externen Orientierungswerten motivationale Wirkung auf das Verhalten ausübt. Ausgehend von mangelnder Intention und damit einem motivationslosen Zustand (amotivation) entsteht Motivation aufgrund der Integration von Orientierungswerten, aufgrund dessen sich Motivation von einer extern gesteuerten bis zu einer intrinsisch wirken-den Motivation entwickeln kann. Dies führt zur Unterscheidung zwischen echtem und abhän-gigem Selbstwert (true and contingent self-esteem) und differenziert den Autonomiegrad, was der Theorie den Namen gibt (Deci & Ryan, 1995). Auf dieser Basis ist es zu verstehen, dass intrinsische Motivation den Menschen in seinem Verhalten aufgrund der Ausführung der Aufgabe selbst und der durch sie entstehenden Genugtuung lenkt. Im Gegensatz dazu erfor-der extrinsische Motivation, dass der Ausgang der Ausführung bestimmter Aktivitäten in ihrer äussersten Form extern reguliert und durch Belohnung und Bestrafung kontrolliert wird. Sie wird damit abhängig. Nach Meinung von Gangé und Deci (2005) kann sich aber die ex-tern kontrollierte Motivation unter zunehmend autonomie-unterstützenden Rahmenbedingun-gen zur autonom generierten Motivation entwickeln: einmal durch Introjektion der Beurtei-lung des Selbstwerts anhand der geleisteten Performance und weiter durch Identifikation mit der Wichtigkeit der vorgegebenen Ziele und Werte im Arbeitskontext. Als weiterführende

Stufe kann sich durch Integration der fremdbestimmten Ziele und Werte in das eigene Selbst autonome Motivation entwickeln. Aus der Perspektive der SDT kommt auf dem Autonomie-Kontinuum der Internalisierung von Orientierungswerten die integrierte Regulation der Motivation der intrinsisch selbst-determinierten (agentic) Motivation am nächsten (Deci & Ryan, 1995; Gagné & Deci, 2005). Beide zusammen, integrierte Regulation des Verhaltens wie auch die intrinsisch generierte Motivation zum Handeln, verlangen die grundlegende Befriedigung der menschlichen Bedürfnisse ausgerichtet auf das psychologische Wohlergehen (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Unternehmen, die die drei grundlegenden Bedürfnisse der Mitarbeitenden, nämlich nach Kompetenz, Autonomie und menschlicher Verbundenheit aktiv als Voraussetzung geeigneter Arbeitsorganisation berücksichtigen, können sich auf intrinsische Motivation und der vollen Internalisierung extrinsischer Motivatoren zu Gunsten von Effektivitäts- und Effizienzsteigerungs-Effekten einstellen. Wie bereits in Abbildung 6.1 dargestellt, sind auch diese, wenn auch von Gagné und Deci (2005) unterschiedlich bezeichneten Begriffe, denen von Gasiet (1981) phylogenetisch und ontogenetisch begründeten menschlichen Grundbedürfnissen zuordenbar. Kompetenz, Autonomie und menschliche Verbundenheit können so aus der Perspektive der Arbeitsmotivation den drei Grundbedürfnissen, wie sie Grawe (2004) als Grundlage der Neuropsychotherapie einsetzt, gegenüber gestellt werden. Kompetenz im Arbeitskontext entspricht dem Bedürfnis nach Selbstwerterhöhung und Selbstwertschutz aus klinischer Perspektive. Autonomie als Ausdruck von Freiheit kann als ein Bedürfnis nach Orientierung und Kontrolle über die eigene Person in der Situation verstanden werden. Und das Bedürfnis nach menschlicher Verbundenheit entspricht dem Bindungsbedürfnis. Positiv gedachtes Feedback in Arbeitssituationen, das in vertrauenswürdigen Beziehungen durch menschliche Verbundenheit ausgesprochen wird, kann die situativ benötigte Handlungskompetenz des Mitarbeitenden und des Unternehmens stärken. Positives Feedback kann so eine Eigendynamik in der Entwicklung in der intrinsischen Motivation auslösen.

Trotzdem, die SDT als Makro-Theorie der Motivation ist nicht als Stufenmodell gedacht, das die zu durchlaufenden Reifestufen der regulierten Motivation vorgibt. Es geht vielmehr um die Frage, inwieweit die Regulierung eines bestimmten Verhaltens zu einem bestimmten Zeitpunkt im Selbst integriert ist. Damit ist auch nachvollziehbar, dass sich der Zustand auf der Skala unter bestimmten Rahmenbedingungen durch Herausforderungen, Wahlmöglichkeiten, nachvollziehbaren Begründungen oder durch Feedback verändern kann (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

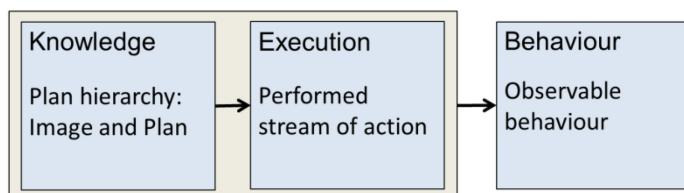
9. Die Rolle von Feedback bei der Ausführung von Plänen

Die „Test-Operate-Test-Exit“-Einheit TOTE wurde nach den Grundsätzen der Parsimonalität durch die drei Psychologen Miller (Harvard University), Galanter (University of Pennsylvania) und Pribram (Stanford University) im Jahr 1960 in einem gemeinsamen wissenschaftlichen Urlaubsjahr in der Nähe von San Francisco zur Beschreibung der Grundlagen von Verhalten entwickelt (Miller et al., 1960). „Image“ und „Plan“ sind die beiden sich gegenseitig beeinflussenden Konstrukte, auf welchen die Struktur des Verhaltens gebaut ist. Verhalten wird von Miller, Galanter und Pribram durch die Koordination von Feedback-Loops und der rekursiven Sequenz von hierarchisch auf verschiedenen Ebenen organisierten Ausführungsschritten beschrieben. „Image“ und „Plan“ repräsentieren die zentralen kognitiven Strukturen des Wissens, welche dem Verhalten zugrunde liegen. Aufgrund dieser Exklusivität verwenden die drei Autoren die beiden Konstrukte in der Grossschreibung. Mit der Ausführung der im „Plan“ festgehaltenen Arbeitsschritte werden die durch Erfahrung gebildeten und akkumulierten Werte, die Vorstellungen über sich und die Welt genauso wie die Erwartungen über ein erwünschtes Ergebnis (Miller et al., 1960) in der Testphase durch Feedback-Loops auf Übereinstimmung (congruence) eingeschätzt und damit die TOTE-Einheit aktualisiert. Die Feststellung von Kongruenz mit dem „Image of the desired outcome“ (Miller

et al., 1960) steuert schlussendlich die Planausführung bis zum Exit. Feedback-Loops übernehmen in der Meinung von Miller, Galanter und Pribram (1960) analog eines Computerprogramms eine Steuerungsfunktion in der Abfolge von Plänen. Eine TOTE-Einheit stellt das Grundmuster für den Entwurf von Plänen dar. Durch einen „Plan“ wird Verhalten in Abstimmung mit dem „Image“ gesteuert, wobei sich die Konstruktion von Plänen individuell, beispielsweise in ihrer flexiblen Ausführbarkeit, ihrer zeitlichen Spannbreite oder aber in ihrem autonomen Ursprung unterscheiden. Zur Erreichung von Zielen oder einem erwünschten Zustand, setzt der Mensch Mittel ein, wobei er deren Umsetzung mittels Einschätzung der in der operativen Sequenz erreichten Kongruenz mit dem erwarteten SOLL testet und bewertet. Auf diese Weise werden in der Idee von Miller, Galanter und Pribram (1960, S. 38) Wissen und Handlung parsimonisch zueinander in Beziehung gebracht. Die Ausführung eines gewählten Plans soll zum gewünschten Ergebnis als „Image of the desired outcome“ führen. Handlung wird durch die Interdependenz zwischen „Image“ und „Plan“ auf allen hierarchischen Ebenen einer Struktur des Verhaltens organisiert und als Handlungsstrom in der Ausführung gesteuert. Handlung wird letztendlich in Form von Verhalten beobachtbar (Abbildung 9.1).

Abbildung 9.1

Struktur des Verhaltens



Zu diesem Zweck werden für die Testphase „Test“ der TOTE-Einheit Feedback-Loops zur Überwachung des erreichten Zustandes iterativ eingesetzt. Die operativen Elemente der Handlungsphase „Operation“ können dabei in weitere TOTE-Einheiten aufgefächert werden und bilden zusammen eine hierarchisch-rekursive Struktur mit der Beschreibung von höher

geordneten strategischen bis zu tiefer liegenden taktischen Verhaltenseinheiten. In der Ausführung (operation) eines Plans spielt die Organisation der bisherigen Erfahrungen eine vermittelnde zentrale Rolle, aufgrund dessen durch Rückkopplung und Hierarchie strategische und taktische Verhaltenseinheiten zielfgerecht und erfahrungsorientiert koordiniert werden. Beides zusammen, Rückkopplung und Hierarchie, erfüllen die Anforderung, welche sich die drei amerikanischen Psychologen in ihrem wissenschaftlichen Urlaubsjahr am kalifornischen „Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Science“ der Ford-Stiftung zum Ziel gesetzt haben: das Vakuum zwischen Kognition und Handlung (action) zu füllen und die Beziehung zwischen „Image“ und „Plan“ zu erforschen.

10. Wenn Pläne geändert werden

Pläne werden durch das Individuum mit anderen Plänen integriert und, ausgerichtet auf die stetige Entwicklung im Lebensverlauf, durch Erfahrung angepasst. Pläne werden deshalb als eine Investition in Gewohnheiten und Fähigkeiten betrachtet und können emotionale Störungen auslösen, wenn sie verändert werden müssen. In der Regel werden Pläne zuerst auf der taktischen Ebene zu verändern versucht und Veränderungen auf der strategischen Ebene so lange wie möglich hinausgezögert (Miller et al., 1960). Nach der Theorie der Selbstentwicklung (Piaget, 1976) erfolgt die Anpassung an veränderte Anforderungen in erster Linie durch Übernahme und Integration der neuen Inhalte in die bestehenden Schemata, was zur Assimilation führt. Übersteigen die Anforderungen jedoch die Assimilation, wird eine Anpassung der bis dahin entwickelten Schemata durch Modifikation und Neuschaffung notwendig (Akkommodation).

In der Vorstellung von Miller, Galanter und Pribram (1960) können Pläne aber auch mit Mitgliedern einer Gruppe durch Rollenverteilung zu sogenannten „shared Plans“ werden, so dass ihre Ausführung durch eine gemeinsam geteilte Vorstellung eines erwünschten Zustan-

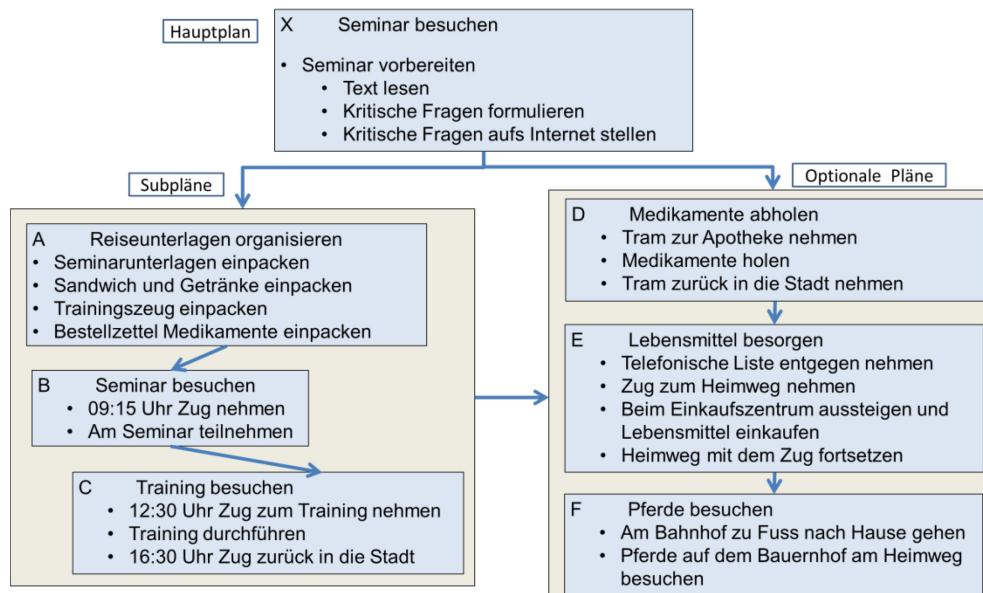
des gelenkt und damit gesellschaftliche Ziele erreicht werden können. Grundsätzlich kann davon ausgegangen werden, dass Pläne aufgrund der mit der Umsetzung erfahrenen Rückmeldungen laufend angepasst werden. Entscheidend ist jedoch, dass Planänderungen transparent kommuniziert werden müssen (1960). Damit es nicht aufgrund von Verteidigungsmechanismen zu Konfliktsituationen kommt, müssen Änderungen in den „shared Plans“ einer sozial aktiven Gruppe transparent gemacht werden. Dies damit in der Rollenteilung der beteiligten Gruppenmitglieder die individuellen Handlungsströme aufeinander abgestimmt weitergeführt werden können.

10.1 Beispiel: Integration von Plänen durch ein Individuum

Eine Studentin bereitet sich auf das Seminar von Montagvormittag vor (siehe Abbildung 10.1).

Abbildung 10.1

Beispiel: Integration von Plänen durch ein Individuum



Wie in Abbildung 10.1 dargestellt, liest die Studentin in der Woche vor dem Termin den vorgeschlagenen Text und erstellt eine Zusammenfassung, die sie mit zwei kritischen

Fragen und entsprechenden Antworten ergänzt. Die kritischen Fragen sind am Donnerstag vor Montag auf das universitätsinterne Internet zu stellen. Die Studentin möchte am Montag zusätzlich zum Seminar noch ein Sporttraining besuchen. Sie beschliesst, nach dem Seminar ins Training zu gehen und packt neben den Seminarunterlagen auch noch das Trainingszeug mit ein. Zusätzlich nimmt sie sich vor, nach dem Seminar den 12:30 Uhr-Zug in den Trainingspark zu nehmen. Beim Packen überlegt sie, ob es nicht noch am selben Tag möglich wäre, die letzte Woche bestellten Medikamente in der Apotheke abzuholen. Sie nimmt deshalb den Bestellzettel mit und beschliesst, sofern keine Verzögerungen auftreten sollten, den 16:30 Uhr-Zug zurück vom Trainingspark in die Stadt zu nehmen, um von dort mit dem Tram zur Apotheke zu gelangen. Aufgrund eines Anrufs ihres Mannes, beschliesst die Studentin auf dem Heimweg noch kurz in den Einkaufsmarkt zu gehen, um Eier und Brot zu besorgen. Zu Hause am Bahnhof angelangt, besucht sie, wie immer beim Bauernhof auf dem Heimweg, die beiden Pferde, die neugierig aus den Boxen schauen.

10.2 Beispiel: Integration von Plänen auf Gruppenebene

Vier Quartierbewohner beschliessen zu kooperieren, um gemeinsam eine für die Gemeinschaft nützliche Qualitätsverbesserung zu erreichen. Sie möchten zusammen die veraltete Schaukel auf dem Quartierspielplatz sanieren. Zu diesem Zweck steuern sie ihr Vorhaben durch einen kollektiven „Plan“ auf der Basis einer in der öffentlichen Meinung verwurzelten Qualitätsvorstellung. Sie teilen sich die Aufgaben auf. Einer kümmert sich um die notwendigen finanziellen Mittel, der andere baut die alte Schaukel ab, der Dritte kauft das Material für die neue Schaukel und ein Vierter ist für die Installation der neuen Schaukel besorgt. Miller, Galanter und Pribram (1960) stellen in ihrem Schaukel-Beispiel die Integration von Plänen auf Gruppenebene vor. Keine einzelne der aufgezählten Aktivitäten würde für sich genommen Sinn ergeben und kann nur in der Gesamtbetrachtung eine über das Individuum hinausgehende

de Bedeutung gewinnen. Keiner der vier Männer könnte im Übrigen allein dieses Vorhaben stemmen. Und sie sind auf die Zustimmung und Mithilfe der Quartierbewohner angewiesen. Die Gruppe organisiert die hierarchisch aufgebauten Pläne auf der strategischen Ebene und setzt durch die Gestaltung von Subplänen viele Ausführende ein, die auf der taktischen Ebene Teile des Gesamtplanes übernehmen. Die Steuerung der Ausführung erfolgt auf der Basis der geplanten Schritte, welche sich die vier Männer zur Sanierung der Schaukel des Quartierspielplatzes vorgenommen haben. Außerdem geschieht die Steuerung der Zielerreichung über Feedback-Loops mit den Qualitätsvorgaben, die sich die vier Männer gegeben haben und auf oberster Ebene als Motiv einem öffentlich Anliegen entsprechen.

10.3 Beispiel: Integration von Plänen auf Unternehmensebene

In einem Unternehmen werden analog einem „Plan“ auf Gruppenebene die Handlungsströme der Mitarbeitenden durch die Verflechtung strategischer und taktischer Planung organisiert. Dies geschieht mit dem Ziel, den Unternehmenserfolg durch gezielte Ausführung zu sichern. Die Vorstellung des gewünschten Ergebnisses leitet die Handlungsausführung. Die operative Umsetzung wird durch Feedback-Loops und transparente Kommunikation von Planänderungen begleitet. Ob es darum geht, den Transportauftrag auf dem Schienennetz der Schweiz zu garantieren, den Zahlungsverkehr in der Schweiz zu sichern oder um die flächen-deckende und umfassende Information über Rundfunk und Fernsehen in der Schweiz: Sofern Pläne und Planänderungen erfolgreich kommuniziert werden, das „Image of the desired outcome“ (Miller et al., 1960, S. 38) ist für die Beteiligten im Unternehmen handlungsleitend.

10.4 Die Ausführung eines Plans

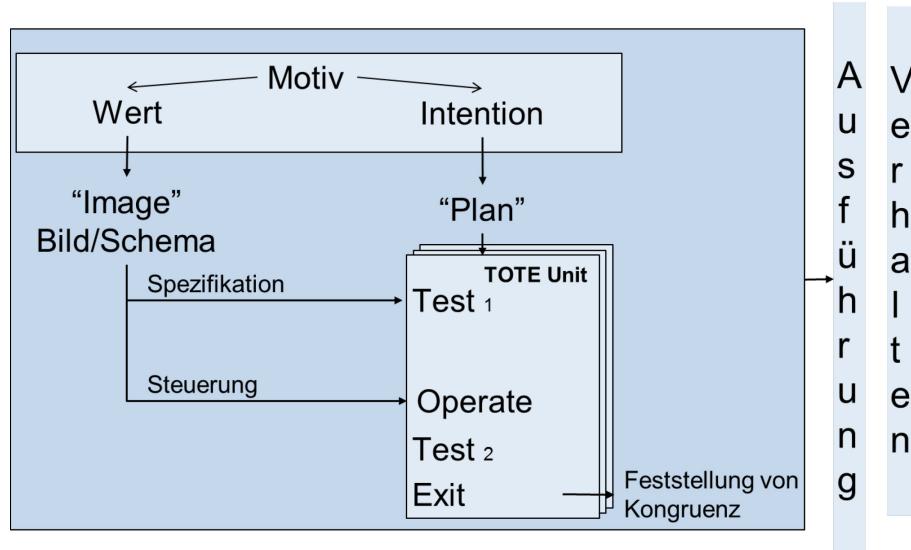
Pläne werden im „Image“ einer Person als Wissen über sich selbst festgehalten. In Entscheidungssituationen kann dieses Wissen durch den Transfer von gespeicherten Plänen in

neue Situationen wirksam zur kreativen Problemlösung eingesetzt werden (Miller et al., 1960). Der stetige Austausch von Information zwischen „Plan“ und „Image“ führt beidseitig zu Veränderungen, welche die Verflechtung von beobachtbarem Verhalten und Erfahrung deutlich machen. Die Veränderung des „Image“ geschieht durch Pläne, die die Verarbeitung von Information aus der Planausführung verursachen und die Veränderung eines „Plans“ erfolgt durch die Einwirkung von Information aus dem „Image“. Die Namensgebung für die Ausführung eines „Plans“ beinhaltet strukturell die operative Anweisung in Form einer Instruktion und die dazu gedachte qualitative Beurteilung als Testkriterium aus dem „Image“ (Miller et al., 1960). Die Schwierigkeit für einen Beobachter liegt insofern darin, die zusammengehörenden Ebenen einer hierarchisch-rekursiven Struktur im „Plan“ für ein beobachtetes Verhalten durch nachvollziehbar gegliederte Pläne und Unterpläne so zu beschreiben, dass deren Einheit und Bedeutung auf den jeweils nächst höheren Stufen in der Gesamtsicht nicht verloren geht.

In der Vorstellung von Miller, Galanter und Pribram (1960) wird ein „Plan“ aufgrund der Intentionalität des Menschen und einer qualitativen Einschätzung des in der konkreten Situation einzusetzenden Planes im „Image“ aktiviert. Beides zusammen, Intention und Werteschätzung, bestimmen das Motiv (siehe Abbildung 10.2), das durch die Umsetzung der Instruktionen aus dem „Plan“ zur Ausführung kommt. Ob bewusst oder unbewusst, die im Motiv enthaltenen Werte sind entscheidend mit der Testphase einer TOTE-Einheit verknüpft. Ein „Plan“ per se bestimmt noch keinen bestimmten Zustand. Nur durch die qualitative Austauschbeziehung mit dem „Image“ wird die Handlungsausführung zielbestimmt angetrieben, so dass Verhalten beobachtbar wird (Miller et al., 1960).

Abbildung 10.2

Die Struktur des Verhaltens in Anlehnung an Miller, Galanter und Pribram (1960)



Mit jeder Testphase wird der Fortlauf einer Handlung überwacht und gesteuert. Die für die Testphase in einer TOTE-Einheit notwendige Spezifikation des Wissens, welche für die Qualitätsprüfung notwendig ist, wird im „Image“ festgehalten. Die für die Handlungsphase notwendigen Schritte der Bearbeitung werden im „Plan“ festgehalten und ausgeführt, was Intention voraussetzt. In einem Kreislauf von Operation und Test wird durch Prüfung und SOLL-IST-Abgleich des zu überwachenden Zustands der Ablauf im „Plan“ gesteuert, und zwar so lange bis zur Erreichung der SOLL-Vorstellung, welche zum System-Ausgang (exit) führt.

10.5 Wertorientierte Handlungssteuerung

Durch Feedback-Loops werden aufgrund der Rückkoppelungsmechanismen die hierarchisch-rekursiv strukturierten Pläne operativ ausgeführt und mit dem „Image“, als der Repräsentation des Selbst und des Universums, verbunden (Miller et al., 1960). Der Ausführungsprozess ist auf verschiedenen Detaillierungsebenen organisiert, sozusagen von der Faustskizze

bis zur detaillierten Spezifikation, so dass Strategie und Taktik des Verhaltens angesprochen und gesteuert werden. Die Handlungssteuerung wird auf der Grundlage der internen Repräsentation der persönlich wahrgenommenen Umgebung, in welcher sich das Individuum eingebettet fühlt, ermöglicht. Dies geschieht in Form von Konzepten und Assoziationen, die durch frühere Erfahrungen als Einheit im „Image“ angelegt und, wie von Miller, Galanter und Pribram (1960) auf Bartlett (1932) Bezug genommen, als „Schema“ bezeichnet werden. Schemata speichern Werte in Form von Fakten, Konzepten und Assoziationen. Es werden zwei Steuerungsfunktionen aufeinander abgestimmt und koordiniert: Ablaufsteuerung und Qualitätssteuerung. Auf diese Weise wird die Steuerung der Ausführung der einzelnen Planungsschritte mit der Steuerung der Zielerreichung über Feedback-Loops mit den Qualitätsvorgaben verbunden. Miller, Galanter und Pribram (1960) sprechen deshalb von einem Prozess, der durch den „Plan“, gleich einem Computer-Programm, die Problemlösung als menschliche Aufgabe hierarchisch strukturiert steuert. Die Existenz einer TOTE-Einheit bedeutet nichts anderes, als dass eine organisierende, koordinierende Einheit zur Handlungssteuerung vorliegt. Die Lenkung erfolgt fortwährend durch den Vergleich der Ergebnisse der Ausführung mit den erwarteten Testvorgaben bis zur Elimination der im ersten Testlauf festgestellten Inkongruenz. Stimulus und Reaktion, wie sie im Behaviorismus als horizontal strukturierte Sequenz gelten, werden durch Miller, Galanter und Pribram (1960) auf diese Weise als Teil der Feedback-Schleifen neu interpretiert und als Phasen in der Handlungsausführung mit einbezogen.

10.6 Die TOTE-Einheit als Grundlage der vertikalen Verhaltensanalyse

Die von Grawe und Dziewas Ende der 1970er-Jahre entwickelte vertikale Verhaltensanalyse (1978) legte den Fokus auf die motivationalen Grundlagen des beobachtbaren Verhaltens in der interaktionellen Verhaltenstherapie. Diese sollte in der Patient-Therapeut-

Interaktion im Umgang mit schwierigen Patienten dazu verhelfen, differenziertere Handlungsalternativen für den Therapeuten erschliessbar zu machen, um damit komplementär zum Patienten, die Beziehung zu gestalten. Die vertikale Betrachtung der handlungsleitenden Strukturen fand ihre Grundlagen in der Verflechtung von „Image“ und „Plan“, die Miller, Galanter und Pribram (1960) in der TOTE-Einheit beschreiben (siehe Abbildung 10.2) und wie sie von Caspar (Caspar, 2008a, 2008b) bildhaft als motivationalen „Überbau“ des beobachtbaren Verhaltens bezeichnet wird.

Motive verkörpern in der Sprache von Miller, Galanter und Pribram (1960) neben der Intentionalität zum Handeln die Wertestruktur eines Menschen, welche die Grundlage für die im „Plan“ zu realisierenden Zielvorstellungen bilden. Werte sind deswegen ebenso wie Pläne mittels TOTE-Einheiten hierarchisch strukturiert. Sie stellen mit den menschlichen Grundbedürfnissen (Gasiet, 1981) auf oberster Ebene die handlungsleitenden Werte eines Menschen dar. In der Planstruktur eines Individuums werden die Werte eines Menschen, ausgehend von den Grundbedürfnissen, von der strategischen bis zur taktischen Ebene in Form von motivationalen Zielen (Grawe, 2004) im „Image“ festgehalten und in der operativen Ausführung durch Testvorgänge im „Plan“ auf Kongruenz geprüft.

In den Worten von Grawe und Dziewas (1978) erweitert die vertikale Verhaltensanalyse die horizontale Verhaltensanalyse. Mit anderen Worten: In der funktionalen Verhaltensanalyse wird die in einer konkreten Situation ausgeführte Tätigkeit in Form einer Folge von Reiz-Reaktions-Verknüpfungen analog einem Reflexbogen beschrieben. Ziele spielen zwar eine Rolle, allerdings ohne differenzierte Einbeziehung der handlungsleitenden Motivationsstruktur (Miller et al., 1960). Bereits in den 1980er-Jahren wird deshalb durch Caspar die Bedeutung der Beziehungsgestaltung in der vertikalen Verhaltensanalyse neu auf die Grundlage einer umfassenderen Betrachtung der Motivstruktur gesetzt und die Plananalyse als therapie-

schulunabhängiger Ansatz zur Gestaltung einer therapiespezifischen Fallkonzeption entwickelt (Caspar, 2008a, 2008b, 2018a).

11. Die Motivationskraft von Zielen

Ziele orientieren sich an Werten, welche als Testkriterien für die Bewertung eines Ergebnisses in Form eines „Image of the desired outcome“ (Miller et al., 1960, S. 38) festgehalten werden. Weil sich Ziele auf ein zukünftig wertgeschätztes Ergebnis ausrichten, bedeuten sie in der Meinung von Locke und Latham (2006) in erster Linie einen Diskrepanz-bildenden Prozess, welcher zugleich Unzufriedenheit mit dem bestehenden Zustand und ein Streben nach dem vorgestellten gewünschten Zielergebnis auslöst.

Entscheidend für die Aktivierung der lernorientierten Verhaltensweisen sind der gewählte Ziel-Schwierigkeitsgrad und die mit dem angestrebten Ziel verknüpfte persönliche Bedeutung (Locke & Latham, 2006). Schwierige lernorientierte Ziele lenken die Aufmerksamkeit auf die zielrelevanten Aktivitäten und bewirken erhöhte Anstrengung und Ausdauer vom Handelnden. Selbstgewählte schwierige Ziele entfachen aufgrund der erhöhten Aufmerksamkeit Kreativität, so dass durch die gesteigerte Lösungskompetenz Erfolgsgefühle ausgelöst werden, welche das Wohlbefinden durch die Feststellung von Zielfortschritt zu stärken vermögen (Wiese & Freund, 2005). Selbstgewählte Ziele verlangen aber nach Feedback, das zu proaktivem Umsetzungsverhalten führt und intrinsische Motivation fördert (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Feedback ist deshalb nicht zu unterschätzen, weil durch das Tracking der Umsetzung die Wahrnehmung von Lernfortschritt gestützt wird (Locke & Latham, 2006) und Lernfortschritt lenkt den Handelnden in Richtung des vorgestellten Zielergebnisses.

11.1 Leistungsziele und Lernziele

Ziele sind nicht gleich Ziele. Eine Tunnelsicht symbolisiert beispielsweise in den Augen von Locke und Latham (2006) das Verhalten von Studierenden oder Mitarbeitenden in einem Unternehmen, die nur das zu erreichende Performance-Ziel vor Augen haben. Beide verpassen es dadurch, auch Lernziele für den Aufbau der dafür notwendigen Rahmenbedingungen und Kompetenzen zu formulieren. Nach Meinung von Locke (2006) und Latham wird mit der Formulierung von Lernzielen die Metakognition angeregt, was vorwiegend bei Studierenden und Mitarbeitenden mit einer hohen Leistungserwartung die persönliche Planungs- und Umsetzungskompetenz fördert. Diese Fähigkeit ist dann von Bedeutung, wenn Situationen schlecht strukturiert sind und gemeistert werden müssen. Ein lernorientierter Ansatz befähigt deshalb zusätzlich zur Leistungsausrichtung, sich für komplexe Situationen zu interessieren, zu engagieren und mit schwierigen Situationen umzugehen.

Die Entwicklung von problemlösungsorientierten Kompetenzen wie Planung, Monitoring und Bewertung des eigenen Fortschritts in Richtung des erwarteten Zielergebnisses können einerseits die zukünftigen Wirtschaftsmitglieder bereits im Studium durch eine lernorientierte Herangehensweise einüben. Durch eine transparente lernorientierte Unternehmensführung können andererseits Mitarbeitende gezielt im Kontext eines anspruchsvollen Auftrags eine Analyse der vorliegenden Rahmenbedingungen bezüglich der gegebenen Strukturen, Prozesse und Fähigkeiten der Beteiligten vornehmen. Auf diese Weise sind sie in der Lage, die entsprechenden Anträge für den Aufbau der notwendigen Kompetenzen im Entscheidungsgremium zu stellen und nachvollziehbar zu vertreten. Neben der Kompetenz, mit neuen Situationen und bisher unbekannten Handlungsanforderungen umzugehen, werden in Ergänzung dazu nicht nur strategische und taktische Fähigkeiten erlernt, sondern auch methodische und soziale Kompetenzen aufgebaut. Nach Lang-von-Wins und Triebel (2012) verbessert sich durch die Orientierung des Verhaltens an Lernzielen die Kompetenzbilanz der Studierenden und steigert deren Chancen auf dem Arbeitsmarkt. Eine lernorientierte Haltung vermittelt

Arbeitszufriedenheit, welche einerseits bei Studierenden die notwendige Energie zur Studienfortsetzung bereitstellt, was einem Studienabbruch entgegenwirkt. Für einen Mitarbeitenden in einem lernorientierten Unternehmen bedeutet es andererseits neben erhöhter Arbeitszufriedenheit auch eine erhöhte Bereitschaft, sich auf Risiken in zukünftigen unternehmensspezifischen Aufträgen einzulassen (Mayer et al., 1995) und durch Kreativität zu Innovation im Unternehmen beizutragen.

12. Der Umgang mit stressvollen Situationen

Bedrohliche Situationen, die entweder die Gefahr von Verletzungen oder Verlusten beinhalten oder Herausforderungen bedeuten, die mit unklarem Ausgang assoziiert werden, lösen beim Betroffenen Emotionen aus. Die Situation wird in der Folge auf Relevanz für die eigene Person überprüft. Die in bedrohlichen Arbeitssituationen ausgelösten Emotionen, die als Gefühlszustände wahrgenommen werden und die damit einhergehende motivationale Energetisierung des Verhaltens (LeDoux, 2012), wirken sich auf die Bereitschaft zur kooperativen oder aber abwehrenden Bearbeitung problematischer, konfliktbeladener Situationen aus (Folger et al., 2018). In der Anwendung auf den Geschäftsalltag bedeutet dies, dass kritische Arbeitssituationen auf die betroffenen menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse (Epstein & Morling, 1995; Gasiet, 1981; Grawe, 2004) zurückbezogen werden und Verhalten zur Erfüllung der in der Situation tangierten Bedürfnisse auslösen (Schirmer, 2015).

Sollte sich die Situation aufgrund der näheren Beurteilung tatsächlich als persönlich relevant erweisen, wird in Anlehnung an Lazarus und Folkman (1984) eine differenziertere Situationsanalyse vorgenommen, um die möglichen Auswirkungen auf die persönlich relevanten Ziele, die verfügbaren Ressourcen und die zu erfüllenden Anforderungen zu bewerten. In der Meinung von Lazarus und Folkman (1984) lenken anspruchsvolle Situationen die Aufmerksamkeit antizipierend auf die Bewältigung der als kritisch eingestuften Situation (anticip-

patory coping), welche von psychologischen und physiologischen Auswirkungen auf die Gesundheit begleitet sein kann (Cox et al., 2011). Infolgedessen versucht eine Person durch Coping-Strategien externen und internen Anforderungen gerecht zu werden. Die Wahl einer Coping-Strategie bedeutet deshalb Wissensaktivierung und löst Umsetzungsverhalten aus, das dann zu Stressreaktionen führt, wenn das Gefühl eintritt, dass persönlich verfügbare psychologische und physische Grenzen überschritten werden (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Eine solche Einschätzung schafft ein Gefühl der Einschränkung des eigenen Wohlbefindens und damit von Autonomieverlust (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Lazarus und Folkman (1984) stufen deswegen das Risiko von psychischem Stress als Bedrohung für das Wohlbefinden ein, weil der subjektiv eingeschätzte psychische und physische Ressourcenbedarf die Grenzen der persönlichen Einsatzbereitschaft überschreitet. Nach Epstein und Morling (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995) ist der entscheidende Faktor die subjektive Bewertung der Situation, die dynamisch zwischen zwei evolutionär angelegten Systemen stattfindet. Diese führen einerseits zu einem rational bewussten und andererseits zu einem emotional erfahrungsorientierten Verständnis der Welt und zur Bildung von Überzeugungen. Wenn sich Mitarbeitende durch ihre Bereitschaft zur Verletzlichkeit und Risikoübernahme (Mayer et al., 1995) einer im Ausgang unsicheren Situation aussetzen, hat die Wahrnehmung fehlender persönlicher Kompetenz und damit der Verletzung des Grundbedürfnisses nach sozialer Anerkennung (Gasiet, 1981) entscheidend Einfluss auf die weitere Verfügbarkeit von handlungsleitender Motivation. Das Problem liegt darin, dass der psychologisch verursachte Stress, der durch das wahrgenommene psychische und physische Unvermögen im Umgang mit der anstehenden Situation verursacht wird, einen Angriff auf das eigene Selbstwertgefühl bewirkt (Semmer et al., 2007). So werden aufgrund der Kausalitätszuschreibung Erkenntnisse über das Selbst erfahren, die sich als negatives Feedback zur persönlichen Kompetenz einschränkend auf die intrinsische und extrinsische Motivation auswirken (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

13. Der Umgang mit Konflikten

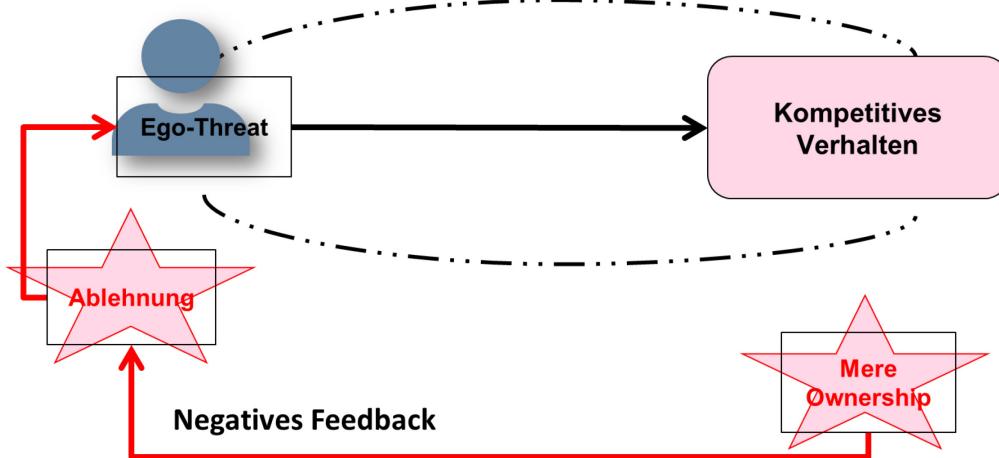
Menschen haben dann Schwierigkeiten Konflikte zu lösen, wenn sie Objekte, aber auch Standpunkte, die sie zu ihrem persönlichen Besitz zählen (mere ownership) tendenziell mit dem Selbst positiv assoziieren und als Teil ihres erweiterten Selbst (extended self) betrachten (De Dreu & van Knippenberg, 2005). Auf dieser Grundlage können Verluste von Gegenständen, aber auch entgegengesetzte Meinungen und Gegenargumente zu einer Bedrohung des Selbst (ego-threat) führen, weil die Betroffenen diesen Besitz als bestimmenden Bestandteil der eigenen Person betrachten. Bereits die Antizipation einer potenziellen Opposition, wie auch negatives Feedback können als Bedrohung des Selbst (ego-threat) aufgefasst werden (De Dreu & van Knippenberg, 2005). Konfliktsituationen bedeuten nach Meinung von De Dreu und van Knippenberg potenziell eine Bedrohung des Selbst. Diesen Zusammenhang konnten De Dreu und van Knippenberg mit vier aufeinander abgestimmten Experimenten mit Studenten der Universiteit van Amsterdam zusammen mit der Wirkung von mildernden Einflussfaktoren nachweisen. Wird den Probanden ein Set von Argumenten zugewiesen, das sie, trotz Unkenntnis des Inhalts, zu einem bestimmten Preis verkaufen sollen, entsteht bereits hier eine positiv geprägte Beziehung zum Selbst und eine negativ geprägte Einstellung zum Feedback-Geber (source derogation) in der Rolle des Käufers. Das zugewiesene, wenn auch im Inhalt unbekannte Set, wird als wertvoller als das nicht zugewiesene Set eingeschätzt, was zu einem deutlich höheren Preisanspruch für das zugewiesene Set führt. Eine negative Beurteilung des zum Kauf angebotenen Sets durch den potenziellen Käufer löst eine feindselige Haltung seitens des Anbieters aus, was sich in der von De Dreu und van Knippenberg durchgeföhrten Untersuchung in der Auswahl der versandten Textnachrichten (kompetitiv, kooperativ, lernorientiert) äussert.

Die Assoziation eines Objektes oder eines Standpunktes mit dem Selbst macht die Gefahr des Verlustes ebendieses persönlich identifizierenden Eigentums (mere ownership) zu

einer Bedrohung für das Selbst, weil es als positiver als vergleichbare Objekte oder Standpunkte bewertet wird. Die Gefahr des Verlustes bewirkt Schutzverhalten und kompetitives Verhalten aufgrund der entstehenden feindseligen und aggressiven Gefühle gegenüber dem Feedback-Geber (siehe Abbildung 13.1).

Abbildung 13.1

Ego-Threat und die Wirkung von Mere Ownership



Aufgrund der Forschungserkenntnisse von De Dreu und van Knippenberg (2005) kann das besitzergreifende Selbst als Erklärung benutzt werden, warum bereits der Besitz eines Objektes sich durch negatives Feedback zu einem Angriff auf das Selbst auswirken kann (siehe Abbildung 13.1). Diese Wirkung verfällt jedoch nach Erkenntnissen von De Dreu und van Knippenberg, wenn der von der Bedrohung Betroffene über ein starkes bewusstes Selbstkonzept (self-concept clarity) verfügt, so dass kompetitive Kognitionen nicht die Oberhand gewinnen. Genauso wirksam gegen verbohrtes und unnachgiebiges Verhalten, das den Austausch zwischen den Parteien verunmöglicht, erweist sich die Zuschreibung von Verantwortung für den Prozessverlauf (process accountability). In der Schlussfolgerung von De Dreu und van Knippenberg wird neben den beiden untersuchten Einflussfaktoren Selbstkonzept und Verantwortungsübernahme auch der Einfluss von übergeordneten Zielen als wirkungsvoll

eingestuft. Übergeordnete Ziele, wie beispielsweise prosoziale Ziele, können die Tendenz zu konflikteskalierendem Verhalten in Situationen, die als persönlich relevant eingeschätzt werden, wirksam eindämmen.

Situationen, die als persönlich relevant eingeschätzt werden, tangieren die im Laufe des Lebens durch Erfahrung entwickelten motivationalen Ziele (Grawe, 2004). Die in der Interaktion wahrgenommene Inkompatibilität und Vorwegnahme von Interferenzen zwischen voneinander abhängigen Parteien ist daher nach Meinung von Folger, Poole und Stutman (2018) Grund für Konfliktpotenziale, welche durch situationsspezifische Ereignisse zur Konfliktlösung führen. Es ist jedoch möglich, dass durch Verantwortungsübernahme oder die Anerkennung von übergeordneten prosozialen Zielen (De Dreu & van Knippenberg, 2005) extrinsische (integriert) wie auch intrinsische Motivation entsteht (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Damit kann die Gefahr des Verlustes eines die eigene Person identifizierenden Eigentums abgewendet und Schutzverhalten wie auch feindseliges Verhalten vermieden werden. Das Grundbedürfnis nach sozialer Anerkennung in der Gemeinschaft kann auf diese Weise durch eine über das Individuum hinausgehende Situationswahrnehmung gestützt werden (Gasiet, 1981).

14. Zusammenfassung

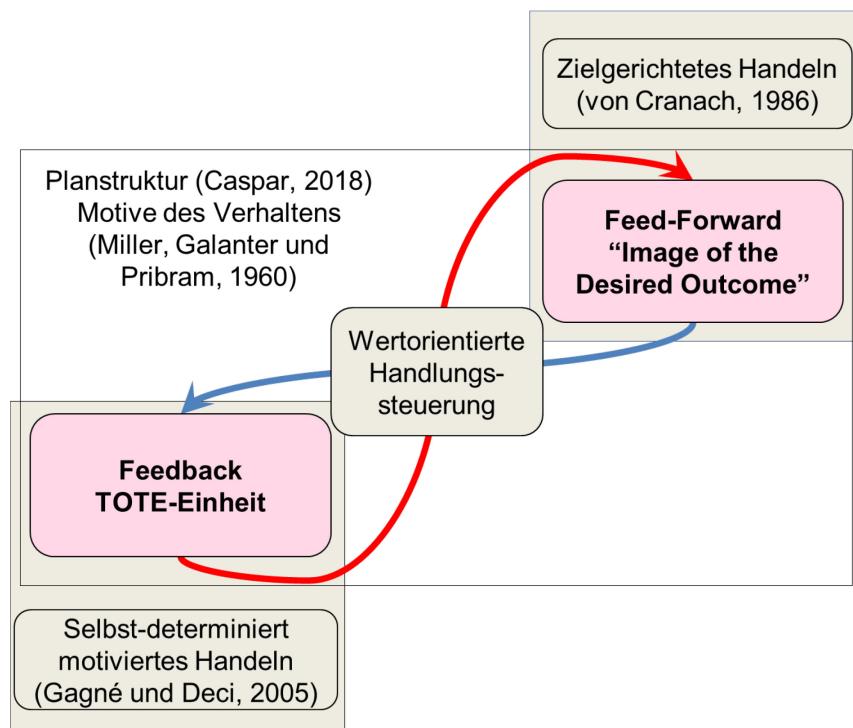
Handlungslenkung durch Feedback- und Feed-forward-Prozesse

Es können drei Schwerpunkte in der Handlungssteuerung ausgemacht werden, die Einfluss auf die handlungsleitende Motivation nehmen: Kommunikation, Steuerung der Ausführung durch Feedback-Loops und Steuerung der Zielerreichung durch Feed-forward-Prozesse. Feedback und Feed-forward lenken den handelnden Menschen interdependent in Richtung eines in der Zukunft vorgestellten Zustandes. Feedback als Schlüsselfaktor für die Wahrnehmung persönlicher Kompetenz begründet handlungsleitende Motivation, so dass durch Kommunikation Feed-forward-Prozesse ausgelöst werden und wertorientiert zielgerichtetes Han-

dein möglich wird (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Miller et al., 1960; von Cranach, 1986). Durch aktive Kommunikation können beide Steuerungsfunktionen aufeinander abgestimmt werden und innovatives Handeln möglich machen. Die Steuerung der Handlungsausführung der einzelnen Planungsschritte durch Feedback-Loops wird mit der Steuerung der Zielerreichung über Qualitätsvorgaben zu Feed-forward-Prozessen verbunden. Wertorientierte Handlungssteuerung entsteht, wenn der Handelnde durch Feedback-Prozesse Information zum Stand seiner Aktivitäten erhält und durch Feed-forward-Prozesse den übergeordneten Sinn dieser Handlung einordnen kann (siehe Abbildung 14.1).

Abbildung 14.1

Handlungslenkung durch Feedback- und Feed-forward-Prozesse



Wie in Abbildung 14.1 dargestellt, werden die Pläne und Strukturen des Verhaltens (Miller et al., 1960) einerseits durch Feedback-Loops vorangetrieben. Rückmeldungen, die über die Einheit "Test-Operate-Test-Exit" erfolgen, geben Auskunft über den Status der durchgeföhrten Aktivitäten. Andererseits wird Aktivität wirksam, weil durch Feed-forward-

Prozesse die Vorstellung eines gewünschten Ergebnisses genährt wird, womit die Feedback-Loops mit Vergleichsinformation unterlegt werden. Im Arbeitskontext kann selbst-determiniert motiviertes Handeln nur teilweise befriedigt werden, da aufgrund der Rollenstruktur im Unternehmen, Aufgaben hierarchisch zugeordnet werden. Mit Ausrichtung auf eine übergeordnete Zielvorstellung kann jedoch Sinn kommuniziert und aufgrund der dadurch entstehenden Feed-forward-Prozesse die Aktivitäten der Beteiligten gelenkt werden. Ziele motivieren und stiftet über kommunikative Arbeit die Gestaltung der Vorstellung eines angestrebten Zustands (Locke & Latham, 2006; Miller et al., 1960; von Cranach, 1986). Zielgerichtetes Handeln (von Cranach, 1986; von Cranach et al., 1980) ist deshalb entscheidend auf die qualitativ hochwertige Arbeit von Führungskräften angewiesen, die fähig sind, geeignete Ziele auszuwählen und über die kommunikativen Fähigkeiten verfügen, zukünftig gewünschte Zustände im Dialog zu entwickeln, die als Zukunftsvorstellung einen Lenkungs- und Lernprozess auslösen. Motivation zum Handeln entwickelt sich auf einem Kontinuum, das von fehlender Motivation (amotivation) bis zur vollständig intrinsisch motivierten Aktivität führt und sich in Graden durch extrinsische Motivatoren anregen lässt (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Selbst-determiniert motiviertes Handeln wird mehrheitlich durch intrinsische Motivation gesteuert, was durch die entstehende Autonomie Freiheit zur Sinngebung verschafft. Selbst-determiniert motiviertes Handeln kann auch durch positives Feedback zur persönlichen Kompetenz angeregt werden. Aufgrund der Kausalitätszuschreibung PLOC (Perceived Locus of Causality) kann das Bedürfnis des Selbst nach sozialer Anerkennung befriedigt werden (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Gasiet, 1981).

C Theoretische Grundlagen III: Das dynamische Unternehmen

Die dynamische Funktionalität eines Unternehmens

Wirksames Innovations-Management ist entscheidend mit der bidirektionalen Kommunikationsbereitschaft des Unternehmens verknüpft, wodurch in der Interaktion Einfluss auf die Zielbildung der Mitarbeitenden genommen wird und gleichzeitig Ideen zur Anpassung, Erneuerung oder Umwälzung ernsthaft bearbeitet werden.

15. Die Risikobereitschaft eines Unternehmens zur Innovation

Innovation erfordert vom Unternehmen die Bereitschaft zur Veränderung und damit zum Innovationsrisiko, was die bewusst akzeptierte Zustimmung aller Stakeholder und eine breite Kommunikationstätigkeit auf allen Unternehmensebenen verlangt. Innovation stützt sich auf die Interdependenz zwischen operativer und strategischer Tätigkeit und ist nur auf der Grundlage des gegenseitigen Vertrauens seitens aller Stufen in der Unternehmenshierarchie realisierbar. Eine effiziente Organisation von Menschen innerhalb eines Unternehmens mit Ausrichtung auf wirtschaftliche aber auch gesellschaftlich akzeptierte Ziele wird durch organisierte Tätigkeit ermöglicht. Nach Meinung von Miller, Galanter und Pribram (1960, S. 70) ist dies durch „shared Plans“ überhaupt erst möglich. „Shared Plans“ schränken jedoch naturgemäß die Befriedigung individueller Bedürfnisse nach Autonomie durch Autorität in der hierarchisch gebildeten Organisationsstruktur ein (Gasiet, 1981). Um Kreativität zu ermöglichen und damit Innovationen zu schaffen, ist deshalb gemäß Dimock (1986) ein Gleichgewicht zwischen Regulierung und Autonomie notwendig. Dimocks Forschungsarbeit befasst sich mit den für die erfolgreiche Umsetzung einer Regierungspolitik notwendigen Grundlagen in der öffentlichen Verwaltung (public administration). Seiner Meinung nach ist den kreativi-

tätsrelevanten Komponenten des Managements von Innovation besondere Aufmerksamkeit zu widmen, weil diese das Überleben einer Gesellschaft und mit ihr den Wirtschaftserfolg der Unternehmen sichern. Zu diesem Zweck unterscheidet Dimock zwischen Ansätzen wie Intuition, Synthese, Vorstellungskraft und Aufmerksamkeitsebenen (levels of attention), die auf die Herstellung von Stimmigkeit und Kongruenz mit dem Bestehenden ausgerichtet sind. Diese vier auf Integration ausgerichteten Ansätze werden mit dem auf Diskrepanz orientierten Ansatz ergänzt, der durch Krisen entstehende Diskrepanzen und daraus resultierende Konflikte zu bewältigen versucht. Letztendlich ist es im Umgang mit Kreativität entscheidend, ein Gleichgewicht zwischen Kongruenz und Diskrepanz herzustellen.

Die Aufmerksamkeitsebenen (levels of attention) sind mit der Idee des gegenseitigen Vertrauens und der Erkenntnis der zwischen den organisatorischen Ebenen im Unternehmen bestehenden Interdependenzen verbunden. Aufgrund einer breiten Ausrichtung der Aufmerksamkeit wird es möglich, unterschiedliche Betrachtungsweisen in Beziehung zu setzen und sich auf Dialog einzulassen. Leitlinien und Inspiration durch das Management sind schlussendlich nur soweit wirksam, wie sie durch die Motivation und praktische Umsetzung der Mitarbeitenden unterstützt werden. Krisenbewältigung und Konfliktmanagement andererseits konzentrieren sich auf Diskrepanzen, die im besten Fall dazu führen, dass Gewohnheiten, bisherige Ziele und Methoden überprüft und in Frage gestellt werden können. Bestehenden Strukturen und Prozesse können so den erkannten neuen Bedingungen und Ansprüchen erfolgreich angepasst werden oder gar Raum für eine innovative Lösung schaffen (Dimock, 1986).

16. Das Konzept der transformationalen Führung

Veränderungsprozesse erfordern einen angemessenen Managementansatz mit entsprechenden Führungsqualitäten, nicht zuletzt in Krisen- und Konfliktsituationen, welche die Um-

setzung von Veränderungsanforderungen unabdingbar machen. Mit einem auf Kommunikation und Dialog ausgerichteten Führungsansatz wird sichergestellt, dass die Mitarbeitenden bereit sind, ihre Fähigkeiten und Talente zum Wohle des Unternehmens einzusetzen und sich für die geforderte Leistung zu engagieren. In der Kombination von Informationsprozessen auf individueller Ebene mit den Kommunikationsprozessen auf Gruppenebene wird gemäss von Cranach (1986) die Entwicklung von Erwartungen an zukünftige Gegebenheiten gefördert, so dass sich Gruppen über Feed-forward-Prozesse selbstaktiv in Richtung eines angestrebten zukünftigen Zustands lenken können. Die Erwartungsbildung auf individueller Ebene (Schank, 1982) sorgt diesbezüglich für die zur Bildung von „shared Plans“ (Miller et al., 1960) benötigte Grundlage.

16.1 Erwartungsbildung auf der individuellen Ebene

Die Speicherung von Episoden aus dem eigenen Leben geschieht in der Vorstellung von Schank (1982) dynamisch, und zwar in Form strukturierter und in neuen Situationen wieder erinnerbarer Gedächtnisinhalte (scenes). Skripts beschreiben standardisierte Prozessabläufe, die aufgrund ihrer Erinnerungsfähigkeit in der konkreten Situation Bewertungsvorgänge ermöglichen und so Lernprozesse auslösen können. Über die Funktion der Generalisierung werden Strukturen zu den Gedächtnisinhalten (scenes) aufgebaut und als Sequenz in Form eines Skripts geordnet (Schank, 1982). Gemäss Schank können aufgrund von neuen Erfahrungen umfassendere, Szenen-übergreifende Einheiten gebildet werden und zum Beispiel als Abfolge von Szenen zu einer Ferienreise organisiert werden (Memory Organizing Packets: MOPs). Es können auch thematisch Bereichs-unabhängige Strukturen zur Erkennung von Gemeinsamkeiten aufgebaut werden (Thematic Organization Packets: TOPs). Zum Beispiel kann die Ähnlichkeit zwischen der West Side Story mit der Geschichte von Romeo und Julia festgestellt werden und eine Erwartungshaltung bezüglich des Ausgangs der Geschichte auf-

bauen. Eine Veränderung der Strukturen bedarf immer einer Ergebniserwartung und der Fehlererkennung (Schank, 1982).

Durch die Interaktion zwischen Wissenserwerb und aktiver Prozessgestaltung wird die Grundlage zum Selbstwachstum des Menschen gebildet. Im Abgleich mit bereits vorliegenden Strukturen wird er auf Unterschiede aufmerksam, die der Computerwissenschaftler und Psychologe Schank (1982) einerseits als den unbeabsichtigten Prozess des Failure-Driven Memory (FDM) versteht, womit bereits früher festgestellte Ungereimtheiten ins Gedächtnis gerufen werden. Andererseits versteht Schank die Funktionsweise des Menschen auch als bewusst intendiertes Erinnern von Plänen und Vorwegnehmen von Ergebnissen, die zu einem Outcome-Driven Reminding (ODR) führen. Der Mensch stellt aufgrund des FDM Unterschiede fest und sucht aktiv in der Erinnerung durch ODR nach früheren Szenen im Gedächtnis. Auf der Basis von neuen Erfahrungen wird ein Lernprozess ausgelöst, der abstrahierend über das Einzelereignis hinaus zu mächtigeren, umfassenderen Gedächtnisstrukturen führt.

Die Theorie des Erinnerns und Lernens in Computern wie auch im Menschen (Schank, 1982) beschreibt differenzierte Gedächtnisstrukturen und deren Funktionsweisen, aufgrund derer es dem Gedächtnis möglich wird, in neuen Situationen Assoziationen zu gespeicherten Szenen und Skripts herzustellen und Ergebniserwartungen über zukünftige Situationen zu generieren. So gesehen können durch Erfahrung aufgebaute Gedächtnisinhalte genutzt werden, um Erwartungen an zukünftige ähnliche Situationen mit vergleichbarer Zielausrichtung und analoger Handlungssequenz aufzubauen und als Grundlage für die Handlungsplanung zu nutzen. Hypothesen über die zukünftige Entwicklung werden in der Theorie des lernorientierten dynamischen Gedächtnisses (Schank, 1982) einerseits fehlergesteuert (FDM) und andererseits intentional durch kontextübergreifende Ergebniserwartung (cross-contextual reminding) generiert und steuern damit das Verhalten.

16.2 Zielgerichtetes Gruppenhandeln

Feed-forward-Prozesse setzen die Wahl von Zielen und die Generierung der Vorstellung eines anzustrebenden Zustands in Form eines Handlungsergebnisses voraus (von Cranach, 1986). Das bedeutet demzufolge, dass Handeln in der Gruppe sich aus dieser Optik auf die gegenseitige Bereitschaft zur Kooperation und zur Koordination der Zusammenarbeit entwickelt und nur durch aktive Kommunikationsprozesse und durch den Austausch der Ergebniserwartungen zu zielgerichtetem Handeln entstehen kann. Ohne Feed-forward-Prozesse können deswegen keine Steuerungs-, Anreiz-, Überwachungs-, und Bewertungsprozesse sinnvoll genutzt werden, weil für ein selbstaktives System, wie die Gruppe eines sein kann, die Orientierung auf ein gemeinsam deklariertes Ziel mit einem bestimmten zu erwartenden Zustand fehlen würde. Selbstaktive Systeme bilden die Grundlage für das Funktionieren eines Unternehmens, was Führung als eine zentrale Gruppenfunktion notwendig macht (von Cranach, 1986). Führung bedeutet für ein selbstaktives System die Wahrnehmung von Steuerung (steering), Energetisierung (energizing) und Überwachung (control) durch definierte Rollenträger (von Cranach, 1986). Für von Cranach ist es ausserdem für die Entstehung nachhaltig wirksamer Aktivität zentral, dass sich Gruppenidentität (group identity) und Gruppenkohäsion (group cohesion) entwickeln, was nur durch Führungsleistung erreicht werden kann.

16.3 Der transformationale und transaktionale Führungsstil

Der transformationale Führungsstil ist von Anfang an als veränderungs- und werteorientierte Führung im Kontinuum zwischen transaktional und transformational (full-range) konzipiert worden. Inspiriert durch die Analysen politischer Systeme des Politikwissenschaftlers und Historikers Burns (1978) hat Bass (1995) das Konzept der transformationalen Führung entwickelt. Herausragende Führungskräfte zeichnen sich demnach durch vier Kerneigenschaften aus: Vorbildfunktion (idealised influence), inspirierende Motivation (inspirational motivation), intellektuelle Anregung (intellectual stimulation) und individuelle Unterstützung (indi-

vidualised consideration). Diese Kerneigenschaften beeinflussen die Leistungsfähigkeit der Mitarbeitenden und des Unternehmens. In der Vorstellung von Bass ist es transformational orientierten Führungskräften möglich, aufgrund ihres eigenen Vorbild-gebenden Verhaltens, Mitarbeitende emotional und wertebasiert anzusprechen, sie für ein gemeinsames Ziel zu begeistern und ihnen Sinn und Orientierung zu geben. Diese Kerneigenschaften machen es möglich, dass eine gewisse Eigendynamik und Nachhaltigkeit im Verhalten entsteht, welche nicht ausschliesslich an die Führungsperson gebunden ist, aber auf Reziprozität beruht, in welcher Wertschätzung ein zentraler Wert ist (Ferrin et al., 2008; Pundt & Nerdingen, 2012).

Folgt man Gasiet (1981), so bedeutet dies, dass durch die Verwirklichung von sozialen Beziehungen in Gemeinschaften, Unternehmen oder staatlichen Organisationen sinnstiftende Handlung erst möglich wird. Handlung auf Unternehmensebene ist nur deshalb möglich, weil sie auf der operativen Leistung der involvierten Individuen beruht, die auf diese Weise zur Erhaltung und Entwicklung des Unternehmens beitragen, sofern gleichzeitig die individuellen menschlichen Grundbedürfnisse befriedigt werden.

Im Gegensatz zu den Eigenschaften des transformationalen Führungsstils liegt der Fokus im transaktionsorientierte Führungsstil in erster Linie auf dem Ansatz der Führungskräfte, ihre Mitarbeitenden durch Anreize zu motivieren (Burns, 1978). Die Aufmerksamkeit wird auf die Transaktion zwischen Führung und Mitarbeitenden gelenkt, in welcher im Austausch von Leistung die Ergebnisse nach festgelegten Massstäben bewertet werden. Als Ergebnis dieser Betonung von Belohnung und Bestrafung entwickelt sich im Unternehmen eine Präferenz für extrinsisch orientierte Motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005), die vordefinierte Leistungen sichert, aber wenig zur Förderung innovativer Leistungen beiträgt.

Zentral für den transformationalen Führungsstil ist der auf Veränderung und Wertorientierung ausgerichtete Fokus, der sich insgesamt auf das Beziehungsgefüge zwischen Individuum und Unternehmen auswirkt. Eine Führungskraft im transformational orientierten Füh-

rungsstil kann in ihrer Funktion als idealisiertes Vorbild inspirierend auf die Motivation der Mitarbeitenden einwirken, was zusätzlich Raum für die intellektuelle Anregung der individuell zu fördernden Mitarbeitenden gibt. Transformationale Führung ist deshalb nicht, wie im transaktionalen Führungsstil angelegt, auf den Austausch von vordefinierten, messbaren Leistungen fixiert, die es zu überwachen gilt, sondern kann flexibler durch den entstehenden Dialog und die kommunizierten Werte auf Veränderungsanforderungen eingehen.

17. Die organisatorische Arbeitsumgebung als Voraussetzung für Innovation

Neben den Eigenschaften eines auf Innovation ausgerichteten Führungsstils sind auch die Auswirkungen des Arbeitsumfelds eines Unternehmens auf die Innovationskraft zu berücksichtigen. Die im Unternehmen realisierten organisatorischen Strukturen und Prozesse üben einen kulturell gefärbten Einfluss auf das Verhalten und damit auch auf die innovative Leistungsfähigkeit der Mitarbeitenden aus. Bereits in den 1990er Jahren hat sich Amabile, Psychologin und Professorin für Betriebswirtschaftslehre an der Harvard University, schwerpunktmässig mit dem organisatorischen Arbeitsumfeld als Voraussetzung für die Entwicklung von Motivation, Kreativität und Innovation auseinandergesetzt. Im Mittelpunkt stehen die von den Mitarbeitenden wahrgenommenen organisatorischen Rahmenbedingungen ihrer Arbeit und den dadurch ausgelösten psychologischen Einfluss auf das Verhalten. Im Gegensatz zur Tendenz, sich auf die positiven Faktoren der Kreativität zu konzentrieren, wurden im Team von Amabile mögliche organisatorische Hindernisse zur Kreativität untersucht und das Konzept der „organizational impediments“ identifiziert (Amabile et al., 1996). Um die Kreativitätskultur eines Unternehmens quantitativ zu messen, entwickelte das Forschungsteam von Amabile das Instrument KEYS zur Beurteilung des Kreativitätsniveaus im Unternehmen. Kreativität wird in diesem Kontext als die Anzahl der durch Individuen und Teams produzierten, ungewöhnlichen und nützlichen Ideen definiert (Amabile et al., 1996). Das Befragungs-

instrument KEYS untersucht fünf Schlüsselaspekte aus der Sicht des Mitarbeitenden. Davon werden drei als positiv (1, 2, 3) und zwei als negativ (4, 5) beurteilt (Amabile et al., 1996): (1) Förderung der Risikobereitschaft und unterstützende Bewertung neuer Ideen mit herausfordernden Aufgaben durch das Top-Management, das mittlere Management und auf Teamebene, (2) Verfügbarkeit von Ressourcen, (3) Freiheit in der selbständigen Arbeitsorganisation, (4) Arbeitsdruck und (5) organisatorische Hindernisse wie Streitigkeiten, starre formale Management-Strukturen und Konservatismus. Eine der wichtigsten Erkenntnisse aus der KEYS-Forschung ist die Entdeckung von Amabile und ihrem Team, dass die wahrgenommene Arbeitsumgebung den Kreativitätsgrad des Unternehmens als Ganzes beeinflusst. Herausfordernde Arbeit (1) mit Unterstützung der Kreativität auf allen drei Organisationsebenen (Top-Management, mittleres Management und Arbeitsgruppe) und (5) das Fehlen organisatorischer Hindernisse machen den Unterschied aus. Durch diese beiden Faktoren wird die subjektive Wahrnehmung der kreativitätsfördernden Atmosphäre in der Unternehmung entscheidend beeinflusst (Amabile et al., 1996). Individuen, so die logische Folgerung, handeln in einem sie beeinflussenden grösseren Kontext. Die kreative Leistungsfähigkeit der Mitarbeitenden kann durch eine geeignete Gestaltung der Rahmenbedingungen zur Bewältigung von herausfordernden Aufträgen oder Projekten gefördert werden.

18. Der Einfluss von Führung auf die Innovationsleistung

Nimmt man den Einfluss von Führung auf die Innovationsleistung eines Unternehmens näher unter die Lupe, so ist neben den Kerneigenschaften von Führung, wie sie durch Bass (1995) als entscheidend für die Innovationsfähigkeit eines Unternehmens verstanden werden, auch die Wirkung der wahrgenommenen Arbeitsumgebung auf den Mitarbeitenden für den Kreativitätsgrad des Unternehmens von Bedeutung (Amabile et al., 1996). Nicht nur Füh-

rungseigenschaften, sondern auch eine kreativitätsfördernde Arbeitsumgebung sind für die innovative Dynamik eines Unternehmens entscheidend.

In Übereinstimmung mit Stogdill (1950) ist Führung auch ein Prozess der Einflussnahme. Durch Führung wird aufgrund dieser Vorstellung auf die Aktivitäten einer organisierten Gruppe Einfluss genommen, und zwar auf ihre Bemühungen, angemessene Ziele zu setzen und zu erreichen. Auf diese Weise können Gruppen durch den Prozess der Führung befähigt werden, Leistung zu erbringen, weil die organisatorischen Bedingungen für die zielorientierte und erfolgversprechende Koordination der gemeinsamen Kräfte und aufgabenspezifischen Verantwortlichkeiten geschaffen werden.

Betrachtet man Führung aus einem weiteren Blickwinkel, so werden die von einer Führungskraft benötigten Fähigkeiten zur Leistungsmotivierung in den Vordergrund gestellt (House et al., 2002). Die Ergebnisse der Forschungsstudie „Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness“ (GLOBE), die zwischen 1993 und 2003 von rund 150 Forschern aus über 60 Nationen als Repräsentanten aller Regionen der Welt durchgeführt wurde, führten bereits 1994 zum Konsens. Führung ist die Fähigkeit eines Einzelnen, andere zu beeinflussen, zu motivieren und zu unterstützen, so dass diese zur Effektivität und zum Erfolg einer Organisation beitragen können, denen sie angehören (House et al., 2002).

Zusammenfassend betrachtet gründet der Einfluss von Führung auf die Innovationsleistung eines Unternehmens auf die Kombination unterschiedlicher Faktoren. Die Kerneigenschaften der transformationalen Führung prägen einen auf Kommunikation und Dialog ausgerichteten Führungsstil, der die Bereitschaft der Mitarbeitenden, sich auf Risiken einzulassen, fördert und damit die Lernbereitschaft des Unternehmens signalisiert (Bass, 1995; House et al., 2002). Kreative Leistungen können sich zudem am besten dort entfalten, wo herausfordernde Arbeit die für kreative Leistungen notwendige Unterstützung auf allen Organisationsebenen erhält, so dass organisatorische Hindernisse, wie beispielsweise starre, schwerfällige

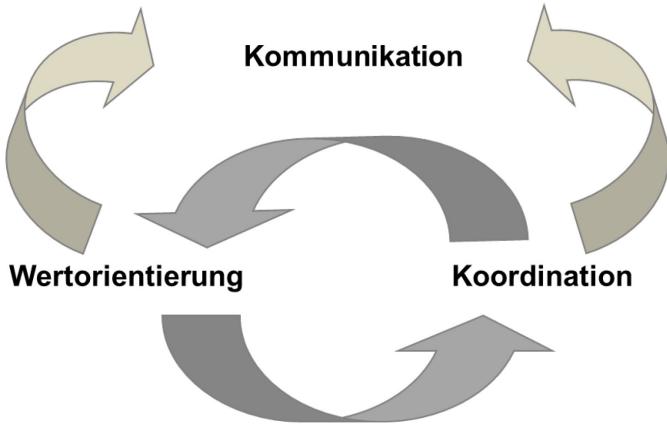
Unternehmensabläufe, die Arbeit nicht beeinträchtigen (Amabile et al., 1996). Im Verständnis von Führung liegt neben der Fähigkeit, Menschen zu führen und so zum Erfolg des Unternehmens beizutragen, auch ein organisatorischer prozessorientierter Aspekt, der darauf beruht, organisatorische Einheiten im Unternehmen prozessmäßig in der Leistungserbringung zu begleiten (Stogdill, 1950).

18.1 Die gegenseitige Erwartungshaltung

Als entscheidend für die Leistungsentwicklung der organisatorischen Einheiten im Unternehmen erweist sich in der Meinung von Stogdill (1950) die gegenseitige Erwartungshaltung, die zwischen dem Unternehmen und den Gruppenmitgliedern in den organisatorischen Einheiten besteht. Eine organisatorische Einheit richtet sich auf ein gemeinsames Anliegen aus und verfügt im Unterschied zu einer blossen Gruppierung von Individuen über eine Rollenstruktur mit unterschiedlichen rollengebundenen Verantwortlichkeiten und integrierten Führungsfunktionen, die aufgabenspezifisch koordiniert werden (Stogdill, 1950). Aufgrund dieser koordinativen Leistung kann Nachhaltigkeit in der Zusammenarbeit dann erwartet werden, wenn die Ziele des Unternehmens mit den sozialen Werten der Individuen in den organisatorischen Einheiten übereinstimmen und dadurch gesamthaft zu einem gesellschaftlich relevanten Wert beitragen (siehe Abbildung 18.1). Somit bestimmen nach Meinung von Stogdill (1950) die Effizienz in der Leistungserbringung und die Effektivität in der Befriedigung der individuellen motivationalen Ziele den Erfolg eines Unternehmens.

Abbildung 18.1

Kommunikation, Wertorientierung und Koordination



Durch eine konsequente Wertorientierung (siehe Abbildung 18.1) kann die Leistungsfähigkeit eines Unternehmens im gesellschaftlichen Bezugsrahmen durch Vielfalt und Qualität gesteigert werden. Eine effiziente Kommunikation erhöht die Transparenz und Qualität der Problemlösung. Eine wirkungsvolle Koordination vermeidet Doppelspurigkeiten und schafft Zufriedenheit.

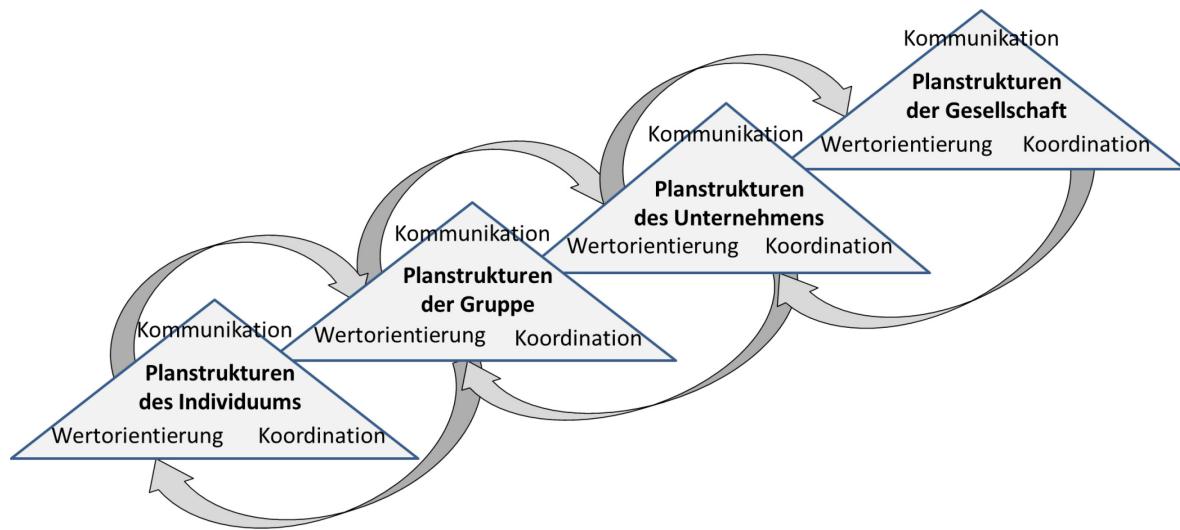
18.2 Das Potenzial der transformationalen Führung

Moynihan, Pandey und Wright (2013) sind zur Überzeugung gelangt, dass der transformationale Führungsstil einen entscheidenden Einfluss auf die Innovationsleistung eines Unternehmens, insbesondere im öffentlichen Sektor, ausüben kann. Angesicht des hohen Wettbewerbsdrucks und der begrenzten Ressourcen steigen die Leistungsanforderungen und verlangen nach einem flexiblen organisatorischen Wandel. Aufgrund der Analyse zum empirischen Forschungsstand vertreten Moynihan und seine Kollegen die Idee, dass durch die Qualitäten des transformationalen Führungsstils indirekt Einfluss auf die Zielausrichtung des Mitarbeitenden genommen wird. Durch die mittels des transformationalen Führungsstils ausgelösten Interaktionen werden die über das Individuum hinausgehenden Ziele angesprochen,

so dass sich die Bereitschaft der Mitarbeitenden erhöht, sich in Funktion der „higher-order needs“ zum Wohle des gesamten Unternehmens auszurichten (siehe Abbildung 18.2).

Abbildung 18.2

Koordination der Planstrukturen auf unterschiedlichen Koordinationsebenen



Die in Abbildung 18.2 dargestellten hierarchisch aufgebauten Stufen verweisen einerseits auf die koordinativen Bemühungen des Individuums, deren Pläne auf Konsistenz in der Bedürfnisbefriedigung ausgerichtet sind. Andererseits wird ein Bezug zu den über das Individuum hinausgehenden Plänen hergestellt, die durch die Gruppe als organisatorische Einheit verkörpert werden und die sich aus den Interessen des Unternehmens gegenüber den Stakeholders (Innenorientierung) und den Shareholders (Aussenorientierung) entwickeln. Insgesamt entspricht diese Hierarchisierung den Wertorientierungen der Individuen gegenüber der Gesellschaft und beeinflusst zugleich durch kommunikative Bemühungen die Zielbildung der Mitarbeitenden im Unternehmen.

18.3 Die organisatorische Lernkultur

Vorbildliche Führung, inspirierende Motivation, intellektuelle Stimulation und individuelle Berücksichtigung schaffen die Bedingungen für die Entstehung einer organisatorischen

Lernkultur und die Senkung defensiver Verhaltensweisen (Moynihan et al., 2013), was die Tendenz zu konflikteskalierendem Verhalten in kritischen Situationen, die als persönlich bedeutsam eingeschätzt werden, eindämmt (De Dreu & van Knippenberg, 2005; Folger et al., 2018). Die Qualität der transformationalen Führung besteht darin, die Mitarbeitenden zu ermutigen, auf ihrem Weg zur Innovation starre Annahmen in Frage zu stellen. Es geht vorwiegend darum, den Mitarbeitenden das Bewusstsein für die gesellschaftliche Bedeutung der Unternehmensleistung zu schärfen und sie damit zu neuen Ideen zu inspirieren. Deshalb ist nach Meinung von Moynihan, Pandey und Wright (2013) die intellektuelle Stimulation der Mitarbeitenden, als eines der Prinzipien der transformationalen Führung zu betrachten, das ideal dazu geeignet ist, ein Arbeitsumfeld für eigenständiges Denken zu schaffen, neue Ideen zu entwickeln und bestehende Rahmenbedingungen zu hinterfragen. Überdies wird durch die bidirektionale Kommunikation (two-way communication) die Leistungsfähigkeit und Innovationskraft eines Unternehmens dadurch gestärkt, dass durch die Vorbildfunktion der Führungskräfte eine qualifizierte Lernkultur gefördert wird. Die organisatorische Lernkultur ist es, die den Mitarbeitenden dazu bewegt, Vorschläge zu präsentieren oder neue Ideen zu entwickeln, ohne negative Folgen befürchten zu müssen (Amabile et al., 1996; Moynihan et al., 2013). Die Mitarbeitenden fühlen sich in einer transformational orientierten Unternehmenskultur durch Feedback angespornt und durch Kritiken nicht zu einem defensiv schützenden Verhalten gedrängt (De Dreu & van Knippenberg, 2005), was zu einer Eindämmung des intrinsisch motivierten Verhaltens führen würde (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

18.4 Die reife Bedürfniskonstellation im dynamischen Unternehmen

An dieser Stelle des Reviews der theoretischen Grundlagen ergibt es Sinn, einen Rückbezug zur Bedürfnistheorie von Gasier herzustellen (1981). Ausgehend von den phylogenetisch und ontogenetisch begründeten menschlichen Grundbedürfnissen kann die Überlegen-

heit des Grundbedürfnisses nach Sinngebung in den Bedürfniskonstellationen der Mitarbeitenden eines Unternehmens auch bei hoher Interdependenz der beteiligten Stakeholder Wirkung entfalten. Aufgrund einer reiferen Bedürfniskonstellation, die auf die Befriedigung des Grundbedürfnisses nach emotionalen zwischenmenschlichen Beziehungen in Verbindung mit dem Bedürfnis nach Sinn ausgerichtet ist, kann das Bedürfnis nach sozialer Anerkennung trotz allem berücksichtigt werden, wenn gleichzeitig soziale Ungleichheiten abgebaut werden (Gasiet, 1981). Aus dieser Perspektive bietet der transformationale Führungsstil mit seinen vier Ansätzen zu einem umfassenden Führungsmodell die notwendigen Voraussetzungen, um in Zeiten großer wirtschaftlicher Umbrüche und unternehmensspezifischer Krisensituationen die Chancen der Transformation aktiv zu erkennen und zu nutzen. Durch Integrität und wohlwollendes Verhalten der Führungskräfte in ihrer Vorbildfunktion können die Voraussetzungen für respektvolles Verhalten und wertschätzende gegenseitige Interaktion geschaffen werden, die zur Entwicklung nachhaltiger Vertrauensbeziehungen beitragen (Mayer et al., 1995). Transformationale Führung als Voraussetzung für weitsichtiges Change Management ist geeignet, Störeinflüssen wie Opportunismus, pathologischen Persönlichkeiten, Unternehmens-Plagiarismus und krimineller Energie wirksam zu begegnen, damit innovative Ideen entstehen und mit Aussicht auf Erfolg und Wirkung im gesamten Unternehmen umgesetzt werden können. Ein Unternehmen, das nachhaltige Vertrauensbeziehungen pflegt, motiviert durch Inspiration und fördert intellektuell seine Mitarbeitenden in ihren Funktionen und Verantwortlichkeiten, so dass leistungsorientierte, funktionale Arbeitsprozesse entstehen. Diese Unternehmen schätzen und fördern die Fähigkeiten ihrer Mitarbeitenden, welche in Übereinstimmung mit den nachvollziehbar kommunizierten Unternehmenszielen eine Vorstellung der angestrebten Zukunft entwickeln und sich in ihrer Rollenverantwortung in die angezeigte Richtung engagieren (von Cranach, 1986). Das entstehende intrinsisch motivierte Engage-

ment, das selbstdeterminiert zum Handeln anregt, führt zu hoher Arbeitsqualität, kreativer Problemlösung und innovativer Leistung (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

19. Zusammenfassung

Das dynamische Unternehmen in der Transformation

Das dynamische Unternehmen befindet sich dann in der Transformation, wenn es ihm gelingt, durch die Herstellung von Vertrauensbeziehungen (Mayer et al., 1995) zwischen den Mitarbeitenden auf allen hierarchischen Stufen eine organisatorische Lernkultur (Bleicher, 1999; Schein, 1985, 2016) aufzubauen. Eine organisatorische Lernkultur wird durch einen bidirektionalen Dialogstil (Moynihan et al., 2013) und einer transparenten Kommunikation (Rogers, 2003) genährt. Handlungsleitende Motivation entsteht in der Folge, wenn durch gegenseitiges Feedback die Wahrnehmung persönlicher Kompetenz gestützt und dem Handelnden Respekt entgegengebracht wird (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Gasiet, 1981). In Ergänzung dazu können durch Kommunikationsarbeit wertvolle Feed-forward-Prozesse ausgelöst werden, die sinnorientiert zielgerichtetes Handeln möglich machen (Gasiet, 1981; Miller et al., 1960; von Cranach, 1986; von Cranach et al., 1980). Führungskräfte, die gekonnt die Kerneigenschaften des transformationalen Führungsstils umsetzen, können das intellektuelle Potenzial im Unternehmen fördern und das motivationale Engagement der Mitarbeitenden anspornen (Bass, 1995). Zusammen bilden Vertrauensbeziehungen wie auch ein transformational orientierter Führungsstil die Voraussetzungen für eine dynamische Entwicklung der Unternehmenskultur. Diese Voraussetzungen bewirken, dass sich das Unternehmen im wirtschaftlichen Kontext den inneren organisationalen und äusseren gesellschaftlichen Ansprüchen dynamisch anzupassen vermag.

D Execution Part 1

Why Innovative Performance Requires the Willingness to Take Risks: An Integrative View on Trust and Corporate Culture

Abstract

Mutual trust creates lasting emotional relationships between the members of a community, thereby ensuring their continuity. Thus, trust relationships provide the cohesive force that contributes to quality, creativity, and innovation in a company. The aim of this thematically guided, interdisciplinary literature review is therefore to integrate the findings from the research fields of emotion, trust, and leadership into an overall picture to gain a holistic understanding of the innovation process in companies. For this reason, the three interacting action-guiding factors, namely *critical work situations, trust relationships, and innovative performance* are examined more closely. To summarise, three strategies can be identified for the quality-oriented implementation of change requirements and thus for the continuous development of the corporate culture. Firstly, qualified leadership offers the company the opportunity to promote learning processes and risk-taking in emotionally challenging work situations. Secondly, the continued experience of trustworthiness between the interdependent members of the company motivates dialogue in consequence of respect for the basic human needs. Finally, the construction of a shared vision of the expected future forms the groundwork for effective change management within the company. The findings of this research suggest that a trust-based management approach increases the innovative performance of a company.

Keywords: trust relationship, critical work situation, basic human need, innovative performance

Introduction

Critical Work situations that are considered personally significant by an individual can significantly reduce the willingness to take risks. Such situations have an unfavourable impact on the reassessment of trust relationships. What receives less attention in everyday corporate life is whether and why an appropriate leadership style can increase innovative performance. The idea of this thematically guided approach is thus to combine the findings from the research fields of emotion, trust, and leadership into an overall understanding of human behaviour in critical work situations to better understand the effects they have on a company's ability to innovate. For this reason, this interdisciplinary review of selected literature focuses on three mutually influencing drivers for action to identify strategies that increase the willingness of both employees and the company to meet innovative challenges. Firstly, the review begins with the examination of the mechanisms that play a decisive role for employees dealing with *critical work situations* and the thereby activated emotions when facing personal risks. Secondly, the review continues with the issue of *trust relationships*, which are in constant evolution due to the changing circumstances at work and, as a driving force for action, contribute to the satisfaction of the basic human needs. Thirdly, the review further explores the role of leadership in a company, which promotes creativity in favour of the company's *innovative performance* by focusing on quality. Accordingly, these three review perspectives address the fact that the innovative strength of a company can be impaired by lack of intention and decreasing employee motivation. Finally, based on these findings, intervention strategies are derived which are intended to support the establishment and maintenance of trust relationships as a prerequisite for securing a company's ability to innovate.

For a better understanding of the role of trust relationships in the business context and, especially, during critical work situations, the following two psychological constructs initially are discussed: the reciprocity of trust and the human knowledge base. The question is what is already known in the research literature about the nature and interaction of these two constructs in management and society.

20. Reciprocity of Trust and the Human Knowledge Base

Trust relationships connect creativity and innovation in modern society. The results of biological (LeDoux, 2012; Riedl & Javor, 2012) and psychological research (Amabile et al., 1996; Carver, 2006; Deci & Ryan, 1995; Epstein & Morling, 1995; Grawe, 1998, 2004) as well as from the theoretical management literature (Bass, 1995; Burns, 1978; Dimock, 1986; Mayer et al., 1995; Moynihan et al., 2013; Rogers, 2003; Schein, 2016; Stogdill, 1950) clearly indicate the importance of trust building in management and society.

Riedl and Javor (2012) surprisingly underscore the strong endocrine interaction between trust and the continued prosperity of a society. In their literature review on the biology of trust, they consider the results of brain imaging research, which are based on three different experimental approaches, namely trust game, face-to-face, and internet communication. Through these selected procedures, the significance of the emotion guided evaluation and anticipation of trustworthiness by "mentalizing" processes (Riedl & Javor, 2012) in everyday life became clear. In accordance with Riedl and Javor, management guidelines and visions can only be successfully implemented when the interdependent relationships between the members of a society are secured by reciprocal trust. Furthermore, as analysed in a theoretical treatise by Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995), trust is dynamically developed and modified in a sequence of situational feedback loops, which can be understood as an ongoing pro-

cess of renewed evaluation of trust. From their management perspective, trust is based on the situation-specific perception of competence, integrity, and benevolence, which in this way influences decision-making and organisational effectiveness through the willingness to take risks. Thus, their proposed model of trust is an attempt to integrate management issues with the economic requirements.

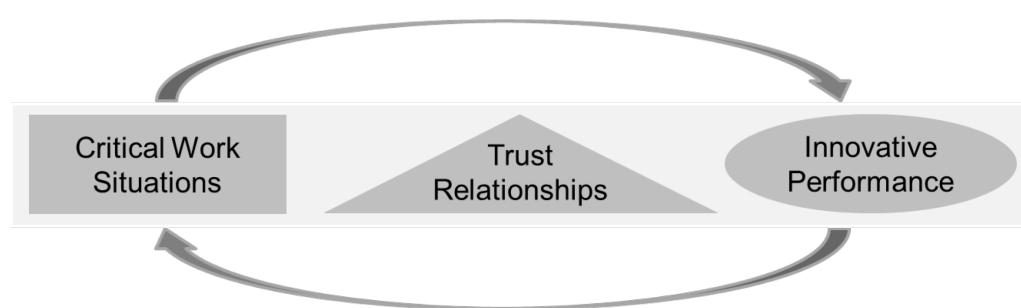
In addition to these two research outcomes, the importance of reciprocity in trust construction and its dynamic situation-specific development, the American political scientist Dimock (1986) focused in the 1980s on the interaction between the congruence- and discrepancy-oriented creativity factors of socio-economic systems. In his opinion, special attention should be paid to the components relevant to creativity in dealing with innovation, because these ensure the survival of a society and with it the economic success of companies. Ultimately, when dealing with creativity, it is crucial to strike a balance between congruence and discrepancy. Establishing conformity and harmony with what exists can be achieved through intuition, synthesis, imagination, and by directing attention to the different organisational levels (levels of attention). In contrast, crises and the resulting conflicts lead to discrepancies that cause previous habits, goals, and methods to be questioned and challenged. Organisations that strike a balance between the congruence and discrepancy-oriented creativity factors (Dimock, 1986) are most effectively positioned to thrive economically while adequately meeting the human needs (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995; Gasjet, 1981; Grawe, 1998, 2004). As a consequence, threatening situations such as a disagreement or a clash of interests in companies only lead to the possibility of questioning habits, previous goals, and methods if they are perceived as an opportunity to evolve. This means that social organisations striking a balance between congruence and discrepancy succeed most effectively in evolving as a social system

(Dimock, 1986). Trust relationships have therefore the potential to foster the employees' creativity as a prerequisite for the innovative performance of a company.

In summary, the economy is no longer just about growth. New approaches are needed for companies to be successful in the marketplace. Thus, a quality-oriented management approach is presumed to promote innovative performance through relationships of trust across critical work situations. As shown by the theoretical framework depicting the driving factors for action in Figure 20.1, the initial question to be addressed is: How can trust relationships encourage employees to participate in the company's innovative performance regardless of critical work situations and their possible personal risks?

Figure 20.1

Through Trust Relationships to Innovative Performance



Innovation crucially depends on the willingness of the employees of a company to critically question and redesign their understanding in critical work situations, thus creating creative solutions for the company. The challenge is that critical events can significantly reduce the action-specific intentionality and motivation to act in problem-solving. Trust relationships therefore play an essential role as a bonding factor that supports creativity in problem-solving and action-oriented behaviour in critical work situations. The interest of the company is to assert itself on the market, and for this, it is dependent on its innovative performance. Provided that reciprocal trust is anchored in the company, critical work situations have the potential

to stimulate innovation development and innovation decision processes (Rogers, 2003). It is a question of the company's ability to allow creative ideas to emerge, to recognize them and to use them.

20.1 Reciprocity of Trust from a Biological and Management Perspective

Mutual trust creates relationships of trust which, in the course of evolution, are aimed at maintaining the continuity of a community (Riedl & Javor, 2012). Therefore, trust relationships are the ties between creativity and innovation in a modern society. Riedl and Javor (2012) prove that, due to the perception of trust signals, trustworthy behaviour is promoted through the release of the hormone oxytocin, which thus causes approach-oriented behaviour instead of avoidance or rejection. Hence, Riedl and Javor propose a conceptual framework for trust situations to integrate the antecedents of perceived trustworthiness (Mayer et al., 1995) with the biological factors in an assumed trust situation, and establish a link to the theory of planned behaviour TPB (Ajzen, 1991). Subjective beliefs about the expected consequences of an action in a certain situation influence the intention to act (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen et al., 2011). Riedl and Javor (2012) conclude that the perception of trust signals increases the oxytocin level and thus stabilises a trust relationship. In addition, reward is due to benevolent cooperative behaviour and leads to an increase in the dopamine level, which is additionally positively influenced by oxytocin (Riedl & Javor, 2012). In summary, these biological mechanisms are crucial for the establishment of trust relationships in companies. These evolutionarily developed mechanisms influence the functioning of an economy. Trust creates commitment and triggers processes of communication, reflexion, and problem-solving. Dealing with uncertainty and ambivalence as well as receiving rewards in a trusting relationship are realised through reciprocal trust between the members of an economic system, ranging from dyads to

virtual internet communities (Riedl & Javor, 2012). In other words, the basic human need for emotional interpersonal relationships, rather than complete indifference, is respected through relationships of trust (Gasiet, 1981). Consistent with Riedl and Javor (2012), investments in social interactions can be expected only if acts of trust are reciprocally confirmed. In summary and following Riedl and Javor, impoverishment, relationship breakdown and material poverty are inevitable when economic members are disappointed and deceived in their actions. Therefore, reciprocal trust enhances a company's ability to foster, recognise, and exploit creative ideas.

Dimock (1986) examined prosperity and the survival of a community as a management issue. He examined the relationship between two divergent creative characteristics of socio-economic systems and their impact on the corporate's "personality". In line with the British cultural theorist Toynbee (1889-1975), Dimock advocates the idea that an institution has a personality that reflects a specific motivating atmosphere to achieve whatever goals are set. In other words, the "personality" of a company highlighted by Dimock, can be understood as the idea of an organisational culture (Schein, 2016) needed to strike a balance between conflicting tendencies in the company. Culture is being rediscovered as an organisational concept (Allcorn, 1951; Deal & Kennedy, 1983; Lewis, 1996; von Rosenstiel, 2003). Therefore, following Dimock, the development of a successful company and its survival is essentially connected to the balancing of congruence and discrepancy in a satisfying organisational atmosphere. In his opinion, congruence can be achieved through the harmonising tendencies such as intuition, synthesis, imagination, and the consideration of the different levels of attention. In contrast, crises and conflicts cause discrepancies along with the opportunity of questioning previous habits, goals, and methods. As a result of his theoretical analysis of the creativity

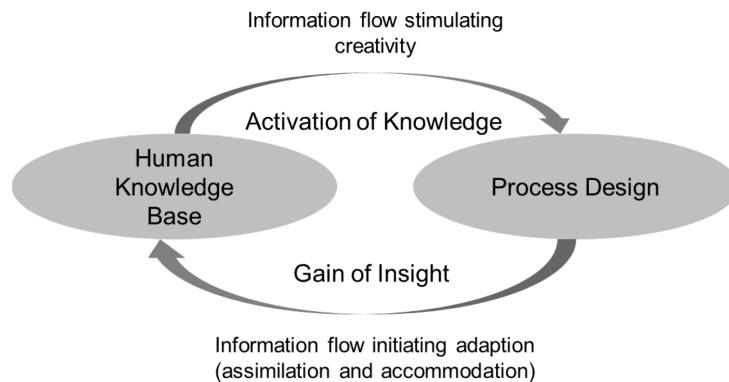
factors, Dimock (1986) was convinced that a company's attempt to achieve creativity consists in finding a balance between the two different creative competences.

In conclusion, trust relationships promote approach-oriented behaviour (Riedl & Javor, 2012), which implies trust (Mayer et al., 1995) in an organisational culture with a shared set of core values, beliefs, and consensus on the company's vision (Schein, 2016). This trust-based culture facilitates the integration of divergent creative competencies and enables innovative approaches to crisis and conflict management, provided it is based on an energising organisational atmosphere (Dimock, 1986). According to Frese (1993), the terms "organisational culture" or "corporate culture" are used interchangeably. The basic human need for emotional interpersonal relationships (Gasiet, 1981) promotes communication processes that ideally strengthen reciprocal trust in the corporate context and thus determine the dynamic development of corporate culture as a supporting pillar of strategic corporate management (Bleicher, 1999; Lewis, 1996; Schein, 1986).

20.2 The Human Knowledge Base

The cognitive processes and emotional states activated in communication situations trigger both adaptive and maladaptive behaviour aimed at satisfying the basic human needs (Epstein & Morling, 1995; Gasiet, 1981; Grawe, 2004). This knowledge thus enriches the self with the integration of the acquired knowledge into the knowledge base.

As shown in Figure 20.2, the second related question is: How creativity can be stimulated in an ongoing iterative process by activating knowledge from the human knowledge base and by gaining insight during process design?

Figure 20.2*Iterative Interaction Between Knowledge and Design*

The accumulation of life experience as a result of shaping personally relevant life situations promotes the integration of newly acquired knowledge into the personal knowledge base (Piaget, 1976). The flow of information causes an adaption of the structure of the knowledge base in the sense of Piaget's epistemology (1976), either by assimilation or by accommodation. In addition, new life situations and the intentionality of humans to act to satisfy their basic human needs (Grawe, 2004), reinforce the flow of information by increasing the activation of stored knowledge essential for the creative design of new situations. The iterative interaction between the development of the human knowledge base and the design of behavioural processes is the key to self-growth and thus beneficial to creative problem-solving. On the one hand, the flow of information shaped by life experiences with emotional significance promotes the acquisition of knowledge by assimilation (Piaget, 1976) as a structural preservation, which is thus integrated into the knowledge base. On the other hand, it induces accommodation (Piaget, 1976) as a structural extension of the stored schemata, thus ensuring the adaption of the human knowledge base to the environment. In addition to the two adaption processes, new life circumstances and human behavioural intentionality to satisfy the basic human needs (Grawe, 2004) cause existing knowledge to be activated by connotation and

analogy. This knowledge can be further developed in creative problem-solving processes and possibly contribute to innovative results.

The reciprocity of trust in interpersonal relationships forms the basis both for maintaining relationships of trust and for the intentional acquisition of new insights. In this regard, the basic human needs serve the psychological system as target values derived from evolution and thus express the intentionality of human behaviour searching for consistency as an overarching regulatory principle (Grawe, 1998, 2004). This evolutionary life-guiding mechanism of human intentionality and the constant search for consistency influence the development of trust relationships and the willingness to take risks. Based on this, it is reasonable to conclude that the human knowledge base would develop ineffectively without the existence of trust relationships. Moreover, reciprocity is only meaningful when social structures such as groups or companies strive for jointly developed and accepted visions of the future (Miller et al., 1960; Rogers, 2003; von Cranach, 1986). Beyond that, as Schoorman, Mayer, and Davis (2007) point out in the revision of their "Integrative Model of Organizational Trust" (Mayer et al., 1995), the effect of perceiving benevolence unfolds over time in an evolving relationship. In the belief of Cunliffe and Eriksen (2011) this means that relationships are closely interwoven and, because of them, are in a constant state of change. Well-functioning relationships in a company are primarily shaped by reciprocity based on emotionally attuned trust (Zhu et al., 2013). In summary, the nature and interaction of the two psychological constructs, reciprocity of trust in an ongoing iterative process and the development of the human knowledge base, indicate their relevance in influencing trust relationships and risk taking in critical work situations (Mayer et al., 1995). Trust only leads to sustainable relationships over time (Schoormann et al., 2007). In trust relationships, the company's employees are more willing to communicate, initiate reflexion and problem-solving processes, and thus engage in risk-taking

activities, all of which have a positive impact on creativity and innovative performance. A sustained favourable appraisal of relationships in a social system such as a company ensures personal reward and supports the handling of uncertainty (Riedl & Javor, 2012). Consequently, the human knowledge base progressively develops through challenging, critical work situations that are perceived as personally relevant and enriching by virtue of trust relationships. Trust relationships are the ties between creativity and innovation in modern society.

In the following sections the focus lies on the three interacting driving factors forming the theoretical framework (see Figure 20.1): critical work situations, trust relationships, innovative performance. This is done in the conviction that it helps to create a quality-oriented management approach through mutual trust and thus enabling innovative performance beyond critical work situations. The aim is to provide an answer to Yukl's (Yukl, 2009) research question on how to create the conditions that are conducive to learning-oriented behaviour and thus fruitful for innovative performance. After each interacting factor, a strategy and proposals for future research are suggested. As indicated in Figure 20.3, the third question that needs to be answered is: How can the innovative strength of a company be secured by a progressively developed corporate culture?

Figure 20.3

Innovative Performance Supported by a Progressive Corporate Culture

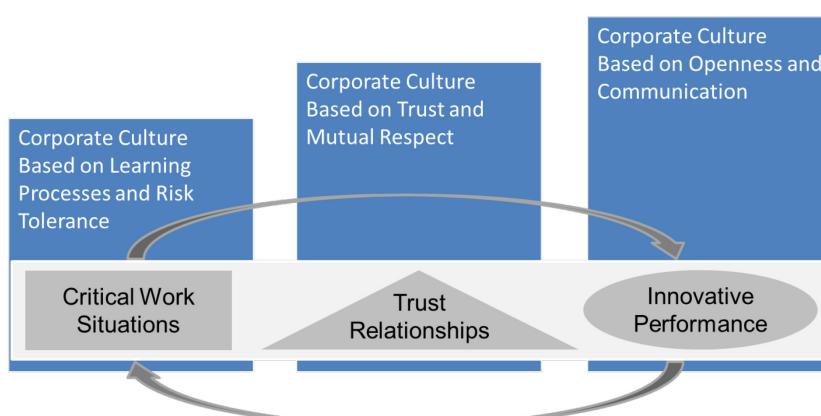


Figure 20.3 illustrates the three stages of a progressively evolving corporate culture in the service of an attentive approach to the trust-building processes in a company.

21. Critical Work Situations and Emotions

Critical work situations arise from a disruption of the normal flow of work. These situations, which lead to threatening working conditions, are handled differently due to the vulnerability of the affected employees (Mayer et al., 1995). Therefore, critical work situations can be described as non-routine incidents that are interpreted as irregular (Flanagan, 1954). Irregularities provoke exceptional circumstances and thus presuppose discontinuous learning (Cope, 2003). According to Cope (2003), entrepreneurial learning as a specific form of organisational learning demands discontinuous circumstances to be treated with increased attention and willingness to experiment. To put it differently, non-routine situations with exceptional circumstances require the affected members of a company to question their beliefs and assumptions, and to reformulate their understanding of the current situation (Dimock, 1986).

Since the level of analysis in this literature review refers to the employee interacting in a company, the focus is placed on the employee who assumes various roles in the organisational structure of a company. By assuming roles, an employee can take on leading and executive functions and thus maintain relationships both with colleagues and superiors. This also implies that these relationships grow dynamically over time, given the ongoing assessment of trustworthiness (Mayer et al., 1995; Schoormann et al., 2007). Therefore, as Riedl and Javor (2012) demonstrate, the assessment and anticipation of trustworthiness through "mentalizing" processes in everyday life determines the emotional state of an employee in critical work situations. Moreover, and in accordance with Piaget (1976), the acquisition of knowledge and its storage in the human knowledge base promotes adaption to reality as an iterative process

marked by emotionally meaningful life experiences. The decisive feature of emotions is, in fact, the activation of behaviour to meet the needs concerned (Schirmer, 2015). Situations in everyday business life that are perceived as personally meaningful are traced back to the basic human needs (Epstein & Morling, 1995; Gasiel, 1981; Grawe, 1998, 2004). Therefore, emotions, whether conscious or unconscious, are a key factor in ensuring the satisfaction of the affected needs. In critical work situations, the mental states signal threat to the personal needs and induce behaviour aimed at satisfying them (Schirmer, 2015).

21.1 Emotions and the Brain Related Operation Principles

Critical and threatening business situations lead to the development and regulation of emotions, influenced by both environmental conditions and biological factors. As Riedl and Javor (2012) clearly state, on the one hand, the emergence of emotions and their regulation is influenced by environmental factors such as socialisation, culture, experience and the specific requirements of the situation. On the other hand, emotions are influenced by three interacting biological factors such as genes, hormones, and brain areas, but unlike the effects of biological factors, only human behaviour is directly observable (Riedl & Javor, 2012).

In LeDoux's view, conditions that humans associate with feelings and perceive as emotional are usually called emotions in neuronal and psychological research (LeDoux, 2012). When applied to everyday business life, this means that work situations are checked for personal relevance, emotional involvement, and traced back to the affected basic human needs (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995; Gasiel, 1981; Grawe, 1998, 2004). In rethinking the emotional brain, the American psychologist and neurologist LeDoux (2012) demonstrates that the activation of the amygdala brain region as part of the limbic system initiates either a slow or a fast path of processing self-relevant information. The amygdala, in its role as a relevance

detector, recognizes context-specific stimuli and guides the individual through an interpretation cycle that matches the evaluation of the concrete situation with personal relevance (LeDoux, 2012). Thus, the evaluation of a situation is not only based on the fast process, which manifests itself primarily through corporal reactions. The evaluation of a situation can also take place through the slower processing of information, thus promoting the assimilation of new information into the memory (LeDoux, 2012). Following these brain mechanisms, it can be concluded that critical and threatening business situations lead to the development and regulation of emotions, influenced by both environmental conditions and biological processes.

21.2 Emotion Regulation Strategies

Based on these brain-related operation principles, scientists and therapists have shown that emotion regulation strategies can be influenced and modified in any new situation. This unfolds interactively through the perceived effectiveness and finally leads to adaptive or maladaptive behaviour. The process model of emotion regulation, introduced by Gross and Thompson in 2007 (Werner & Gross, 2010), shows possible process-oriented waymarks for the adoption of emotion regulation strategies that are regulated based on feedback loops. In accordance with the process of emotional regulation, the choice of the situation itself is the first key strategy, to which further intervention options support emotion regulation: situational modification, attentional deployment, cognitive interpretation change, and reaction modulation through "expressive suppression" or "experiential avoidance" (Werner & Gross, 2010).

In application to the business world, the emergence and regulation of emotions involved in critical business situations develops through the communication processes in the company. According to Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, and Camerer (1998), trust is defined as a psychological state which includes the willingness to vulnerability in the concrete situation because of the

positive expectations. The assessed situation relevance and the exchange with the dialogue partner in the company influence the employee's intentions for action. Accordingly, this effect generates behaviour aimed at approaching or avoiding both peers and superiors in future dialogue situations. Consequently, the assessed situation relevance and the exchange with the dialogue parties influence the employee's intentions for action.

21.3 Interchange in Communication Situations

The core idea of the "integrative model of organisational trust" (Mayer et al., 1995) is the double effect of trust behaviour between the dialogue parties involved in the communication situations. On the one hand, perceived trustworthiness contributes to a revision of an earlier assessment and, on the other hand, it provides the starting point for further shaping the dialogue in the forthcoming situation. In other words, the interplay of trust and risk-taking, as the model shows (Mayer et al., 1995), provides a constructive theoretical model clarifying the foundations for developing a company's creativity and innovative performance. Accordingly, Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) describe trust as dynamically developed and modified through a series of situational feedback loops, thus activating learning processes. This dynamic mirrors the potential that becomes feasible in a learning-oriented corporate culture. In the spirit of Berson and Avolio (2004), an open learning environment offers the potential to communicate strategic visions in such a way that their basic assumptions can be challenged, opening up options for adaption and innovation. Culture represents the body of assumptions, expectations and practices that a group has accrued over time to cope with the inherent problems of external adaption and internal integration. Following Schein (2016) a corporate culture provides structural stability through basic assumptions, values and behaviours that are contributed and maintained by the members of a social unit based on their shared history of

experience. As a consequence, a corporate culture is stable as long as it can withstand changing internal and external environmental conditions. The determining factor is that personally relevant outcomes in communication situations lead to a re-assessment of the given relationships. This interchange influences the employees' perceived trustworthiness and willingness to take risks in new situations that involve opportunities for change. Personally relevant situations entail the risk of loss (Beggan, 1992; De Dreu & van Knippenberg, 2005; Kahneman et al., 1991), which increases vulnerability, and being in a state of vulnerability means taking risks.

21.4 Strategy 1 and Propositions

To increase a company's ability to innovate, an initial strategy can be inferred from the literature review presented so far. A company's ability to innovate can be secured by developing trust relationships, which in turn encourages learning processes and risk tolerance in emotionally challenging work situations. This can happen in two ways:

- a. By building trust relationships within the company, the employees can actively be supported in questioning existing problematic beliefs and assumptions without fearing a state of risk.
- b. By building trust relationships within the company, a corporate culture can be institutionalised that actively promotes learning processes and risk tolerance.

22. Trust Relationships and the Development of the Self

Trust relationships have the potential to foster the employees' creativity as a prerequisite for the innovative achievements of a company in an evolving society. Trusting behaviour develops in a situation-specific context between the members of a company; therefore, trust

cannot be generalised to all possible further situations (Mayer et al., 1995). From the perspective of the integrative model of organisational trust, situational assessments are carried out with a long-term perspective and lead to a continual re-evaluation of trustworthiness (1995). The driving force in critical work situations lies in the dynamics triggered by emotional states. Emotions signal the relevance of possible threats to the personal needs and activate processes for problem-solving (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; LeDoux, 2012; Schirmer, 2015). In the following sections, the concept of the self in connection to three constructs about the basic human needs is explored (see Table 22.1): a phylogenetic approach (Gasiet, 1981), a balance approach (Epstein & Morling, 1995) and a consistency approach (Grawe, 2004). How the concepts cohere with one another and contribute to the development of the self will be discussed.

Table 22.1

Three Approaches to the Basic Human Needs

	Gasiet (1981)	Epstein (2003)	Grawe (2004)
Focus	Phylogenetic view	"Checks and balances"-mechanism	Consistency regulation and human behavioural intentionality
Physiological Needs	Fundamental physiological needs	Pleasure-pain-balance	Pleasure gain and pain prevention
Emotional Needs	Basic need for emotional human relationships	Relatedness	Need for belonging
Social Needs	Basic need for social recognition	Self-esteem enhancement	Need for self-esteem enhancement / self-esteem protection
Needs for Meaning	Basic need for giving meaning	Self-verification	Need for orientation and control

22.1 The Self

The origins of the term "self" have their roots in the work of Bartlett (1932), where he delineates the concept "schema" as the internal representation and active organisation of the past reactions and life experiences. Experience is therefore the source of all information needed to continuously evolve an image of the self and the world. Based on this premise, Piaget (1976) conceptualised the theory of schema as a theory of self-development and thus as a continuous adaption to the demands arising in daily life. The development of the self is designed as a result of "assimilation" and "accommodation" processes, in search of a balance between the situational requirements and the schemata developed up to then.

From an additional perspective, the self develops dynamically through the constant evaluation of situations that are discerned as critical for one's own well-being. Schirmer's (2015) insight is particularly noteworthy for the economy, based on the assumption that the emotions caused by those critical situations activate behaviour to satisfy the personal needs affected by them. In addition, an image about the self and the world contribute to the specification and test of "the desired outcome" by feedback loops to try to resolve incongruity (Miller et al., 1960). This means that the intentionality of human behaviour in the pursuit of consistency can be understood as a pervasive regulatory principle (Grawe, 2004). Consequently, personally significant life experiences, such as success or failure, are contrasted with the activated schemata and thus exert a strong influence on the intentionality to achieve consistency.

22.2 The Emergence of the Basic Human Needs

According to Gasiet (1981), and provided that the physiological needs are fulfilled, the basic human needs for emotional relationships, social recognition, and the need for meaning are experienced individually and consciously, especially when they manifest themselves in a

socio-historical context through crisis. From the phylogenetic point of view, these four determinants of life quality represent the objective and necessary conditions for human survival (see Table 22.1). After a thorough analysis of philosophical, sociological, and psychological sources, Gasiet concludes that human development, as well as its increasingly socio-historically shaped human maturity, is the subject of four basic human needs in the theoretical synthesis, both phylogenetic and ontogenetic (Gasiet, 1981). According to Gasiet, satisfying these four basic needs activates four heterogeneous learning processes through which human beings perceive reality and creatively influence it.

It is not only the general life situation of an individual who needs to be understood and explored, but the entire objective reality in which the subjective total life situation takes place (Gasiet, 1981). Moreover, man becomes truly human when he or she is able to regulate the physiological needs through the non-biological and specific human needs. Through the ability to limit physiological needs, other basic human needs and therefore their creative effects were able to evolve in the course of evolution. The need for emotional interpersonal relationships and the demand for social recognition promoted the formation of tribal societies and subsequently of class societies and states. In addition, the increasing importance and quest for meaning fostered the ability to uncover new ways of shaping human reality, especially in crisis. Therefore, according to Gasiet (1981), each generation and each individual always has to grasp the meaning of human reality anew and shape it through human action. This also means that the efficient organisation of people within a company and within the framework of an organised activity implies a partial regulation and limitation of the satisfaction of individual needs by the power of authority. Nevertheless, a person without emotional relationships with a real or imaginary human group is not able to live a bearable life (Gasiet, 1981).

As shown in Table 22.1 these basic needs correspond to Epstein and Morling's (1995) balance-oriented position with people's striving for "relatedness", "self-esteem enhancement", and the need for maintenance of a stable coherent conceptual system by "self-verification". The pleasure principle corresponds to the fulfilment of the physiological needs postulated by Gasiet (1981) as the underlying basis of human reality. In line with Epstein and Morling (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995), the four basic human needs are kept in balance by a "checks and balances" mechanism triggering appropriate behaviour by finding compromises between them. The evaluation of a situation classified as personally relevant is perceived as an experience that alternates between rational (rational system) and emotional (experiential system) in a dynamic interaction. As basic beliefs, these evaluations are based on an implicit theory of reality with significant schemata about the self and the world. These hierarchically organised schemata form a network of four basic beliefs or implicit schemata. They guide behaviour in interaction with an explicit theory of reality based on the emotions triggered in relation to the basic needs involved in a given situation (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995). Life experiences are perceived, on the one hand, on a needs-specific continuum from pleasant to unpleasant or benevolent to malicious. The goal is to maintain a favourable pleasure-pain balance. On the other hand, life experiences are evaluated from trustworthy to threatening (relatedness), from valuable to worthless (self-esteem enhancement), and from meaningful to meaningless regarding the stability and coherence of the personal theory of reality (self-verification). In this sense, life experiences are self-verifying (self-verification) and lead to a perception of reality, either as meaningful, predictable, just, and controllable, or as meaningless, unjust, arbitrary, and uncontrollable (Epstein & Morling, 1995). According to Grawe (Grawe, 1998, 2004), this self-verifying evaluation serves, firstly, the overriding basic principle of consistency in psychological functioning and, secondly, orientation and control, which

provides the necessary confidence in the meaningfulness of life. Information processing ultimately takes place to evaluate the degree of meaningfulness and predictability as opposed to meaninglessness and uncontrollability. In summary, from a clinical psychology perspective (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995; Grawe, 2004), the identified human needs can be mapped onto the four basic phylogenetic and ontogenetic human needs (Gasiet, 1981) with the corresponding four heterogeneous learning processes (see Table 22.1).

22.3 The Basic Human Needs as the Roots of the Self

The basic human needs represent the breeding ground for the realisation of experience and thus the development of the self. Due to the evolutionary development of human information processing, there are two parallel self-concepts involving two different systems: the evolutionary younger and slower working rational system and the older fast working experiential system based on emotions (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995). Therefore, the self develops in the global personality theory of the self, the "Cognitive-Experiential Self-Theory" or CEST (Epstein & Morling, 1995), based on of life experiences evaluated by two separate systems adapting to reality. Following Epstein and Morling (1995, p. 12), in the search for tailored information to satisfy the four basic human needs, humans develop corresponding networks of the four basic beliefs that embody implicit schemata about themselves, the world, and their experiences (see Table 22.1). The assessment of the degree to which basic needs have been satisfied contributes to the acquisition of knowledge through the activation of learning processes in everyday situations (Gasiet, 1981; Piaget, 1976). Based on the results of these personal appraisals, the released emotions induce activity in search of convincing insights (Schirmer, 2015). CEST characterises this human striving as a relentless search of need-relevant information (Epstein & Morling, 1995). According to CEST, basic beliefs about

the self and the world are developed upon personally significant life experiences that are condensed into schemata and in this way control future behaviour. As a consequence of this process, the resulting appraisals lead to individually different behaviour-determining beliefs by assessing self-relevant information on a need-specific continuum. In accordance with Epstein and Morling (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995), this continuum ranges from pleasant to malicious (the pleasure principle), from trustworthy to threatening (relatedness), from valued to worthless (self-esteem enhancement), and from meaningful to meaningless (self-verification).

It is worth remembering that the assessment of self-relevant information in personally determined situations relies on biological roots (LeDoux, 2012). On the one hand, these assessments are automatically initiated and therefore run fast. On the other hand, the processing of information is more time-consuming once consciousness is activated. From a clinical psychology perspective, the evaluation and regulation of the elicited emotions therefore leads to adaptive or maladaptive behaviour aimed at satisfying the affected needs (Epstein, 2003; Grawe, 2004).

22.4 Descriptive and Motivational Schemata

Based on emotionally significant life experiences, humans develop descriptive schemata to represent the world and the self, and complement these with motivational schemata (Grawe, 1998). In accordance with Grawe (1998), these complementary motivational schemata include the condensed experience of what a person should do or avoid along with the means to satisfy the basic needs by activating the associated and recalled Plans and behaviours. The basic human needs serve the psychological system as target values derived from evolution, thus expressing the intentionality of human behaviour in the pursuit of consistency

as an overarching regulatory principle (Grawe, 1998, 2004). Personally significant experiences, such as success or failure, are therefore interpreted by the person concerned as congruent or incongruent to the motivational schemata and thereby influence the actual level of motivation (Grawe, 2004). Consequently, based on the situation-related assessments of the given personal resources and the environmental options for action, human beings determine coping strategies and initiate measures to master the situation (Cox et al., 2011; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The underlying action tendencies are controlled by feedback loops and manifest themselves through two distinct self-regulation functions, one as approach through discrepancy reduction and the other as avoidance through discrepancy extension (Carver, 2006). To sum up, the basic human needs to be established from humans' evolutionary history as target values are the source of the directed intention to act, so that the development of trust relationships and thus the creative behaviour in a company are influenced by this superordinate regulatory principle.

22.5 Trust and Motivational Competency

Based on the intentionality of human behaviour as a continuing control mechanism, the detection of incongruity between reality and motivational objectives in personally relevant situations provokes adaptive or maladaptive behaviour searching for consistency. Consistency is defined as a regulatory principle (Grawe, 2004) based on the fulfilment of the basic needs (see Table 22.1). Behaviour initiated in a situation judged to be personally relevant serves consistency regulation and is underpinned by descriptive and motivational schemata for meeting the needs involved. On the one hand, these schemata embody an individual's beliefs about the self and the world, and on the other hand, they embody the goals directed toward the satisfaction of the basic human needs over the course of life (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling,

1995; Grawe, 1998, 2004). Thus, this regulatory mechanism is designed, firstly, to resolve the discordance between personally significant and deviating motivational tendencies and, secondly, to abolish incongruence with the perceived reality (Grawe, 2004).

As a consequence, the personally relevant outcomes of trust situations (Mayer et al., 1995) lead to a further re-evaluation of the given trust relationship. The results about the perceived trustworthiness influence risk-taking in new situations, such as change opportunities in organisations. Trust evolves dynamically as a function of the perception and assessment of the expected ability (competence, skill), integrity (accountability, authenticity), and benevolence (commitment, passion) of the dialogue parties (Mayer et al., 1995). The results of trustworthy behaviours have thus a dual effect. On the one hand, they contribute to a revision of an earlier assessment and, on the other hand, they provide the starting point for further shaping the working relationship in the forthcoming concrete situation (Mayer et al., 1995). Searching for consistency, approach or avoidance strategies (Carver, 2006) are initiated to satisfy and protect the self, and to address the requirements of emotionally involving situations. Finally, it can be concluded that a continued experience of trustworthiness provides an ongoing motivation for dialogue so that the willingness to deal with new risk situations is maintained in future situations. The merit of Krystec (1999) is to clarify the central role of trust for effective strategic corporate management. According to Krystec, trust primarily helps to reduce complexity (Luhmann, 1984, 2014). It increases the willingness to take responsibility, enhances the flow of communication, and promotes the willingness to cooperate. Finally, trust saves external and internal business costs.

22.6 Strategy 2 and Propositions

To conclude this section of the literature review, a second strategy has become clear. A company's ability to innovate can be ensured by the continued experience of trustworthiness between the interdependent members of the company, which is perceived and dynamically evaluated in the course of action through the assessment of integrity, benevolence, and proven abilities. This second strategy can be explained as follows:

- a. The perceived trustworthiness of the other party signals that the basic human need for emotional human relationships and for social recognition within the company is respected.
- b. Respect for the basic human needs promotes a sustained motivation for dialogue at all and between all levels of the organisational hierarchy, so that the willingness to accept new risk situations and to creatively contribute to innovative achievements is maintained.
- c. Strengthening the competence to innovate requires the creation of a corporate culture based on trust and mutual respect.

23. Innovative Performance and Quality-Oriented Management

According to Hagedoorn and Cloodt (2003), the innovative performance of a company stands for the effectiveness and efficiency of its business processes, starting from the development of new technologies, practices, and products up to their introduction into the market. Consequently, the innovative performance of a company represents its continued organisational ability to acquire, share, and use experiential knowledge in work situations that are perceived as relevant (DiBella et al., 1996). These business processes contribute to an overarching process of diffusion of innovations (Rogers, 2003), and are clearly separated from the assessment of the actual market success. Innovative performance is concentrated exclusively

on the joint efforts within a company geared to the reliable development and realisation of innovations. Statements about the innovative performance of a company express the strength of a company to innovate.

Even if the willingness to take risks is associated with threatening stress situations and the individual vulnerability, ambivalent situations have the potential to stimulate creativity through trust signals and thus to initiate problem-solving processes. For this reason, leadership is an essential function of group action with steering, energising, controlling, and evaluating properties (von Cranach, 1986). The notion of leadership as a form of culture management does justice to the historical development of a company and links the idea of culture to the concept of transformational leadership (Parry & Bryman, 2006; Schein, 2016). Addressing technological challenges in the start-up period requires a different focus in leadership than market gaps and market opportunities that need to be exploited (Frese, 1993; Schein, 2016). In Schein's conception of culture, a changing environment therefore requires leadership to challenge existing assumptions and beliefs and demands an evolution in how the company thinks, feels and acts. As Schein forcefully points out, there is no such thing as a good or bad corporate culture (Schein, 2003). Culture is thus defined by the degree to which a company's own basic beliefs are in line with its environment. As Bleicher (1999) argues in his theoretical and experiential exploration of the interdependence between corporate culture and strategic management, corporate culture is subject to so-called soft, social factors (Peters & Waterman, 1982) that develop in the context of a specific corporate history (Schein, 2016) and therefore cannot be controlled solely by management. Through an intentional culture politics, a balance can be sought between the subcultures that gradually emerge in the life cycle of a company, ensuring that the divergent forces do not lead to destruction, but instead enable the renewal of the company through the acceptance of an alternative culture (Bleicher, 1999; Deal &

Kennedy, 1982, 1983; Martin & Siehl, 1983). Consequently, according to Rogers (2003), behavioural innovation requires information and communication processes along a decision-making process for accepting or rejecting change to defuse the perceived uncertainty and risks in a work situation that is assessed as personally threatening.

23.1 The Role of Leadership in Group Action

Leadership can be defined as a process influencing the activities of an organised group in its efforts to set appropriate goals and to achieve them (Stogdill, 1950). In considering this definition of leadership, emphasis is placed on the organisational conditions of process management for the goal-oriented and promising coordination of joint forces, namely the differentiated distribution of task-specific responsibilities. In addition to this process-oriented definition, an attribute-oriented definition was developed from the GLOBE research study, the "Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness". This study was conducted between 1993 and 2003 by around 150 researchers from over 60 nations representing all regions of the world. The consensus among all representatives showed that leadership must be the ability of individuals to influence, motivate and support others so that they can contribute to the effectiveness and success of an organisation to which they belong (House et al., 2002).

When considering both definitions of leadership, a process-related and an attributive one, the question arises as to how and why responsible leadership influences the employees' intention to act and their willingness to take risks in situations perceived as critical. According to Miller, Galanter, and Pribram (1960), a group trying to achieve a goal is guided by a common Plan and vision of the desired outcome. Plans, objectives, and a general picture of the expected outcome are the essential components of work processes. This requires active communication between the members of a group in a company. Communication ensures internal

and cross-group interaction processes for a successful implementation. To summarise all this in accordance with von Cranach (1986), leadership embodies the basic functions such as inner and outer group-adjustment, guiding, and energising group action. Leadership further supports the development of the group by creating an important source of group identity and coherence. Following von Cranach, groups are self-active social systems that incite group actions through guiding and energising forces. These forces steer the group step by step along the execution of processes and, with motivational energy, encourage them to overcome difficulties or initiate directional changes (von Cranach, 1986).

Ultimately, the role of leadership in social systems requires skilful transformation-oriented change management that effectively counteracts disturbing influences, such as opportunism, pathological personalities, corporate plagiarism, and criminal energy. Therefore, this demand for competent change managers who are able to build relationships of trust and establish effective, practical work processes in social systems. This is thought as an answer to the question of how to create the kind of conditions that can foster, facilitate, and sustain innovation through learning processes (Yukl, 2009). In line with Sheehan and her partners (2014), the three dimensions of power, namely the power of resources, processes, and meaning can be used to influence strategic change and therefore to influence the power of the system itself, which forms the fourth power element in Hardy's strategy implementation model (Hardy, 1996). It takes the purposeful use of resources, processes, and power of opinion to move an organisation and its members to engage in a systemic change and thus enable the strategic development process to its actual implementation. Thus, an intelligently managed, pro-quality company carefully monitors the compatibility of the adopted leadership style in a workplace and the individual needs of the involved employees to adapt to new demands.

23.2 Self-Determined Motivation

The actual degree of motivation of a member of the group is determined by a constant check of consistency with the motivational schemata. The motivational schemata comprise the condensed experience about what a person should do or avoid doing, and the means of satisfying the basic human needs by activating the associated and retrieved Plans and behaviours (Grawe, 1998). According to this view, the content built up through experience and stored in memory can be used to build expectations about future similar situations with comparable goal orientation and analogous sequence of actions and therefore, used as a basis for action planning (Schank, 1982). The condensed experience stored therein form the basis for shaping behaviour in new situations in accordance with the basic human needs (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995; Gasiet, 1981; Grawe, 1998, 2004). Positive feedback accordingly promotes the perception of personal competence, and this is especially true when an employee feels responsible for the results achieved in the company (De Dreu & van Knippenberg, 2005). Consequently, the perception and evaluation of the employees' performance in the company plays a determining role in the development of self-esteem with influence on the intrinsically controlled work motivation. In contrast, both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation decreases when personal competence is questioned due to negative feedback (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Following the self-determination theory (SDT), motivation can either arise autonomously from within one's self, or it can be controlled to varying degrees on a continuum through external demands (Deci & Ryan, 1995; Gagné & Deci, 2005). SDT provides a framework for assessing autonomous versus externally controlled behaviour in the workplace. Starting from a lack of intention and thus of motivation (amotivation), three further degrees of internalisation are conceivable for an individual. In fact, an individual internalises external conditions through three different processes: either through the introjection of imposed expectations,

through identification with self-selected goals, or through integration with the self. In this way, the degree of contingency becomes clear as it describes the externally controlled influence on an individual's behaviour. Intrinsic motivation and fully internalised extrinsic motivation can be achieved through autonomy-promoting work environments and management practices (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Externally controlled motivation promotes predetermined outcomes, while, self-determined motivation contributes to autonomous behaviour with quality-oriented outcomes. Therefore, true self-esteem in contrast to contingent self-esteem is based on internally perceived causality (locus of causality) and provides experience guided by interest in one's own working environment, without feeling constrained by external demands or limitations (Deci & Ryan, 1995). In summary, companies with a working environment that supports autonomy meet the basic needs of the employees by promoting intrinsically oriented self-motivation and taking care that externally induced motivation can be internalised (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

23.3 Innovation and the Transformational Management Approach

Innovations are crucially linked to the commitment of the company's employees to provide new opportunities by challenging the existing situation and creatively developing, and thoroughly implementing new products, practices, and social advancements (Thom, 1992). The openness of a company and its employees to question themselves and to reformulate their understanding of a critical work situation therefore entails vulnerability and creates a state of risk for all concerned. Provided there is reciprocal trust between all concerned employees, this can trigger commitment to the success of the company and lead to innovative solutions based on a balance between regulation and autonomy (Gagné & Deci, 2005). In accordance with Dimock (1986), when dealing with creativity, creating a balance between congruence and

discrepancy is crucial. Thus, crises and conflicts concentrate on discrepancies, and lead to attitudes, previous goals, and methods being questioned and changed (Dimock, 1986). However, guidelines and inspiration from management are only achieved through motivated employees and by practical implementation, which requires a transformational approach. Transformational management requires intensive information and communication work to the benefit of the diffusion of innovations (Rogers, 2003). This approach ensures that employees use their skills and talents to support of the company's vision and are committed to the goal. Information processing at individual level combined with communication at group level promotes the development of expectations regarding future circumstances and helps form an "Image of the desired outcome" (Miller et al., 1960, p. 38). In accordance with Schank (1982), these anticipated scenarios stimulate learning as recallable memory contents (scenes) and improvement processes based on the evaluation of lessons learned from experience. As a consequence, without steering, energising, monitoring, evaluating, and communication processes in the company, there is neither coordination nor cooperation between group-members, and therefore neither goal-oriented group action in terms of self-active systems (von Cranach, 1986).

23.4 Change Management and Leadership

For the express purpose of gaining a better understanding of the leadership qualities needed to support change efforts in companies, two contrasting leadership styles have been critically examined in social psychology and economic science. These two styles are the transformational and the transactional leadership style (Eagly et al., 2003).

The transformational leadership style (Bass, 1995) is based on the analyses of political systems established by the political scientist and historian Burns (1978). Outstanding manag-

ers are distinguished by four transformational core characteristics: idealised influence as a role model function, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration of the group-members. As exemplified in Table 23.1, thanks to their exemplary behaviour, transformational managers succeed in addressing employees emotionally, based on values, inspiring them for a common goal, getting them involved with the main purpose, and in the end, giving them meaning and orientation. These qualities make it possible to create a certain momentum and sustainability that is not exclusively tied to the leader, but based on reciprocity of trust (Pundt & Nerdingen, 2012) where esteem is a central value. Moreover, and in line with Gasiet (1981), meaningful action only becomes possible through the realisation of social relationships in communities, companies, or governmental organisations. This means that employees only become effective in their operational performance if the basic human needs are considered.

Table 23.1

The Basic Human Needs in Relation to Transformational Leadership

	Gasiet (1981)	Bass (1995)	
Focus	Phylogenetic view	Full range of leadership-model: Transformational leadership	
Physiological Needs	Fundamental physiolog- ical needs		
Emotional Needs	Basic need for emotion- al human relationships	Idealised influence (Role model function)	Individual consideration (Addressing emotionally and value-based)
Social Needs	Basic need for social recognition		
Needs for meaning	Basic need for giving meaning	Inspirational motivation (Inspiring for the com- mon goal)	Intellectual stimulation (Get involved in the main purpose, giving meaning and orientation)

In contrast to the transformation-oriented leadership properties, the transaction-oriented leadership style operates by other mechanisms, such as management by exception and man-

agement by objectives. The focus primarily lies on the approach of managers to motivate their employees by exchanging incentives (Burns, 1978). This monitoring management mechanism helps highlight the relationship between the expected requirements and strictly evaluated outcomes that are provided. As a result of this emphasis on reward and punishment, employees develop a preference for extrinsic motivation to obtain predefined benefits (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

When considering all these aspects, it is quite plausible to conclude that the more intrinsically oriented full range of leadership-model or FRLM (Bass, 1995) approach encourages employees to place more emphasis on quality and creative ideas, and to arrive at more innovative problem solutions. The transformational leadership style offers the prerequisites for actively recognising and using the opportunities for transformation in times of major economic upheavals and in company-specific situations of crisis. Moynihan, Pandey, and Wright (2013) argue that the transformational leadership style has an important impact on a company's innovative performance. Through the resulting working interactions, it triggers an indirect influence on the "higher-order needs" of the employees and benefits the company as a whole. Exemplary leadership, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration are complemented by fostering a learning culture within the company (Moynihan et al., 2013). From this perspective, the quality of transformational leadership lies in encouraging employees to take risks on the way to innovation, challenging rigid assumptions and inspiring them by raising awareness of the importance of a company's performance. In accordance with Moynihan, Pandey, and Wright (2013), intellectual stimulation as a principle of transformational leadership (see Table 23.1) is ideally suited to creating a working environment for independent thinking, developing new ideas and challenging existing conditions. Furthermore, the three authors emphasise the importance of two-way communication between the members

of a company. Especially when time is limited, the early establishment of a bidirectional communication works equivalently to the therapeutic alliance as a central concern in short-term psychotherapy (Safran & Muran, 1998). An alliance in cooperation builds on respect and interest. It promotes creativity through a qualified learning culture, and thus strengthens the innovative performance of the company. But "alliance ruptures must be detected early on and addressed" (Safran & Muran, 1998, p. 220). Due to a qualified learning culture, employees feel confident to make suggestions or develop new ideas without fearing negative consequences (Amabile et al., 1996; Moynihan et al., 2013; Safran & Muran, 1998). As a consequence, this means that cultivating a qualified learning culture based on trust and respect potentially facilitates the communication of new ideas at all levels of the company, without having to fear destructive internal competition and rigid restrictions due to the current conditions. A corporate culture committed to openness and communication creates the preconditions for supporting the basic human need for giving meaning, especially in situations that are perceived as critical.

23.5 Strategy 3 and Propositions

At the end of this section of the literature review, a third strategy appears to answer the question of how and why responsible leadership affects the employee's intention to assume a state of risk in situations perceived as critical. Through qualified leadership, group-internal and group-spanning interaction processes can be activated in a company for the effective management of required changes. This way, Plans and goals are shared between the members and contribute to the construction of a common vision of the expected future. This third strategy can be explained as follows:

- a. The perception and evaluation of the employees' performance in the company play a determining role in the development of self-esteem and influence the intrinsically controlled motivation to work.
- b. The provision of innovative achievements in a company requires effective communication skills with a guiding and stimulating impulse for quality development.
- c. Work quality and creativity in problem-solving require the creation of a corporate culture based on openness and communication.

24. Conclusions and Outlook

The insights gained from this literature review indicate that the interaction of the three research areas emotion, trust, and leadership are among the most important resources for strengthening the innovative performance of a company. In condensed form, this means that through an appropriate management style, the willingness of the employees to take risks, and thus the intention to overcome risk situations, can lead to increased innovative performance of the company. The underlying expectation is that investments in transformational leadership will pay off and strengthen a company's innovative performance. Even if serious criticism should be voiced about the use and effectiveness of the transformational leadership approach (Bass, 1995; Bass et al., 2003), what is crucial is responsible leadership in the context of a changing corporate reality (Alvesson & Kärreman, 2016; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Yukl, 1999). An employee's intention to act and willingness to take risks in situations perceived as critical can be influenced by responsible leadership and an increasingly developing corporate culture. Responsible leadership takes place in the expectation of excellence, in which the leader encourages the employees in their efforts. The expectation that the rats being trained or the school children being taught have the necessary skills to perform exceptionally

makes all the difference. This was demonstrated by two ground-breaking social psychology experiments in the 1960s, which made history as the Pygmalion effect (Rosenthal & Fode, 1963; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968).

To ensure that critical work experience does not have a negative impact (Gagné & Deci, 2005) on an employee's willingness to take risks (Mayer et al., 1995) and consequently on the company's innovation potential (Dimock, 1986), three driving forces have been thoroughly analysed for a better understanding of the innovation process in companies: the interaction between critical work situations, trust relationships, and innovative performance (see Figure 20.1). For an overall picture, three prevention strategies are proposed that suggest the attentive use of trust-building processes as an answer to Yukl's research question about the appropriate conditions for an innovation-friendly company (Yukl, 2009). Firstly, innovative strength as a company's chance of survival can be secured by building trust relationships, which in turn requires the development of a corporate culture based on learning processes and risk tolerance (see Table 25.1). Secondly, the potential danger of the loss of motivation, and thus an impairment of the employees' willingness to take risks in work situations that are personally perceived as threatening, should be effectively counteracted by attentive support and individual consideration. The continued experience of reciprocal trust between the interdependent members of the company signals the recognition of the basic human needs, and thus contributes to a corporate culture based on trust and respect (see Table 25.1). Finally, the implementation of a transformational management style with internalised quality-oriented skills activates the communication processes required for the diffusion of innovations in the company (Moynihan et al., 2013; Rogers, 2003), which is equivalent to building a therapeutic alliance in the clinical field (Safran & Muran, 1998). A corporate culture built on openness and communication supports continuous improvement in the quality of the company's work pro-

cesses and facilitates incremental and radical change activities towards strategic transformation (Alexander & van Knippenberg, 2014; Benner & Tushman, 2003; Hardy, 1996; March, 1991; Melnyk et al., 2010; Tushman & O'Reilly III, 1996). In this way, the development and diffusion of new ideas contributes to mastering challenges (see Table 25.1). The three prevention strategies are based on the interaction between the basic human needs (Gasiet, 1981) and the progressive development of a tailored corporate culture (Schein, 2016). For this reason, it can be assumed that the holistic approach of transformational leadership (Bass, 1995) primarily supports the need for emotional interpersonal relationships through qualified appreciative and inspiring leadership. In addition, effective transformational management offers room for the basic need for meaning through the intellectual stimulation of the employees (Gasiet, 1981). Thus, prioritising the employees' basic need for meaning creates opportunities to reduce the escalating mechanisms of the basic need for social recognition in a company, and thus for power to a reasonable level. Consequently, the Human Resources department plays a decisive active role in the implementation of these prevention strategies. Unfortunately, an organisation chart alone does not say anything about the expected management quality, nor does it reflect the existing corporate culture. Leadership is a profession that must be learned and not only a function of promotion to a higher organisational level.

It is therefore advisable to develop management tools to analyse and evaluate the interaction between the corporate culture and the employees' risk tolerance when facing critical and challenging work situations. For a deeper insight into the interacting driving factors, it is recommended to reconstruct the complexity of a real case in an organisational setting to better understand why and how these factors have the potential to form appropriate conditions for an organisation's innovative performance (Yin, 2018). As a further approach, the nature of failure and its impact on management and leadership in critical work situations will be explored.

Exploring failure in business contributes to a better understanding of the possibilities to intervene early in an ongoing process. In other words, even alarming work situations can further enhance a company's innovative performance. This is especially true, if an appropriate leadership style with proven leadership qualities and trust-building behaviour is practised. To sum up, the responsible handling of trust-building processes in a company requires constant attention.

E Execution Part 2

The Building Blocks of Failure in Business: A Systematic Literature Review

Abstract

Today, there is no common definition of failure in business, nor is there any widespread understanding of why failure in business should be integrated as a design element in everyday business. However, failure is omnipresent and cannot be ignored as a negative side effect of reality. Therefore, the purpose of this systematic literature review (SLR) was to provide a conceptual basis for future research in the field of failure in business. The evaluation of the findings comprises 43 research articles selected systematically from 29 academic journals covering six decades (1967 to 2019) in the research fields of management and psychology. The results of this SLR show that failure in business manifests itself in two interrelated dimensions, which are presented in the form of a failure evaluation framework (FEF). Firstly, this framework includes four levels of analysis (people, structure, process, and outcome) at which failure in business can be observed. Secondly, it includes two scenes of action in which failure can occur, either with an internal (OrgIntern) or an external (OrgExtern) focus of activity. Furthermore, two types of failure management are identified. One assumes actors with an action-guiding, progressive and the other actors with a self-limiting, regressive orientation. Thus, failure is not seen merely as an unsatisfactory performance that is judged upon its completion. Failure can be understood by a social unit either as threatening and disruptive, or as an impetus for future progress. This leads to a dynamic understanding of failure in business.

Keywords: failure, failure evaluation framework, level of analysis, scene of action, failure management

Introduction

We live in a performance-oriented society, where people are judged by their success and condemned for their failure; failure therefore triggers the fear of failure (Schramm & Wüstenhagen, 2013). For this reason, it is essential for management and leadership in business to learn more about the phenomenon of failure. Two examples illustrate the social treatment of failure: the CHAOS report on software investments, which has been published regularly since 1985 (The Standish Group, 1994, 2015), and the numerous reports published in the media on the course of major construction projects. Thus, if one succeeds in identifying overruns and non-compliance at an early stage, success can be expected. The Titanic venture, on the other hand, impressively reveals that there is a plethora of influencing factors that contribute to failure even before a venture begins. The researchers of the Titanic disaster show that already the vanity of a captain in quest of the prestigious Blue Bench for the fastest Atlantic crossing and the unshakable belief in the unsinkability of the largest passenger liner in 1912 have the potential to influence the behaviour of the actors, so that failure is favoured (ZDF-History, 2020). This raises the question of which factors impede responsible and constructive failure management practices in both incumbent companies and start-ups, factors that can have a decisive influence on survival.

The purpose of this SRL, therefore, is to identify the key dimensions of failure and its evaluation criteria, which are highlighted in the research literature for dealing with failure. This may provide us with a conceptual basis for future research on failure management. Little is known about why management and leadership in business are reluctant to use failure as an opportunity to change behaviour, or about what it takes for an organisation to recognise failure as a natural building block for continuous renewal. In other words, little is known about

why the desire to cover up failure can harm the company's ability to innovate. This SLR thus aims to combine the findings from the research fields of management and psychology to obtain an overall picture of failure in business. This approach will give us a holistic comprehension of the issue. The greater challenge is to create a common platform for better understanding the factors that influence failure and their impact on everyday business behaviour.

25. Theoretical Background

A lexical analysis of the term "failure" provides a useful starting point. The term "failure", embracing the meaning of "proving unsuccessful in business or in any profession or trade" and of "non-performance" (Read, 2003, p. 454), refers to a state of action with an undesirable outcome. In contrast, the verb "to fail" implies the meaning of proving oneself "to be inadequate or of no help to" others (Read, 2003, p. 454). Both interpretations of failure are facets of problematic situations that occur in the economic and the private sphere, and which demand solutions for problems. A loss, a misfortune, or omissions are reasons for hesitating to talk about failure because they represent an unwanted outcome. The thought of finding oneself in a worrying situation because of failure is unpleasant, and therefore the temptation arises to suppress the call for action and postpone the solution to the problem. If a nation feels threatened in its reputation, defensive measures may be taken to protect the country's reputation. This phenomenon became clearly visible with the outbreak of the coronavirus in China at the end of 2019.

25.1 From the Perspective of Individuals

People facing risk in critical work situations quickly identify with their own arguments and positions and interpret the loss of this quality as a threat to the self (Baumeister et al.,

1998; Beggan, 1992; De Dreu & van Knippenberg, 2005; Oyserman, 2009). The emotions elicited are considered to be relevant to one's own needs (Epstein & Morling, 1995; Gasiet, 1981; Grawe, 1998, 2004; Schirmer, 2015). Thus, following this logic, emotions as conscious or unconscious mental states motivate behaviour in such a way as to satisfy the personal needs that are affected (LeDoux, 2012; Schirmer, 2015). An action is always experienced subjectively in a specific situation by a social unit (person, group, enterprise, society), which, following Lewin (Lewin, 1926, 2012), represents the dynamics of purposeful action in acts of will as an elementary force of the living. According to this, action involves a consciously pursued goal that "represents an anticipation of the outcome associated with a motive" (von Cranach et al., 1980, p. 57, translated from German) and, according to Winfried Hacker, is to be understood as a temporally self-contained unit of activity (Asanger & Wenninger, 1999, p. 275). According to Lewin, this anticipation can be handled quite flexibly, so that opportunities and acts of execution other than those envisaged in the act of anticipation are still possible (Lewin, 1926). After each opportunity in which execution is successful, there is a conclusion that brings about a saturation of the tension that has been built up. An interrupted action therefore means an unsaturated tension that preserves the intention to act in memory (Lewin, 1926). Consequently, the successful implementation of creative ideas within an organisation or a society entails innovative performance (Amabile et al., 1996; Christensen, 1997; Geels, 2002, 2005, 2011; Rogers, 2003). It is a question of what keeps a company alive, which includes failure management in addition to sufficient resources and active support from internal or external parties. The ability to innovate includes the competence to recognise opportunities for improvement in changed situations, not to ignore them, and to actively adapt to them. Effective failure management strengthens the ability of a company to remain innovative.

25.2 Defining Failure

Based on these theoretical considerations about the manifestation of behaviour in a social environment (Lewin, 1926; Miller et al., 1960; von Cranach et al., 1980) the phenomenon of failure is seen to manifest its effects on two interrelated dimensions: the levels of analysis and the scenes of action. In qualitative terms, the levels of analysis consist of four basic building blocks: "people", "structure", "process", and "outcome". They collectively provide an overall picture for understanding failure. However, this picture must be further specified by a specific scene of action. A scene of action refers to either the internal (OrgIntern) or external (OrgExtern) orientation of an activity that takes place in a company or start-up. Looking at the existing body of completed and recorded research studies, failure may potentially trigger self-limiting behavioural tendencies, thus preventing improvement in business. In contrast, the experience of failure has the potential to unlock options for change. To define failure, two interpretations of this phenomenon are proposed (see Table 25.1): a self-limiting and an action-guiding definition. Both definitions address attitude-related aspects of failure management.

Table 25.1*Defining Failure*

Self-limiting, regressively oriented	Failure is an operational and structural disruption of a social unit that acts as a threat and triggers defensive behaviour. The fact that the expected outcome could not be achieved in the concrete situation forces drastic corrective measures.
Action- guiding, progressively oriented	Failure is understood by a social unit as a disruption of a sequence of activities, which is perceived as an opportunity to take adaptive actions. The openness to take action to secure the expected outcome leads to a revision of the underlying knowledge structures and opens them up for innovative redesign.

25.3 From the Perspective of a Company

Companies and start-ups that have a clear understanding of an emerging situation of failure are able to influence the complex situation in a timely manner. In addition, following Dimock (1986), a company succeeds in revising strategies and activities in time, provided that the management respects the different expectations of the organisational units. This presupposes that management embraces crises and conflicts as an opportunity to question previous habits, goals, and methods. In the words of Amabile and her team associates, innovation is defined as the successful implementation of creative ideas within an organisation, whereby creativity contributes to new and useful ideas in any field (Amabile et al., 1996). In addition, the diffusion of innovative ideas is a communication process that extends over a certain period of time in a social system (Rogers, 2003). Failure and success are two sides of the same coin. To understand and overcome failure, the focus must therefore be narrowly directed to the conditional factors under which failure occurs. Thus, as a systemic consequence, social systems evolve dynamically and create constellations in which both failure and success are part of real life. In this sense, failure and success are two competing aspects of reality. The outcome of a process can be interpreted by a social system as either failure or success. This is based on the idea that social systems form structures through communication processes that influence the course of events within the social unit and furthermore influence other systems externally (Luhmann, 1984). The next section presents the methodology and describes the data collection and content analysis. Subsequently, the main quantitative findings are presented. For their part, the qualitative findings are differentiated and grouped by themes according to the inductively developed failure evaluation framework (FEF) with the four levels of analysis and the two scenes of action.

26. Methodology

A SLR (Denyer & Tranfield, 2009; Feak & Swales, 2009; Tranfield et al., 2003) is an excellent instrument for surveying the state of knowledge about failure in business. The research objective was to integrate the findings from the research fields of management and psychology into an overall picture to provide a holistic understanding of failure in business. For this reason and to realise an unbiased search query, two different search portals were selected from which meaningful articles were selected. As a conceptual boundary, the aim was to identify research articles that consider the phenomenon of failure from a holistic perspective in situations where both phenomena—success and failure—are referenced to each other and where management and leadership, as interdependent disciplines, implement strategic decisions in favour of an innovation-oriented company. The extracted articles belong to the fields of management and psychology. As such, they were selected to provide a general basic understanding of the subject. In the following, the procedure for data collection and content analysis is presented.

26.1 Data Collection

The search was conducted in two databases; one for the research publications in the field of management (EBSCO), and another for publications which focused on psychology (PubPsych). PubPsych (PubPsych, n.d.) is the search portal containing international publications in psychology, with an emphasis on psychological research and application. EBSCO (EBSCO, 2021) offers a collection of academically significant articles in many fields, including business and management. Thus, both databases contain publications which represent the perspective on management and psychological research. To reduce the potential risks of excluding important articles, two independent literature searches were conducted to achieve a validation effect. Since failure and success are two sides of the same coin, both search terms

were included: ‘failure’ and ‘success’ as mass nouns (Oxford Dictionaries, 2021). This was done to ensure the research articles evaluated looked at the phenomenon of failure from a holistic perspective. Social systems develop dynamically and create situations in which failure and success are present. Therefore, the roots of failure lie in the desire for change, which for various reasons fail to lead to success in the concrete situation. For this reason, the search terms for peer-reviewed top-tier journal articles followed the formula of: ‘failure’ AND ‘success’ without truncation and without restriction to a given period till the end of February 2020.

The EBSCO service, called "Business Source Ultimate" on the EBSCOhost Web, provides selected peer-reviewed sources with management orientation (EBSCO, 2021). From this database, a total of 3,339 peer-reviewed scholarly articles (February 2020) were filtered out. To narrow the search, the query was refined with the term ‘business’. Referring to (Hopfenbeck, 1998) business is understood as a trading activity that takes place between individuals, groups, or companies to carry out transactions of products and services for the mutual benefit of both parties. By narrowing down the search results to the field of business, 1,650 hits were obtained. In business, management and leadership are required to successfully manage critical work situations and to shape the options for action that arise from situations of failure in favour of an innovation-oriented company. In line with Hopfenbeck (1998), management and leadership are interrelated disciplines that encompass both a functional managerial and a socially responsible leadership perspective. Management and leadership together make it possible to implement strategic decisions with a corporate culture appropriate to change, in other words, to motivate people to achieve goals (Frese, 1993; Hopfenbeck, 1998; von Rosenstiel, 2003, 2009). Thus, to narrow the sample the two mass nouns ‘management’ (1,216 articles) and ‘leadership’ (117 articles) were included in the query. As a further step in

the data collection procedure, exclusion criteria to ascertain validated quality of the items selected were applied. Firstly, the Quality Journal Ranking System of the Association of University Teachers of Business Administration in the German-speaking countries, the *Verband der Hochschullehrer für Betriebswirtschaft VHB im deutschsprachigen Raum* (VHB-Jourqual3, 2019), was used to identify A+, A, and B qualified journals. Secondly, to complement this quality assessment tool, the SCImago scientific journal ranking system (SCImago, n.d.) was selected to identify scientific journals with the indicator Q1 (quartile 1) with a SCImago Journal Ranking (SJR) value of more than 1.99 was selected. This way and in accordance with Podsakoff and his colleagues (2005), the review could be narrowed down to quality-assured articles from peer-reviewed journals. Based on this quality review using the VHB-Jourqual3 (VHB-Jourqual3, 2019) and SCImago (SCImago, n.d.) scientific journal ranking system, articles from journals promising the greatest impact on the selected subject area could be considered (Armstrong & Wilkinson, 2007; Judge et al., 2007; Podsakoff et al., 2005). Of the total 117 items filtered from EBSO, 34 items (29%) could be further processed after quality inspection. As shown in Table 26.1, the result is a collection of 34 EBSCO articles covering the years 1967 to 2019, which are published in journals using the VHB-Jourqual3 (2019) quality indicators A+ (5 journals with 6 articles), A (9 journals with 13 articles), B (8 journals with 11 articles). All the 117 articles were additionally qualified by the SCImago ranking system (SCImago, n.d.) Q1 with a $SJR > 1.99$. In effect, in addition to the list of the VHB-Jourqual3, two further journals with four articles qualified as $Q1 > 1.99$ were found. Of the total selected journals, 15 are registered in the United States, eight in England, and one in the Netherlands. The complete list of the selected articles and journals can be found in Table 29.1 in the Appendix.

With the purpose of getting a comprehensive conceptual overview of the topic of failure in business, a second search for a second dataset was done in the data portal PubPsych (PubPsych, n.d.) that takes more account of the psychological aspects. Analogous to the search in the EBSCO database (EBSCO, 2021), the two main search terms ‘failure’ and ‘success’ with the Boolean operator AND were used without truncation. This search yielded 1,749 hits (February 2020). By further including the mass noun ‘business’, this resulted in 29 peer-reviewed scholarly articles published on MEDLINE (15), NARCIS (1), ERIC (4), PASCAL (2), and PSYNDEX (7). To ensure quality in the selection process, the SCImago scientific journal ranking system (SCImago, n.d.) with Q1 (quartile 1) as the indicator and a SJR value (SCImago Journal Ranking) of more than 1.99 was used. This measure indicates high-quality publications over the last three years (Guerrero-Bote & Moya-Anegón, 2012). To assess journal quality identically for both datasets, a validation step to check all articles was performed. Except for one article in an A qualified journal, all articles are published in journals not ranked by the VHB-Jourqual3 ranking system. The quality assessment of the PubPsych dataset covering the years 1987 to 2019 (see Table 26.1), resulted in nine (31%) out of 29 articles selected from six journals, one of which is registered in the UK and five in the USA (see Table 29.1 in the Appendix).

Table 26.1

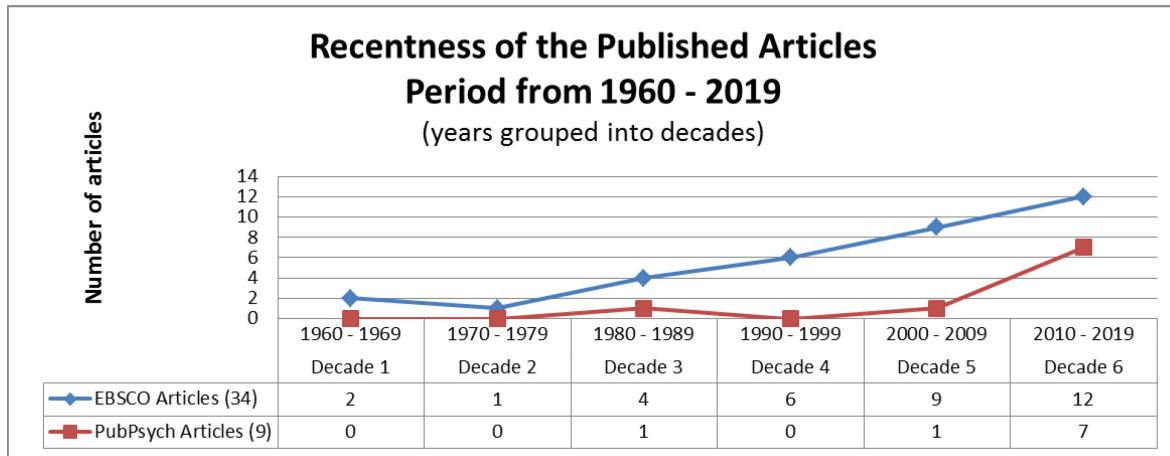
Total Amount of Filtered Articles and Journals

DB Se- arch	Articles	Period from	Period to	Amount	%	Qualified Articles	Journals	Journals (one over- lap)
EBSCO	117	1967	2019	6		Articles qualified A+	5	14 USA 8 UK 1 NLD
				13		Articles qualified A	9	
				11		Articles qualified B & Q1 >1.99	8	
				4		Articles qualified SJR Q1 >1.99	2	
				34	29%			
PubPsych	29	1987	2019	8		Articles qualified SJR Q1 >1.99	5	5 USA 1 UK
				1		Articles qualified A	1	
				9	31%			
Total	146	1967	2019	43	29%	Articles	29	Journals

In summary, the initial search findings of 146 matches in total (117 EBSCO hits, 29 PubPsych hits) revealed 43 qualified publications (29%) published in 29 journals (see Table 29.1 in the Appendix), all of which explicitly address the issue of failure in business as seen from a holistic perspective over a period of six decades (see Figure 26.1) presenting failure and success as two competing aspects of reality. With the chosen search procedure and the selected search terms, an unbiased search query was realised in which the so-called "Easter eggs" are not hidden in the search query itself.

Figure 26.1

Selected Articles by Decade



As shown in Figure 26.1, publications regarding failure in business apparently began to increase gradually after 2000 and up to the present, with 10 publications found in PubPsych and EBSCO in the first decade (2000–2009), and then 19 in the second decade (2010–2019). Only 14 article hits (one in PubPsych and 13 in EBSCO) could be found on the topic in the four decades from 1960 to 1999. While there is a total of 14 articles from 1967 to 1999, the sum increases to 29 from 2000 to 2019, practically doubling the figure in just two decades compared to four decades. The question arises as to what the catalyst was for the rapid development in research during the last 20 years. One possible answer to this could simply be a change in the indexing practices of the databases after 2000, which would suggest a change in the focus of research. This also means that earlier research contributions may be used as a basis for today's modern research orientation.

26.2 Content Analysis

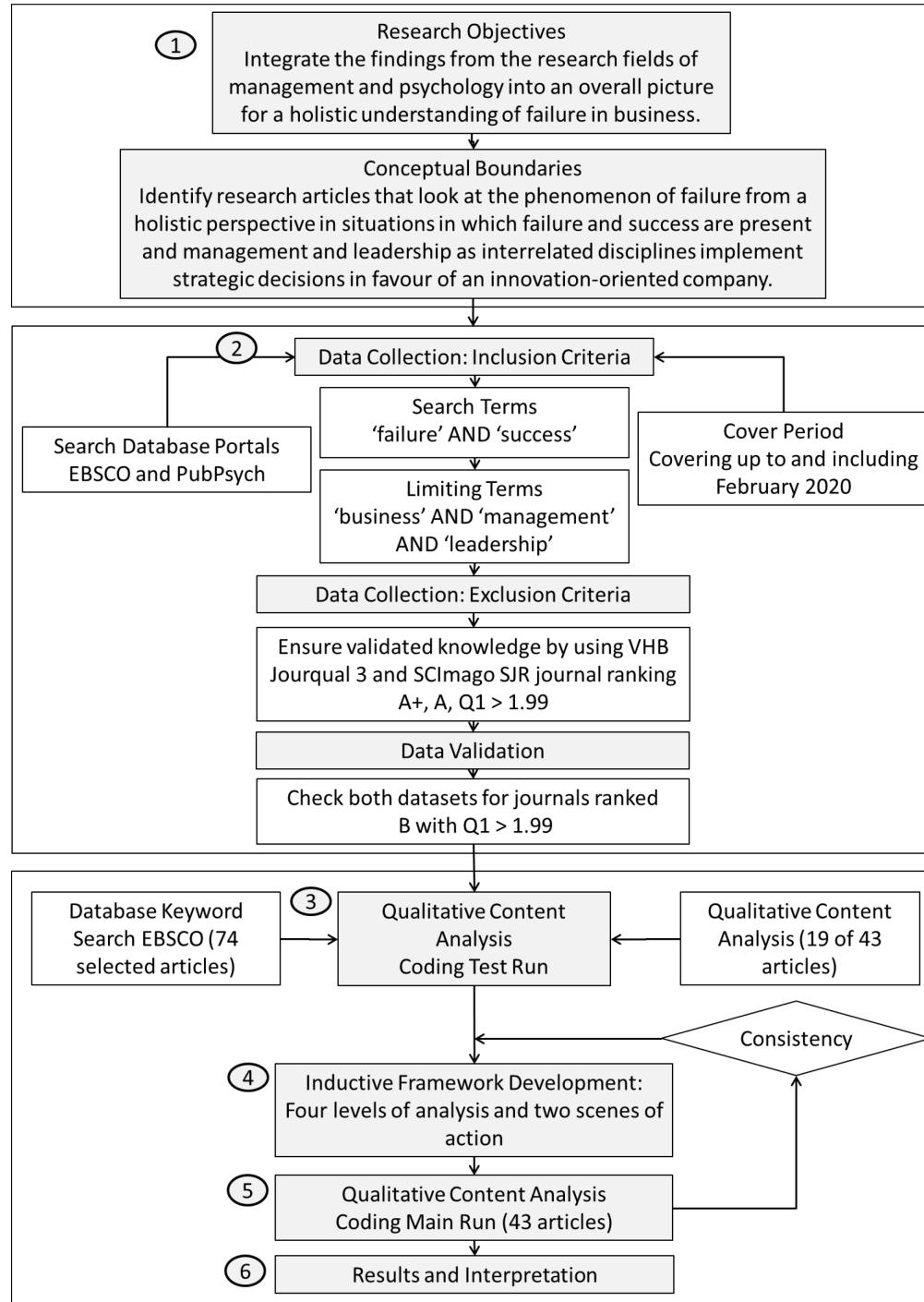
Following Denyer and Tranfield (2009), not only should a SLR cover a phenomenon as a whole, it should also achieve a practicable handling of the results for the field (Denyer &

Tranfield, 2009; Tranfield et al., 2003). To provide impulses for creative solutions for failure management in business, the key dimensions of failure were examined more closely. After retrieving and qualitatively validating articles from the databases EBSCO (EBSCO, 2021) and PupPsych (PubPsych, n.d.) the texts of the resulting articles were further processed with qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2010) and documented by using an Excel spreadsheet, which was additionally supplemented by MAXQDA, a data analysis software package (MAXQDA, n.d.).

Figure 26.2 provides an overview of the process of the SLR with the following steps: Research objectives and the respected boundary conditions (1), data collection (2), qualitative content analysis in the test run (3), inductive frame development (4), qualitative content analysis in the main run (5), and finally results and interpretation (6). In accordance with Mayring (2010), the technique of inductive categorisation enables the qualitative extraction of structures within a collection of texts. This practice, mainly adopted in the field of social science research (Mayring, 2010), enables categories to be determined directly from the material in a generalisation process, without first resorting to a theoretical concept. A list of the content coding categories that were defined in the end is presented in Table 29.2 in the Appendix. As shown in the flowchart (see Figure 26.2, step 3 to 5), the two dimensions of the framework were developed in an iterative process based on the inductively guided content analysis.

As a first analysis approach (Figure 26.2, step 3), a search was done in the EBSCO database with a sample of 74 articles by selecting only those which satisfied the ‘full text available’ and ‘references available’ options. The listed results in Table 29.3 in the Appendix show that some keywords, expected to be associated with failure in business, do not yield a match. The following search criteria were apparently not considered an integral part of the topic when indexing in the database system took place: ‘anticipation’, ‘deception’, ‘disappoint-

ment', 'fall prevention', 'misconceptions', and 'misjudgement / miscarriage / mistakes / mismanagement'. A first interpretation of this fact could lead to the assumption that the occurrence of failed business activities may not be subject to monitoring activities and retrospective reflexion. Retrospective thinking, on the other hand, could lead to an increase in knowledge and the discovery of innovative possibilities. Based on these considerations, failure management in business appears to be a key process determining the development and economic survival of a company, especially in its innovative performance. During the inductive coding process, a framework structure was developed that can be used for the structural assessment of failure situations (see Figure 26.2: step 4). It consists of four levels of analysis and two scenes of action, designed to provide a better understanding of the role of failure in business. Based on this structure, the coded text passages from the research literature could be classified as four building blocks of failure according to the framework for failure evaluation FEF.

Figure 26.2*Systematic Literature Review Process*

Briefly, failure is viewed in the research literature from the perspective of four levels of analysis: (1) people and their expectations acting in a given situation (people), (2) organisa-

tional structures and their leadership actions (structure), (3) processes and their phases in specific situations (process), and (4) outcomes and their causes used as explanations (outcome). In addition, failure can be observed in two different scenes of action: (1) one internal to the organisation (OrgIntern) and (2) one external to the organisation (OrgExtern). The complete list of coding categories can be found in Table 29.2 in the Appendix.

27. Findings

The analysis of the findings is divided into two parts. The first part consists of a quantitative description and the second part of a qualitative description of the findings.

27.1 Quantitative Findings

As documented in Table 27.1, the SLR comprises a total of 43 studies from 1967 to 2019: 29 studies have a quantitatively oriented research design (25 empirical, four experimental), and 14 studies have a qualitatively oriented research design (five case studies, eight theoretical, one SLR). It is noteworthy that the majority of the PubPsych articles (7 out of 9) are empirical in nature.

Table 27.1

Nature of the Research Approaches Adopted

	Period	EBSCO	PubPsych	Total		
Empirical Study	1976–2019	18	7	25	29	67%
Experimental Study	1980–2019	2	2	4		
Case Study	1967–2010	5	0	5	14	33%
Theoretical Analysis	1969–2016	8	0	8		
Systematic Literature Review	2011–2011	1	0	1		
		34	9	43		100%

Secondly, of the four levels of analysis, the analysis level called "outcome" is covered by all articles (see Table 27.2). Furthermore, contributions about the three other levels of analysis ("people", "structure", and "process") differ in their number, and others differ in the scene of action focused on. As can be seen in Table 27.2, 30 publications each deal with more than one level of analysis in connection with failure internal to an organisation (OrgIntern). In this context, the levels of analysis are dealt with 98 times in total. In comparison, the studies of 13 articles deal with the topic of failure external to an organisation (OrgExtern). The levels of analysis within this context are examined 45 times in total, which corresponds to a relative share of 31%.

Table 27.2*Scenes of Action and Levels of Analysis*

Scenes of Action / Level of Analysis				Levels of Analysis											
Scenes of Action	Total Articles	%	Period	Outcome	%	People	%	Structure	%	Process	%	Attributions	%		
OrgIntern	11	26%		11	26%	6	19%	10	29%	7	20%				
OrgExtern	3	7%		3	7%	2	6%	3	9%	2	6%				
Total Period 1	14	33%	1960 – 1999	14	33%	8	26%	13	38%	9	26%				
OrgIntern	19	44%		19	44%	16	52%	12	35%	17	49%				
OrgExtern	10	23%		10	23%	7	23%	9	26%	9	26%				
Total Period 2	29	67%	2000 – 2019	29	67%	23	74%	21	62%	26	74%				
Total OrgIntern	30	70%		30		22		22		24		98	69%		
Total OrgExtern	13	30%		13		9		12		11		45	31%		
Total	43	100%		Total	43		31		34		35				

Finally, all research articles written between 1960 and 1999 contribute 33% of the knowledge set, with the rest of them (67%) having been written in the last 20 years (see Table

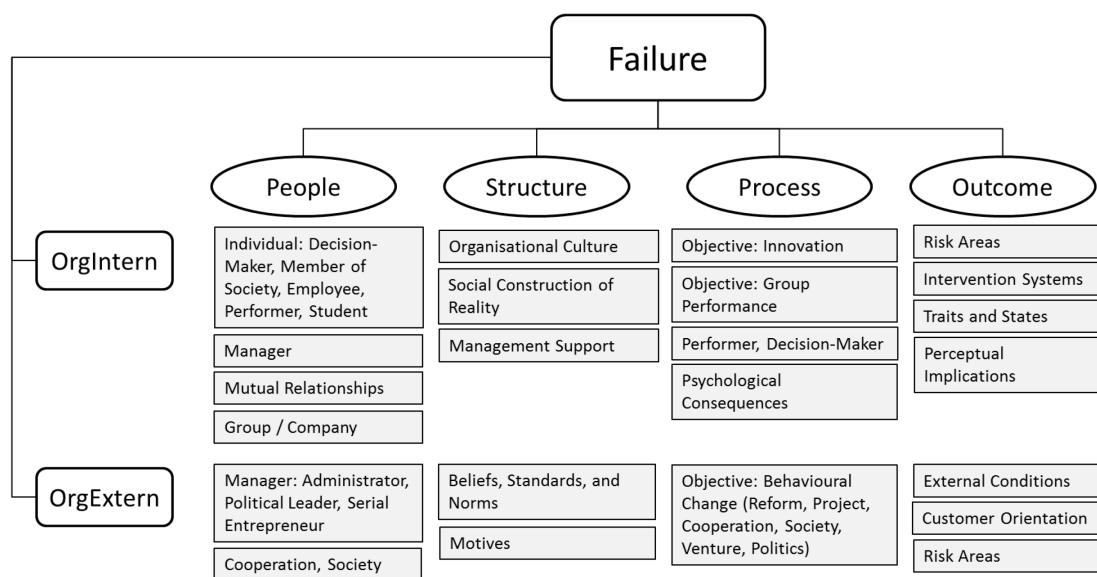
27.2). The consistency of the data material (Mayring, 2010) can be seen in the fact that the addition of 11 articles from B-qualified journals, which increases the total number of articles from 32 to 43 (see Table 29.1 in the Appendix), keeps the distribution among the decades as well as the foci at the level of analysis within the same range. Therefore, interest in the phenomenon of failure in business seems to be increasing. The increase in attention is particularly evident for the "process" level of analysis, with a substantial increase from 26% (1960–1999) to 74% (2000–2019) of the articles in both scenes of action (35 articles in total). The same trend applies to the "people" level of analysis, with attention increasing from 26% of the articles to 74% of them in both scenes of action (31 articles in total). The reference point is 33% for the four preceding decades and 67% for the two most recent decades, as is indicated by the distribution of the total of 43 articles in all (14 and 29). This state of research suggests that there is increasing interest in the dynamics of failure. This increased interest in the study of "process" and "people" indicates a desire for a more profound understanding of the internal and external mechanisms that influence the performance of organisational units and their members in managing failure. As the summary view of the levels of analysis covered by the individual articles shows (see Table 29.4 in the Appendix) this is particularly true for the last two decades, during which there has been an increase in the number of articles covering the "process" level of analysis in combination with others. It can be argued that the increased interest in the dynamic properties of failure leads away from a static analysis towards a developmental view of failure situations, opening the space for the concepts of learning, creativity, quality, change, and innovation.

27.2 Qualitative Findings

The next step focuses on the characteristic content identified through qualitative content analysis in the research literature. The findings are organised according to the structure of the inductively developed FEF, the failure evaluation framework (see Figure 27.1). It consists of four levels of analysis (people, structure, process, and outcome) and two scenes of action (OrgIntern, OrgExtern), which are presented in the form of a matrix. The four levels of analysis are related to two scenes of action where failure occurs. At all intersections, thematic groupings are indicated, which are described in more detail below. These thematic groupings result from the qualitative analysis, which was conducted with the method of the inductive content analysis (Mayring, 2010).

Figure 27.1

A Framework Structure for the Evaluation of Failure Situations



These four levels of analysis, together with the internal and external scenes of action, form the FEF that is next used to present the qualitative findings and interpret the evaluation criteria proposed in the research literature. Table 29.4 in the Appendix provides a detailed overview of the research articles, grouped according to the specific levels of analysis ad-

dressed by each article. This table answers the question of what combined levels of analysis were researched and what scene of action was chosen in each article. All articles focus on either a single analytical aspect of failure (structure, process) or on a combination of two or three levels of analysis (person, structure, process). The analysis aspect "people" is always processed in a combination of two or three building blocks of failure. The analytical aspect "outcome" is covered by all articles. In addition, Table 29.5 and Table 29.6 in the Appendix provide a detailed overview, grouping the research articles together by thematic contents in a specific scene of action, and arranging them by publication date and the respective research platform.

27.3 Level of Analysis "People"

Failure results from individuals in critical situations attempting to blame factors outside their own control to justify a failed venture without facing the consequences, thus avoiding change in future actions (Eggers & Song Lin, 2015). The level of analysis "people" focuses on the human being as an actor in a social system. The relationships between the members or exponents of a social system with the internal and external environment are influenced by the formative elements of a social structure with the given communication processes in a given reality.

Trust, beliefs, and motivation are part of the level of analysis "people" (see Table 29.2 in the Appendix), which constitutes the first building block of failure addressed. Table 29.7 in the Appendix provides an overview of the classified text passages extracted from literature as evidence for the level of analysis "people" including the actor and the object of action. The following presentation of the qualitative findings focuses on the actors in failure situations

with regard to specific thematic issues (see Figure 27.1). The contributions are divided into either a scene of action internal (OrgIntern) or external (OrgExtern) to an organisation.

27.3.1 Scene of Action OrgIntern

Individual. Failure is usually understood to be a form of lack of skills, either for the employee or the manager. Lack of motivation (Ree & Carretta, 1999), weakness in self-regulation (Critcher & Ferguson, 2016), difficulty in learning from unsuccessful events (Ellis et al., 2006; Eskreis-Winkler & Fishbach, 2019), exhaustion of resources to resist desires (Hofmann et al., 2012), inexperience in a field of performance (Wicklund & Braun, 1987), and low management talent (Burton et al., 1976) are all factors that can be used to evaluate the impact on decision-makers, members of society, employees, performers, or students in failure situations.

Manager. In contrast, according to Eilon (1969), it is impossible to develop meaningful initiatives and situation-specific management skills without the necessary transfer of authority and responsibility from one level of management to a lower level. The manager's risk, such as administrators, political leaders, serial entrepreneurs, is to prevent this way active participatory involvement in the decision-making process. In addition, in situations where the expected goal is not achieved, managers are evaluated by their followers in terms of their representativeness for the identity of the group (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008). As Alveson and Kärreman (2016) notes, leadership is recognised as central, even by those researchers who are sceptical about glorifying the role of leadership in a company. If a leader is unable to delegate (Eilon, 1969), does not understand how to conduct an innovative search considering all interest of the groups involved (Nutt, 2004), and is unable to maintain the consent of his followers due to his lack of group identity (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008), there is an obvious lack of ability.

Mutual Relationships. On the other hand, it is important to note that the reciprocity between the participants must also be addressed to understand the extent of failure. Failure in this case is understood as a function of the mutual relationship between the parties involved. As Schein and her colleagues (2019) demonstrate on the basis of seven empirical studies using the agent-based modelling (ABM) approach (Jackson et al., 2017), a "praise-many, blame-fewer" strategy counteracts the effect that people often feel relatively less guilty of their own misconduct, even if it is deserved. This strategy limits the development of resentment and the decline in individual commitment (Schein et al., 2019). Moreover, the teacher's efforts to encourage and maintain intrinsic motivation throughout the educational process can be crucial to protect the student's vulnerability to educational situations perceived as difficult (Taylor et al., 2014). Discrepancies between the perception of causality between managers and subordinates (Schilit & Locke, 1982), people showing systematic bias in interpreting the impressions that their performance leaves on others (Moon et al., 2019), and the interactive influences between managers and their followers based on mutually generated self-concepts (Bligh et al., 2011) are further examples for this mutuality.

Group, Company. As a further finding, failure is not only understood from the perspective of one person, but also from the perspective of groups within the company or a company as a whole. As one example, an excessively competitive organisational culture creates unhealthy internal competition between employees. The resulting weaknesses in management hinder the openness of communication essential for trust relationships and trigger unbalanced processes of stabilisation and transformation (Probst & Raisch, 2005). For the realisation of strategic corporate planning, it is not only the ability of management to think strategically and to break through boundary conditions that is influential (Hussey, 1984). Rather, it is also about sensitivity in dealing with the motivational and creative aspects of behaviour that result

from power structures in the company. Following Hussey, it is essential to find a balance between the two, in other words to integrate the hard with the soft factors. To achieve commitment, team members must be convinced technically, emotionally and ethically of the vision to be pursued (Santiago Marco Perles, 2002). Based on a qualitative analysis, Sheehan and her team conclude that without the deliberate delegation of power by the company's top management, human resource (HR) management initiatives risk failing in the implementation of organisational improvement programmes (Sheehan et al., 2014). Moreover, performance avoidance orientation instead of a shared learning orientation of a team prevents the generation of options for radical innovation for ensuring the long-term viability of the company (Alexander & van Knippenberg, 2014). Radical product innovation deserves a strategic performance measurement system that answers managers' questions in a more qualitative way. As impressively elaborated by Melnyk and his team in the form of a case study (Melnyk et al., 2010), this gives them the management support they need to invest resources in innovative products, maintain well-established existing products, and avoid the temptation to trick the measurement system at the expense of the business.

27.3.2 Scene of Action OrgExtern

Manager. As Staw and Ross (1980) demonstrate in their experimental study, the stereotype of leaders who fully and unwaveringly are committed to a particular course of action is considered desirable in society. This leadership stereotype of behavioural persistence provoke administrators, in their role as authority in a government agency, to escalate their commitment to a course of action and become entangled in a failing programme while refraining from experimenting (Staw & Ross, 1980). Other mechanisms that affect managers include external blaming to hide internal causes (Eggers & Song Lin, 2015), threats of loss of control leading

to authoritarian behaviour (Winter, 2010), and lack of social capabilities in the requirements phase of an information system project (da Silva et al., 2019).

Cooperation, Society. As far as interorganisational cooperation is concerned, the initial dispositions of the parties form the basis for trust building in the cooperation. In line with Faerman et al. (2001), concerning the case study on public-private cooperation for the regulation of financial innovation, trust in cooperation develops as a process in which the results of one period form the basis for the next and eventually lead to agreement on common rules and principles for behaviour regulation. In the following, some further findings from the research literature reviewed are listed: shared leadership as a choice in sustaining team performance in enterprise resource planning (ERP) projects (Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013), the importance of congruence between words and actions to help understand the immediacy of the environmental expectations (Harris, 2007), the creation of an overarching leadership identity to connect two cultures in a joint venture between Westerns and Chinese partners (Li et al., 1999), and the integration of Corporate Social Responsibility into business development as a matter of course (Blowfield, 2005).

27.3.3 Summary Building Block "People"

As the analysis of the building block "people" in a scene of action internal to an organisation (OrgIntern) shows, a lack of individual skills, but also the unwillingness of a leader to delegate authority and responsibility, can be crucial for the lack of initiative and active participation in the development of the company. Furthermore, the reciprocity of relationships and the mutually generated self-concepts have a decisive influence on trust relationships and risk-taking as a result of the different perceptions between the individuals and groups involved within an organisation. Finally, in a scene of action external to an organisation (OrgExtern) it is of central importance for the shaping of social developments and cooperation with third

parties that the attitude of the executives and managers involved is open to trust-building co-operative behaviour.

27.4 Level of Analysis "Structure"

Failure results from the strategy of broad-based blame by leaders, creating unhealthy organisational cultures within which previously successful teams can disintegrate due to the development of toxified relationships (Schein et al., 2019) producing an excessive culture of success driven by rivalry and competition (Probst & Raisch, 2005). The "structure" level of analysis focuses on the structural conditions within which interaction between the actors involved take place. The formative elements of a situation determine the social structure of a given reality in which people interact and whereby new structural and individual states emerge.

Corporate culture, management and leadership, strategic orientation, and the availability of resources are part of the level of analysis "structure" (see Table 29.2 in the Appendix), which constitutes the second building block of failure addressed. The qualitative analysis continues with findings on structural aspects and their influence on critical situations with the potential of failure (see Figure 27.1). Table 29.8 in the Appendix provides an overview of the classified text passages extracted from literature as evidence for the level of analysis "structure" including the role of leadership. The following presentation of the qualitative findings is divided into contributions either internal to an organisation (OrgIntern) or external to an organisation (OrgExtern).

27.4.1 Scene of Action OrgIntern

Organisational Culture. From the perspective of failure internal to an organisation (OrgIntern), two different structural strands can be identified in the research literature. Organ-

isational culture and the idea of the social construction of reality are influential factors in the case of failure. Chiesa, Coughian, and Voss, recommend that "central to leadership is creating a climate that encourages and supports innovation and entrepreneurship" (1996, p. 131). Additionally, their auditing model for technical innovation management addresses the managerial processes and the organisational mechanisms through which innovation is performed. They conclude that a climate of innovation includes leadership that is able to encourage the development of new ideas and the willingness to take risks (Chiesa et al., 1996). This finding also applies to the human resources (HR) leadership function, which can exert a major influence on changing an organisation's cultural system if sufficient resources, appropriate processes, and organisational prominence are available (Hardy, 1996; Sheehan et al., 2014). A company that finds it difficult to look critically at external developments (Probst & Raisch, 2005), the problem of a lack of dynamic fit between personal skills and the given environment (Wicklund & Braun, 1987), a company's lack of receptiveness to initiatives for innovation and renewal with insufficient support services to foster engagement (Rubenstein et al., 1967) limit any efforts at smart development. From a cultural perspective, these limitations are due to the low level of interaction between the exponents of a company and a limitation to the existing. Social systems that restrict desires instead of allowing diversity (Hofmann et al., 2012), a culture of blaming instead of praising what is jointly achieved (Schein et al., 2019), setting performance targets without taking motivational sensitivities into account (Ree & Carretta, 1999), lead to emphasising technical aspects over trust-building measures (Santiago Marco Perles, 2002). The focus of the second strand lies on the social construction of reality.

Social Construction of Reality. Following Bligh, Kohles and Pillai (2011), leaders and followers enter into a leadership relationship that manifests as a continuous symbiotic romance of leadership. This fact can take on both constructive and destructive forms as group

members define their own organisational reality and develop leadership constructions. In line with the results of three experiments by Meindl et al. (1985), the evaluation of extreme positive or negative outcomes of an organisational event revealed that observers attributed causality to the leader of the organisation rather than to equally likely alternative sources, such as followers or external causes (Bligh et al., 2011). As Alvesson and Kärreman (2016) imply with their critique on the heroic effect of transformational leadership, the phenomenon of the social construction of reality distorts the view on the effectiveness of a leadership. Another component of the socially influenced construction of reality is evident in the cultural shift from Protestant to the social ethic, which seems to promote a belief in belonging as the highest personal need. As elaborated by Burton et al. (1976), this affects the willingness to take on leadership roles and career aspirations, as the accent in behaviour is on conformity with peers rather than adherence to internalised performance expectations (Burton et al., 1976; Kassarjian, 1965; Riesman et al., 1989).

Management Support. On the other hand, in the case of attempts by subordinates to influence superiors in organisations, the lack of support from management is seen as crucial for the development of a company and its success on the market. As shown in an empirical study by Schilit and Locke (1982), rejection of a proposed new approach is attributed to various causes, either as narrow-mindedness on the part of superiors or as lack of competence on the part of subordinates. To initiate organisational change, the ability of subordinates to exert upward influence can be an essential component of organisational effectiveness (Schilit & Locke, 1982). In addition, Nutt points out that failure on the part of decision-makers and thus failed strategic decisions are due to a lack of willingness to devote sufficient resources to gathering information and thus to ensuring the involvement of all stakeholders (Nutt, 2004). The case study analysis by Steel et al. (1985) points in the same direction. Active manage-

ment support and realistic expectations of the objectives are essential for a sound implementation of quality circle intervention programmes. In the interest of developing better strategies, a climate of openness and respect must be created to recognise perception limits in corporate planning (Hussey, 1984). For new product development to be customer-driven, a long-term orientation must be adopted (Song et al., 1997). To support managers in their quest for innovative performance, it is indispensable to provide them with an appropriate process-oriented set of metrics (Melnyk et al., 2010). In addition, conducting guided post-event reviews gives the organisation the opportunity to learn from experience (Ellis et al., 2006). In a hierarchical multi-agent system where beliefs and actions are separated, experiential learning takes place and updating of beliefs about organisational performance occurs (Lee & Puranam, 2016). The drift from the objectives can be avoided by a management style that focuses on harmonising the values between the stakeholders engaged in the information system development project (Narayanaswamy et al., 2013). Delegate or regulate, it is a matter of finding a balance between the two extremes so as not to unnecessarily restrict the scope for action (Eilon, 1969).

27.4.2 Scene of Action OrgExtern

Beliefs, Standards, and Norms. From the perspective of cross-organisational relationships with external parties (OrgExtern) and at the "structure" analysis level, beliefs, standards, and norms have an intervening function. Yang and del Carmen Triana (2019), for example, use statistical data analysis to prove that ventures led by women are more likely to fail than those led by men. Referring to the theory of role congruence (Eagly & Karau, 2002), they prove that due to gender-specific expectations of men's and women's task roles, the persistence of gender-specific beliefs puts women at a disadvantage as entrepreneurs. The approach in improving the situation is to prevent the bankruptcy of women-led enterprises by raising awareness of gender issues and through more formalised business structures (Yang &

del Carmen Triana, 2019). In addition , new standards should be set for assessing the behaviour of managers. According to Choi and Behling, the success of a TQM programme depends on the attitude of management, which is based on three factors, namely time orientation, managerial approach and attitude towards the customer. The case analyses confirm that management achieves the best outcomes with a long-term focus that values the customer as a partner (Choi & Behling, 1997). Furthermore, there seems to be a misconception that providing a leader by virtue of availability is all that matters. This ignores the fact that leadership performance plays a central role in transformation (Harris, 2007), for example as a project manager in an international product innovation project (Moenaert et al., 2000), as a manager to lead an international joint venture (Li et al., 1999), as a project manager in the Requirement Engineering (ER) phase of an information system project (da Silva et al., 2019). It all depends on the skills, knowledge and experience of the person assigned to a project or venture. In addition, enterprise resource planning (ERP) projects are mentioned as a special case that is best managed by a coordinated team and led in a collaborative mode (Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013). If a company wants to keep its employees, it needs good role models who are perceived as responsible and active corporate communication that talks about it (Doh et al., 2011).

Motives: In contrast, motives can steer the behaviour of companies in a certain direction. In his theoretical analysis, Blowfield (2005) assigns to corporate social responsibility (CSR) a moral vision of the relationship between business and society. Consequently, the assertion of corporate self-interest inhibits the implementation of CSR by harming social development (Blowfield, 2005). To reach consensus, it is important to be aware of the respective fields of practice and expectations that each member brings on board and that form the structural starting point for the efforts towards interorganisational cooperation. (Faerman et al., 2001). Furthermore, Winter (2010) concludes that the achievement motive does not pre-

dict success in politics but failure. The achievement motive can lead politicians to a rigid persistence in a failing cause or, as Staw and Ross (1980, p. 250) would say, "caught in a failing program". Both authors call for the acceptance of experimental behaviour (Campbell, 1969) which discards non-functional programmes for alternatives and avoids being trapped by a failing programme. As the historical analysis of the first inaugural speeches conducted by Winter (2010) predicts, achievement motivated American presidents tend to behave authoritarian if they feel loss of control and wish to avoid feedback.

27.4.3 Summary Building Block "Structure"

As the analysis of the building block "structure" indicates, two different strands of structural factors have an influence on failure in business. Firstly, superiors have the potential for creating a supportive and encouraging organisational culture by the means of managerial processes and organisational mechanisms (Chiesa et al., 1996; Schein et al., 2019). Secondly, the social construction of reality can mobilise negative influence factors toward the acceptance of management and leadership. As a conclusion, both phenomena are related to each other and should not be observed as separated structural elements. Negative constructions of the relationship between the subordinates and their superiors prevent the emergence of opportunities towards innovation and have the force to limit the capacity of an organisation to innovate. In addition, the ability to win over the superior for organisational change depends on the willingness of leadership to grant more resources for opening up the issue and thus for broad information gathering. In a scene of action external to an organisation (OrgExtern), by contrast, gender-specific expectations of the task roles of men and women and the implementation of a company's corporate social responsibility towards society fundamentally disadvantage women as entrepreneurs and society through self-interest. Beliefs and norms in our society have the power to hinder the acceptance of experimental behaviour and lead leaders to

a socially accepted insistence on pursuing a failed programme without learning and adaption. As an extreme case and evidenced by historical analyses, performance-motivated American presidents showed a tendency towards particularly authoritarian behaviour when they felt a loss of control and rejected feedback.

27.5 Level of Analysis "Process"

Failure results from a chain of events in which decision-makers are trapped in a limited search for alternative solutions, avoiding broad objectives and failing to open themselves to alternative perspectives and approaches (Nutt, 2004). The "process" level of analysis focuses on the implementation of patterns of action by the members of a social system that contribute to securing the expected outcomes in a given reality. This is influenced by the given formative elements of the organisation under consideration and by the relationships between the members of an organisation in their respective environments. The decisive factors are, above all, coherence in the communication between the parties involved, a reinforcing feedback system, the accepting handling of feedback, but also the willingness to look for alternative solutions and to learn from experimental action, so that weak signals of a process disruption can be detected at an early stage.

Feedback through communication triggers learning and change processes and, together with the chosen implementation procedures, is part of the level of analysis "process" (see Table 29.2 in the Appendix), which constitutes the third building block of failure addressed. The qualitative analysis continues with insights into process aspects which may lead to failure in critical situations (see Figure 27.1). Table 29.9 in the Appendix provides an overview of the classified text passages extracted from literature as evidence for the level of analysis "process" including indications for process segmentations. The following presentation of the

qualitative findings focuses on the object of action in a specific thematic context, with contributions either to an internal scene of action (OrgIntern) or external to a scene of action (OrgExtern).

27.5.1 Scene of Action OrgIntern

From the perspective of a scene of action internal to an organisation four different thematic issues can be identified. Two of them deal with the issue of innovation, one with innovative achievements to the benefit of a company and one with the promotion of group performance. A further aspect in this section deals with process management from the perspective of a performer or decision-maker. Finally, the fourth aspect concerns research findings with psychological consequences dealing with failure.

Objective: Innovation. The following initiatives are concerned with the issue of quality and innovation to the benefit of a company. The integration of an operations research group in a company (Rubenstein et al., 1967), new product development projects (Song et al., 1997), upward influence for an organisational change (Schilit & Locke, 1982), audits for technical innovation (Chiesa et al., 1996), user acceptance for technology deployment (Neufeld et al., 2007), projects for the development of information systems (Narayanaswamy et al., 2013), radical innovation performed by groups in a company (Alexander & van Knippenberg, 2014; Melnyk et al., 2010), and the need for committed ethical leadership towards the implementation of the philosophy of Total Quality Management (Santiago Marco Perles, 2002) are all initiatives aimed at improving the quality and effectiveness of innovation processes. As Rubenstein and his colleagues (1967) point out, the success of a "client-consultant" relationship within a company is defined by the results of the innovative actions in the life history of an Operations Research (OR) group that going through four phases departing from pre-birth to maturity and ending with the event of death. This kind of reinforcing

feedback system has an effect on changes in the attitude towards their activity and ultimately leads to an improvement in client acceptance. Failure in the initial phase of integrating an OR group into the company are damaging. As case studies show, to enforce the OR group, it is advisable to first select a few manageable projects that can be successfully completed in a short time (Rubenstein et al., 1967). Hussey's trenchant analysis of the British industry assumes that through a skilful planning process, a company succeeds in evolving from basic operational control to strategic management of resources in the face of competition, so that forecasts for growth become increasingly feasible and increased responsiveness emerges through external orientation (Hussey, 1984). Radical innovation requires a match between the goals set, and the behavioural strategies used to achieve them. It is therefore crucial to provide managers with the required support and empowerment to develop and promote innovation. Alexander and van Knippenberg (2014) address this issue, which has already been taken up by Melnyk (2010). For Melnyk, it is the corporate culture with its assumptions and the interplay with the diverging local subcultures that form the point of reference and ensure that a Strategic Performance Measurement System (SPMS) is not misused to only put the number of innovations on the radar, but also to reflect the "how" innovative performance is achieved (Melnyk et al., 2010). Cost-cutting and incremental improvements need a strategic shift to ensure innovation. They lead to behaviours that are rewarded but can lead the company to ruin. Alexander and van Knippenberg focus on the team's ability to dynamically shift between goal orientations. The leader's ambidexterity makes it possible to encourage the team to iteratively shift from a phase of learning to one of proving performance without being discouraged by the possibility of failure (Alexander & van Knippenberg, 2014).

Objective: Group Performance. In distinction, Lee and Puranam (2016) contribute to a differentiated view of failure from the perspective of improving group performance. In

their view, formal organisations are hierarchical multi-agent systems where delegation is pervasive, belief and action are separated (Simon, 1962). In a process of experiential learning, the precise implementation of a strategy enables the discovery of better strategies due to the deviations caused by imperfect communication and thus imperfect implementation (Augsdorfer, 2005; Lee & Puranam, 2016). The assessment of group performance is influenced by the group's interpretation of its leadership performance. In fact, Giessner and van Knippenberg demonstrate with their experimental studies that, due to the attested non-prototypicality, the group is more disappointed about the leader's missing a goal than in the case of a leader with a shared group identity (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008; Hogg, 2001), what affects the group's perception of performance. Moreover, group performance is nourished by expectations about future team outcomes that are rooted in the leader's attributions of performance (Bligh et al., 2011). Additionally, group performance is enhanced by the transformative property of power when information sharing and collaborative behaviour informally involve human resource management (Sheehan et al., 2014), and finally by improving group performance through a praise-many, blame-fewer strategy (Schein et al., 2019). The right dosage of "praise-many, blame-fewer" strategy helps improving group performance in the long term.

Performer, Decision-Maker. Additionally, when performers and decision makers feel increasing pressure to better adapt their behavioural repertoire to the demands of the environment, they experience their inexperience in dealing with the performance situation (Wicklund & Braun, 1987). If they show hesitation in developing a complete causal map of future situations, they cannot make the so-called "right" decision to guide the strategy formation process (Mosakowski, 1997). Finally, if decision makers avoid an adaptive search process for gathering information on alternative problem solutions, they face a reduced range

of options for action (Nutt, 2004). Performers and decision-makers have the option to use strategies that enable performers to achieve the ideal fit for the desired situation (Wicklund & Braun, 1987) and decision-makers to search for alternatives step by (Mosakowski, 1997; Nutt, 2004).

Psychological Consequences. In completion, back chaining from the event to be explained to its causes (Ellis et al., 2006), the detachment between short-term behaviour and the desired outcome by constructing a long concatenation of means and end states (Critcher & Ferguson, 2016), people's self-control history over the course of the day influencing resistance attempts (Hofmann et al., 2012), intrinsic motivation, which is linked to past achievements (Taylor et al., 2014), and the knowledge that exaggerated meta-perceptions lead to suboptimal decisions regarding impression management (Moon et al., 2019) are all key recommendations to reduce failure in business. Ultimately, as Eskreis-Winkler and Fishbach (2019) deduce from their empirical studies, failure feedback can undermine the motivation to learn because of its ego-threatening perception with the fatal effect of disengagement. In consequence, failure feedback causes a fade-out, stops information processing and prevents the goal from being pursued further.

27.5.2 Scene of Action OrgExtern

Objective: Behavioural Change (Reform, Project, Cooperation, Society, Venture, and Politics). From the scene of action external to an organisation the introduction of social reforms by the administration in governmental departments (Staw & Ross, 1980), the development of a transparent communication network within the framework of an international innovation project (Moenaert et al., 2000), the development of procedures for behavioural regulation of financial innovations (Faerman et al., 2001), the redefinition and development of good business practises to fulfil social responsibility (Blowfield, 2005), the tactics of

achievement-driven political leaders seeking re-election (Winter, 2010), the analysis of previous results of ventures to plan a successor business (Eggers & Song Lin, 2015), are tasks that relate to behavioural change when working in the context of external parties. All these tasks contribute to the realisation of critical aspirations in society, companies, cooperation with third parties, ventures, projects, and in politics. All these tasks are doomed to failure if no experimenting approach to problem-solving (Staw & Ross, 1980), insufficient coherence of the communication flows (Moenaert et al., 2000), unsatisfactory design of the behaviour regulation procedures (Faerman et al., 2001), insufficient willingness to endorse the concerns of CSR as the Corporate Social Responsibility (Blowfield, 2005), including planetary sustainability (Harris, 2007), increased authority combined with avoidance of feedback (Winter, 2010), inability to take a step back to make sense after failed ventures (Eggers & Song Lin, 2015) are present. Communication efforts contribute, on the one hand, to the involvement of the units and individuals concerned and, on the other hand, to consensus building. This is done by implementing adequate communication channels to promote transparency and to support managers during the requirements phase of an information system development project (da Silva et al., 2019), companies particularly during the initiation phase to achieve cooperation with external partners in an international product innovation project (Moenaert et al., 2000), or to support employee retention through a process of inclusion that can be judged as meaningful by the employees (Doh et al., 2011). The process of failure as outlined by Winter shows a sequence of steps that begins with a political leader sensing failure (1), feeling frustrated (2), trying to control the situation (3), and finally realising the occurrence of failure (4). Failure is understood as a process that leads to one outcome at a time being the starting point for the next (Faerman et al., 2001) and planning the next action based on the previous outcome (Eggers & Song Lin, 2015). For a compelling commitment from the parties involved in

an international joint venture, Li and his colleagues (1999) recommend creating enough interdependence to promote shared team problem-solving and prevent unhealthy demonstrations of power. Shared team problem-solving is the idea behind the concept of shared leadership, which is the leadership process perceived by the team or group as a whole (Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013).

27.5.3 Summary Building Block "Process"

As the analysis of the building block "process" shows, four distinct issues are at the heart of failure management. Firstly, failure is associated in the research literature with hindering innovative achievements for the benefit of the company. Secondly, this subsequently also hinders group performance. Thirdly, initiatives for better quality and explicitly for the effectiveness of innovation processes should be supported by some kind of reinforcing feedback system (Rubenstein et al., 1967), thus favouring a process of experience-based learning. The hesitation to develop a complete causal map of a future situation and the abandonment of an adaptive search process to gather information about alternative solutions to problems can reduce the range of options for action. Finally, psychological consequences are the fourth point to consider when dealing with processes in critical situations in business. There is an ample list of difficulties and key recommendations in the research literature for reducing failing in management processes concerning the objective of innovation or group performance, behavioural change or the psychological consequences (see Table 29.9 in the Appendix). For example, the difficulty of separating a long-term goal from short-term means to gradually bring them to the desired end state in a chaining process (Critcher & Ferguson, 2016). In summary, ensuring smooth communication and recognising the value of resource-intensive action steps is essential. It is critical that communication between the cooperating parties works well to reach a common understanding. It is also important to recognise that resource-

intensive follow-up steps must also be realised to achieve long-term goals. However, care must be taken to communicate failure events with caution. Failure feedback, because of its ego-threatening perception, can undermine the motivation to learn and cause the actors concerned to withdraw from the ongoing process and stop contributing to the development of the social system. In a scene of action external to an organisation (OrgExtern), by contrast, the literature focuses on efforts critical of society, on companies and start-ups. When collaborating with external parties, behavioural changes can be expected if there is an experimental approach, a coherent flow of communication, process design, acceptance of feedback, and a willingness to engage beyond self-interest.

27.6 Level of Analysis Outcome

Failure results when a decision-maker does not adequately recognise the influences affecting the organisational unit, and as a consequence, fails to adjust the expectations and intended actions to improve performance even on future outcomes (Mosakowski, 1997). Failure results from a discrepancy between the outcome and the expectations associated with an action. Experiencing a discrepancy leads to disappointment about failing to perform. Critical situations in which failure occurs lead to outcomes that are shaped by the building blocks of failure along the three levels of analysis "people", "structure", and "process". The influencing factors act as risk areas, either on the state of mind of the individual and the willingness or ability of an organisational unit to act. Knowledge of possible risk areas and suitable intervention systems contributes to a map of measures to address failure situations.

The qualitative analysis continues with insights into the "outcome" of failed situations (see Table 29.2 in the Appendix) as the fourth building block of failure addressed. Table 29.10 in the Appendix provides an overview of the classified text passages extracted from

literature as evidence for the level of analysis "outcome" including indications for causality. The following presentation of the qualitative findings is divided into contributions either internal to an organisation (OrgIntern) or external to an organisation (OrgExtern), and is related to specific thematic issues (see Figure 27.1).

27.6.1 Scene of Action OrgIntern

The selected research articles provide the interested reader with a compilation of risk areas that are likely to result in failure in a scene of action internal to an organisation (OrgIntern). The literature differentiates between three groups of risk areas: acceptance, delegation, and learning orientation. In addition, the research literature distinguishes several systems for failure intervention. These systems are designed to help companies to influence their organisational structures and operations to limit the risk of failure whether before, during, or after failure. Finally, research also distinguishes between psychological characteristics and conditions that favour failure to occur.

Risk Areas: Acceptance. One first risk area relates to the acceptance of the organisation's internal client for an Operations Research (OR) activity (Rubenstein et al., 1967) as well as the end user acceptance for the use of new information technologies (Neufeld et al., 2007). Both focus on achieving acceptance for a business activity, and both have the potential to become a risk area if there is not enough response within the company, or if top management does not provide effective charismatic support. The same applies to the acceptance of the corporate philosophy of continuous improvement. In addition to management support, ethical leadership plays a crucial role in achieving and maintaining the involvement and participation of team members (Santiago Marco Perles, 2002). Santiago strongly believes that with the decentralisation thus achieved, increased capacity and flexibility to meet customer needs in a

quality-conscious manner can be achieved, which takes time and is based on trust (Krystec, 1999; Santiago Marco Perles, 2002).

Risk Areas: Delegation. Furthermore, the delegation of authority and responsibility downwards (Eilon, 1969) and the exertion of influence upwards (Schilit & Locke, 1982) cannot fully exploit its innovative potential if the room for manoeuvre is restricted too much and an incompetence of the idea supplier is attested beforehand. Both factors can lead to an impaired development of initiatives, inner dismissal, or to employees leaving the company. Applying the strategy of "praise-many, blame-fewer" (Schein et al., 2019) when assigning responsibility for success and failure seems to counteract this risk.

Risk Areas: Learning Orientation. One further risk area relates to the willingness to engage in a reasonably open search for alternatives to ensure that the concerns of all stakeholders are addressed (Nutt, 2004). This approach is supported by the insight that a calculating experimental approach in strategy development is necessary to learn about causality experimentally (Mosakowski, 1997) and through experiential learning by precise strategy implementation (Lee & Puranam, 2016). Basically, radical innovation teams need a learning orientation that values experimentation and learning from failure, thus ensuring the long-term viability of the organisation through an adaptive shared team goal orientation (Alexander & van Knippenberg, 2014). To avoid the risk of trying to sell old into new with an outcome performance measurement system, a company should distinguish between outcomes and learning goals so that truly trigger genuine innovation efforts (Melnyk et al., 2010; Winters & Latham, 1996). Intended as a recommendation, according to Alvesson and Kärreman (2016), leadership should be "de-ideologised" and especially transformational leadership (Bass, 1995) should not be overestimated in its effect. The danger is in making the leaders the chosen elite and seeing the common people as a mass that can be manipulated.

Intervention Systems. In completion, seven intervention systems deal with the early detection and reflexion of disruptive signals on the timeline of the life cycle of a company. Probst and Raisch (2005) suggest the use of an early warning system to detect the weak signals of unbalanced stabilisation and transformation drivers in the company at an early stage, even before strong, quantitatively measurable signs of failure become apparent. In analogy to the early warning system for companies emphasised by Probst and Raisch (2005), the congruence model proposed by Narayanaswamy et al. (2013) requires that the progress of an Information System Development (ISD) project be proactively and continuously monitored. Monitoring progress right from the early stages of a project helps to avoid control loss over the three dimensions people, processes, and resources, the structural component. Control loss is seen as an intermediate variable that focuses attention on coordination and motivation signals, thus complementing post-hoc project performance benchmarks, such as time, cost, and quality (Narayanaswamy et al., 2013). In a somewhat contrasting approach, Ellis and his colleagues (2006) argue for a break for reflexion and believe that after-event reviews (AER) enable organisational learning from experience and facilitates reworking the underlying knowledge structures. The AER method is understood as "a kind of guided investigation of past experience" aimed at systematically identifying the causes of both the performance process and the performance outcome (Ellis et al., 2006, p. 669). In summary, it can be stated, on the one hand, that the three monitoring systems presented so far are used either early in the process sequence or retrospectively after the event. In contrast, the following intervention systems also proposed in the research literature are more concerned with programmes aimed at identifying potential for improvement of a social unit and initiate change. These include a management evaluation framework for technical innovation as suggested by Chiesa et al. (1996), the use of quality circle programmes to improve the performance of organisational units as rec-

ommended by Steel et al. (1985), and by benchmarking the management practices against competitors as shown by Song et al. (1997) using Japanese and US companies as examples. Performance outcomes of HRM initiatives are best achieved through the use of three spheres of power as a transformative strength (Giddens, 1984; Hardy, 1996). In accordance with Sheehan and her team (2014), through their combined influence, the power of resources as an internal unit of knowledge and expertise, the power of processes as formal and informal interactions involved in decision-making, and the power of meaning as the symbolic ability to convince stakeholders of the importance of HRM initiatives helps to exert a powerful influence on change initiatives. This includes an indirect influence on the fourth sphere of power in a company by which the values of the company are determined, the power of the system (Hardy, 1996).

Traits and States. From a different perspective, psychological traits and states influence the perception and behaviour of an individual in a certain situation and must therefore be considered when coping with failure. This is generally true in situations with negative feedback for people pursuing goals, for employees working on their task, and for researchers fulfilling their academic ambitions. Failure feedback has a learning blocking effect when it is perceived as ego-threatening (Eskreis-Winkler & Fishbach, 2019). Resource depletion (Hofmann et al., 2012), amotivation defined as absence of motivation (Taylor et al., 2014), and the stuck static state into which a person psychologically falls when the unmistakable lack of fit between the person and the environment manifests itself (Wicklund & Braun, 1987) are further states where the concerned individuals perceive a lack in response to the situation. For example, if a tennis player experiences strong pressure to perform and feels increasingly inexperienced as a result, this condition can lead to a steadily deteriorating performance (Wicklund & Braun, 1987). The frequency and proximity of attempts to resist a desire, e.g.

the desire to take a break, influences the success in resisting further emerging desires due to the depleting resources (Hofmann et al., 2012). And as a further example, the lack of motivation that occurs when an individual does not feel intentionality or a sense of personal causation leads to dropping out of studies (Taylor et al., 2014). The same applies if self-regulation fails because people do not attach enough importance to the means of achieving long-term goals and are distracted by short-term temptations (Critcher & Ferguson, 2016). In addition, it seems that poor commitment to ideas and tasks as well as unwillingness to take on responsibility play a role when other-directedness (Kassarjian, 1965; Riesman et al., 1989) and the need to belong are weighted more heavily than performance motivation for a management career (Burton et al., 1976). As Ree and Carretta (1999) concluded from their analysis, lack of progression in a trainee programme is not solely due to a cognitive barrier, but is mainly the result of a decrease in motivation due to the working conditions of the targeted job.

Perceptual Implications. Finally, from the leadership perspective, different forms of reality constructions may come into play. Firstly, a group's disappointed trust may arise from the perceived non-prototypicality of its leader, which means the loss of the group's endorsement and the denial of the licence to fail (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008). Secondly, the degree of trust in the leader may result from the group-specific leadership constructions formed on the Romance of Leadership (RoL) effect (Meindl et al., 1985). These sense-making constructions of organisational reality are based on the follower-centred attribution of causality for positive, but also negative outcomes to the leader and can have a spill-over effect on other reference groups (Bligh et al., 2011). And thirdly, as demonstrated in eight laboratory experiments by Moon and her research team, the Overblown Impression Effect (OIE) leads to suboptimal decisions about the best possible impression management strategies. This happens when an actor overestimates the impact of a situational performance presentation (social per-

ception), whether negative or positive, and further expands the observer's expected evaluation (meta-perception) into an assessment of overall competence (Moon et al., 2019). Following the OIE logic, Moon and her research team were able to show with experiment five that by asking the study participants to broaden their focus of judgement, they were able to overcome the effect of the OIE. As a consequence, the prevailing mental guidelines in a top management team of a company operate as a perceptual barrier to the outside world on strategic issues, thus undermining the possibility of finding an optimal fit with the environment (Drucker, 1964, 1994; Hussey, 1984).

27.6.2 Scene of Action OrgExtern

For a scene of action external to an organisation (OrgExtern) three thematic issues are considered: external structural conditions, customer orientation, and risk areas.

External Conditions. Staw and Ross (1980) show in an inventive experimental study that the prevailing leadership stereotype in our society leads leaders to insist on a course of action once chosen and to refrain from alternatives because they can expect a better evaluation of their performance. This shared view of effective leadership operates implicitly through organisational socialisation (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) and makes it difficult for leaders to adopt an experimental approach (Campbell, 1969; Staw & Ross, 1980). Furthermore, the results of a statistical analysis of a nationally representative dataset of entrepreneurs from the US population from 2005 to 2011 clearly show that just after one year, women-led businesses have a significantly lower chance of survival than men-led businesses (Yang & del Carmen Triana, 2019). Yang and del Carmen Triana, argue that the survival of a women-led business is influenced by the effects of gender discrimination. According to role congruence theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002), women must embody two different and conflicting roles at once and

are therefore evaluated from two diametrically opposed perspectives: one that fulfils leadership expectations and one that fulfils their gender role (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001).

Customer Orientation. Customer orientation counteracts failure. A defensive or tactical focus on the customer, rather than a development-oriented approach of management, reduces the competitiveness and performance of the company (Choi & Behling, 1997). Customer orientation also determines the chances of a company assuming social responsibility beyond its corporate self-interest (Blowfield, 2005). Finally, customer orientation determines a politician's chances of success in situations where it is difficult to maintain personal control of the situation (Winter, 2010).

Risk Areas: Leadership. For an international product innovation team, the selection of an experienced project manager is essential to ensure success right from the start (Moenaert et al., 2000). This is also true for an international Joint Venture (JV) failing without the cohesive force of a top team (Li et al., 1999) and corresponds to the claim of an enterprise resource planning (ERP) project where the building of shared leadership seem optimal to contribute to a network of skills during the implementation phase (Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013). Furthermore, to sustain a comprehensive requirement analysis in information system (IS) projects it is advisable to entrust a leader with ethical values (da Silva et al., 2019). In general, responsible leadership is an inclusive concept (Pless & Maak, 2004) with an ethical and proactive quality, thus capable of connecting the internal world of the company with the external world respectfully, which increases employee satisfaction (Doh et al., 2011). For interorganisational cooperation, the active commitment of the managers involved is crucial to the cooperation process (Faerman et al., 2001). Lack of trust between cooperating parties is a limiting factor that impedes progress when intermediate outcomes provide an unfavourable starting point for the next. Faerman and her colleagues' recommendation for cooperation projects come through

clearly; this requires attentive leadership that intervenes at key moments. In addition, serial entrepreneurs should seek to achieve transformation by drawing lessons from experience with failed ventures without being tempted to change industry (Eggers & Song Lin, 2015). Finally, change in NRRES, the non-renewable resource extraction sector in Australia, needs the capacity of companies to engage. According to Harris (2007), the most important factor in driving change beyond compliance, however, is strong leadership, in addition to resources, structure, understanding, and culture.

27.6.3 Summary Building Block "Outcome"

As the analysis of the building block "outcome" in the scene action internal to an organisation (OrgIntern) shows, three risk areas have the potential to influence failure in the company. The researchers distinguish between risks of neglecting the influencing factors of acceptance, delegation, and learning orientation, all of which point to a lack of readiness to innovate. These risk areas can selectively be addressed by the management of a company in the conviction that failure can thus be averted. With an early warning system, the management of a company or start-up would be able to detect weak signals at an early stage. Weak signals contribute to the monitoring of control loss as an intermediary variable (Narayanaswamy et al., 2013) of a process progression. The monitoring of control loss thereby focuses the attention on motivation (analysis level "people"), coordination (analysis level "process") and available resources (analysis level "structure"). In the research literature, monitoring systems and intervention systems are discussed as either being used early in the process, retrospectively in the aftermath, or serving instead to identify potential for improvement in a social unit and to initiate change. In a scene of action external to an organisation (OrgExtern), the prevalence of a leadership stereotype and a lack of customer orientation reduce the chances of achieving the expected outcome. Furthermore, based on the research results, the

recommendation should be taken seriously that the implementation of a new strategy or the realisation of a large-scale IT project requires experienced project leaders from the beginning and not just random gap fillers. Large-scale projects in a company require not only careful and committed management support, but also strong leadership capable of finding ways to overcome resistance to change.

28. Discussion

This SLR is aimed at providing more knowledge about the phenomenon of failure in business. Following Feak and Swales (2009), a SLR should do two things. On the one hand, it should give an overview of the current state of research, and on the other hand, it should provide insights into the topic. In this case, the findings have implications for managerial success. Consequently, a SLR should provide knowledge about intervention criteria for coping with the phenomenon of failure. The most important result that this study can offer on failure in business is a framework structure for the evaluation of failure situations that builds on existing knowledge accumulated over the last six decades. This framework helps in identifying the influencing factors that determine failure in business. Future research on this topic can help to identify ways for social units to deal appropriately with failure situations. The following discussion is divided into four general aspects of failure: goal orientated action, learning from failure, protection against change, and Plan Analysis for failure management in business.

28.1 Goal Oriented Acting

As a systemic consequence, social systems develop dynamically and create situations in which failure or success is present. Decision makers, project leaders, subordinates as well as superiors, administrators, or politicians operate in an interacting system designed as a hierar-

chical multi-agent construct in which beliefs and actions are separated by different actors (Lee & Puranam, 2016; Mosakowski, 1997; Simon, 1962). Furthermore, Song, Souder, and Dyer (1997) recall that no plan, no matter how good, guarantees success and that failure and success go hand in hand. On closer inspection, in an evolving process a social system creates constellations in which failure can occur. This purposeful process-oriented acting is designed to effectively implement a new strategy, a reform project, information system projects, the establishment of partnerships, the development of a society, or the achievement of political results. The root of failure inevitably lies in the desire to both preserve what exists while meeting new demands, and to strive for change that is difficult to realise in the concrete situation for various reasons. These reasons can be identified on the four levels of analysis: "people", "structure", "process", and "outcome", which are located internal (OrgIntern) or external (OrgExtern) to an organisation (see Figure 27.1). This SLR focused on the extraction and aggregation of findings from 43 systematically selected research articles covering the research fields of management and psychology. After being collected and reviewed, this knowledge now forms a basis for dealing with the phenomenon of failure. It should interest the management of companies, start-ups, and venture teams internal to an organisation (Burgelman, 1983; Garrett Jr. & Neubaum, 2013; Sharma & Chrisman, 1999; Villiger et al., 2018) as a means of ensuring the quality of their innovative development, whether before, during, or after failure. To sum up, the findings from the research areas of management and psychology over six decades are bundled together and reveal a kind of swarm or collective intelligence on the topic. For this part of the discussion, three aspects are identified: a general part focusing on methodological requirements, a second part defining failure in business, and finally a part concerned with the increased interest in the research literature in studying the dynamics of failure. Firstly, the experience gained from the research literature on the EBSCO research database indicates that there is far more research on

"success" (EBSCO: 31,454 hits till February 2020) and on "failure" (EBSCO: 28,966 hits till February 2020) in business than on studies in which "failure" and "success" are considered together in the same article (EBSCO: 3,339 hits till February 2020). The aim of this SLR was to integrate the findings from the research fields of management (EBSCO, 2021) and psychology (PubPsych, n.d.) into an overall picture to holistically understand the building blocks of failure. This was done by using the search formula described in the methodology section. As a suggestion for future research, the findings that emerge from this SLR could be further reviewed and deepened for studies on "success" in business (approximately 310 qualified articles) to provide further insights by contrasting them with the building blocks of failure. In addition, to strengthen the body of knowledge on failure, research on failure is planned to explicitly shed light on start-ups and venture teams internal to an organisation. The latter are targeted by companies to create new business opportunities and have to prevail above all against the internal resistance of the established organisational units (Burgelman, 1983; Garrett Jr. & Neubaum, 2013; Katzenbach & Smith, 1993; Sharma & Chrisman, 1999; Villiger et al., 2018). Secondly, lexical analyses of the term "failure" suggest that failure refers to an unsuccessful endeavour that falls far short of expectations, or to the fact that someone proves to be powerless and incapable (Read, 2003). These two interpretations require refinement that goes beyond the description of a condition as a consequence of a negatively assessed event. This refinement is done based on the findings on failure in business that have emerged from scientific research over the last six decades, as seen in this SLR. One of the additional contributions in this SLR is showing that there is a difference between two basic attitudes towards failure. To redefine failure, two new interpretations of this phenomenon are proposed (see Table 25.1): a self-limiting definition, which is regressively oriented, and an action-guiding definition, which is progressively oriented. On the one hand, failure can induce

a proactively progressive attitude, and on the other hand, it can lead to a self-limiting and regressive attitude in the actors concerned. The findings of the content analysis of the research articles published over the last six decades lead to the notion of failure as a disruption of a transformation process aimed at achieving change. The implication is that failure is more than just an unsatisfactory performance that is assessed after completion. It is therefore critical for a company to be able to respond to disruptions as early as possible, rather than having to intervene reactively. Thirdly, the quantitative evaluation of the data material in Table 27.2 shows that there has been an increasing interest in researching the "process" level of analysis over the last two decades. Furthermore, a more profound look into the research (see Table 29.4 in the Appendix) shows that over the last two decades there has been an increasing tendency towards an integrated consideration of the levels of analysis: "process", "people", and "structure". The "outcome" level of analysis is present in all research articles. These facts allow assuming that this thread of research contributes to considering failure as related to change or improvement, and leaves behind the static analysis of failure as occurring after performance assessment. This tendency suggests therefore an increased interest in the dynamics of failure. As the content analysis of the research articles demonstrates, failure is far more than an outcome. In accordance with Portmann, "we strive for the elevation of the pure passage of time to an experienced form of time" (Portman, 1970, p. 311, translation from German). According to Volpert, the structuring of time takes place through hierarchically organised "cyclical units" that consist of a goal and a set of transformations directed towards it (Volpert, 1982). Transformations are observable patterns of movement or mental information processes that lead the individual step by step in the temporal sequence of transformations to the envisioned goal (Frey & Greif, 1983; Volpert, 1974; Zarro, 1980). Consequently, failure manifests itself during a transformation process through the behaviour of the actors

involved in a social unit. Therefore, failure is determined by the interaction between the actors involved in a social unit moving towards transformation, which is a form of time shaping in a specific environment.

28.2 Learning from Failure

For one, failure may potentially trigger self-limiting behavioural tendencies in companies. Thus, failure can prevent economic progress. The actors involved cannot adjust to the disruptive influences in the situation. Feeling "control loss" (Narayanaswamy et al., 2013) means losing the reins and no longer being able to steer along the transformation process towards the expected outcome. In contrast, the experience of failure also has the potential to open up options for change. In this case, a failure situation can activate an action-guiding attitude of the actors involved and gradually foster the ability to recognise possible signs to intervene in a situation of failure at an early stage. Recognising these signs early on opens up the possibility to influence the procedures used and to adjust to the changed perception of the outside world. This ability to detect even weak signals of disruption early on leads to strategic decisions being reconsidered and existing assumptions and organisational structures being re-examined (Hussey, 1984; Mosakowski, 1997; Nutt, 2004; Probst & Raisch, 2005). In light of the way failure is dealt with, two research findings seem to be essential. On the one hand, as Choi and Behling (1997) show in the context of the approach of Total Quality Management, a development-oriented attitude offers managers better opportunities to deal with customer requirements strategically and sustainably. On the other hand, a collaborative learning orientation of groups provides the necessary basis to flexibly advance the innovation process up to radical innovation (Alexander & van Knippenberg, 2014). Both approaches create decisive foundations in dealing with failure situations. To realise both incremental innovations and

radically new innovative approaches and products, it is not only necessary to determine goals, but also to establish behavioural strategies aligned with them (Alexander & van Knippenberg, 2014; Ellis et al., 2006; Hussey, 1984; Melnyk et al., 2010; Song et al., 1997). Crucially, the outcomes of the initial implementation efforts are linked to the next in the course of progress development (Critcher & Ferguson, 2016; Eggers & Song Lin, 2015; Faerman et al., 2001; Narayanaswamy et al., 2013; Staw & Ross, 1980), so that it is possible to move iteratively from one stage of learning to a stage of performance demonstration without becoming disengaged by failed efforts (Lee & Puranam, 2016; Mosakowski, 1997; Nutt, 2004). Following the theoretical elaborations in the introductory section, the willingness to seek a balance between harmonising and discrepancy-forming tendencies thus promotes rethinking processes (Dimock, 1986). In other words: it promotes learning from failure.

28.3 Protection against Change

Some behaviours identified in the body of research reveal an interesting link to the self-limiting pathological role of failure (Colman, 2009, pp. 275, 278). Alongside this psychoanalytically underpinned interpretation of self-limitation, the self-limiting definition of failure (see Table 25.1) reflects an actor's tendency to adopt a self-protective attitude when confronted with the threatening effect of failure. Failure consequently means operational and structural disruption of a social unit that acts as a threat and triggers defensive behaviour. Two examples from literature illustrate this self-limiting attitude. Firstly, a decision-maker who escalates his commitment to a course of action and thus becomes entangled in a failed programme (Staw & Ross, 1980) is dominated by a stereotype of behavioural persistence that defines persistence as a desirable decision-making strategy. Secondly, achievement-motivated politicians can become authoritarian and persistently adhere to a misguided course of action if

they feel control loss resulting in a refusal to provide feedback and consider alternative courses of action (Narayanaswamy et al., 2013; Nutt, 2004; Winter, 2010). Failure has therefore a learning barrier effect due to its self-threatening impact (Eskreis-Winkler & Fishbach, 2019). Following the theoretical elaborations in the introductory section, defended arguments and positions can become a quality of the self, and even the prospect of losing this quality can cause a threat to the self (Beggan, 1992; De Dreu & van Knippenberg, 2005). In other words, it promotes protection against change (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll et al., 2018).

28.4 Plan Analysis for Failure Management in Business

To deepen the body of knowledge regarding failure in business, the next step is to develop an analytical approach to failure management. In dealing with the SLR results (Denyer & Tranfield, 2009; Tranfield et al., 2003), a practicable way by providing an approach to managing failure in companies is proposed. When designing the innovation-friendly company, innovative leverage can be achieved by using Caspar's (Caspar, 2018a) Plan Analysis approach. This approach enables the management of failure situations by identifying the underlying motivational structures behind the self-limiting behavioural tendencies in a company. It helps to recognise the need for adjustment based on the underlying motivational structures and to identify change initiatives with the aim of achieving an action-guiding attitude in the organisation to support creativity and innovative performance. The Plan Analysis approach helps to identify the state of trust relationships in an organisation. Since trust relationships are the prerequisite for creative performance and thus for innovation, trust acts as a catalyst for behavioural change. The Plan Analysis approach can be used to identify signals that characterise the quality of the corporate culture and corporate communication, thus promotes a re-thinking of existing structures and processes. Through open corporate communication, the

concerns of the employees involved in daily tasks and problem-solving are respected. Firstly, the open exchange of ideas enables change and adaption to new requirements. Secondly, an organisational structure only becomes controllable through trust-based relationship structures and open communication. In other words, the Plan Analysis approach promotes the discovery of perceptual boundaries, learning barriers and shortcomings in the implementation of strategic decisions. The Plan Analysis approach supports the elaboration of change initiatives.

29. Conclusions

The increased interest in studying the "process" level of analysis with "people" and "structure" over the last two decades indicates the desire for a more in-depth understanding of the internal and external mechanisms that influence the performance of organisational units with their members accomplishing tasks. To illustrate this: An apple has no way of influencing its destiny. If it is not protected from attack by insects in time, it risks falling rotten to the ground. A passenger ship, on the other hand, can be steered by its captain and crew to reach its destination without complications. In this respect, the Titanic venture failed (ZDF-History, 2020). The experts' analysis shows that a multitude of overblown interpretations (level of analysis "people") neglected facts (level of analysis "structure") and undefined safety measures (level of analysis "process") influenced the fate of the endeavour. Some of these circumstances already occurred before the launch, with the consequences of later complications. It can be assumed that with a greater emphasis on learning in addition to the prevalent performance orientation in the preliminary stages and still during the crossing, the Titanic could have escaped its fate if the unshakeable conviction in society and the shipping company of the unsinkability of the largest and most modern passenger liner in the world had been questioned. In consequence, failure must be observed on a timeline that structures failure into

pre- and post-phases. Failure progresses from a phase of latency and uncertainty to a phase of virulence and certainty about the seriousness of a failure situation. In consideration of this fact, the qualitative analysis in this SLR reveals two different approaches to dealing with failure. On the one hand, the research literature identifies selective risk areas that have the potential to become the scene of failure. The prevailing belief in literature is that failure situations could be averted through early interventions. On the other hand, it is suggested that intervention systems take on a monitoring role to prevent or minimise the consequences of failure. From this perspective, it is crucial that management and leadership in companies and start-ups play a decisive role in developing sufficient sensitivity to failure situations. In summary, all reported research contributions, listed in Table 29.1 and Table 29.4 in the Appendix, contain a rich source of evidence for a holistic understanding of failure in business. The conceptual basis of future research consists of four levels of analysis and two scenes of action. As a conclusion, what is needed is a system for simulating the intertwined conditions of failure that could help future managers, but also established actors in companies, reflect on and review their behaviour. This fictional system is aimed at strengthening the quality of management and leadership in dealing with failure so that appropriate measures can be initiated at an early stage in the interests of innovative performance. As already propagated by Yukl (2009), an improvement can be achieved by providing specific simulation software for education and training. Training and education also can be achieved by using the Plan Analysis approach (Caspar, 2018a) to reflect the motivational structures and Plans of leaders interacting in a social unit to support new behavioural strategies. Complexity cannot be reduced with tips and tricks alone. The proposal for future research addresses the challenge posed by the following question: What role does failure to innovate play in the struggle for economic survival?

Appendix A

Table 29.1 Overview of the Selected Articles and Journals

#	Search Portal	Source	Journal Country	Source Abbr.	ISO 4 NEU	Source Abbr.	Ranking SJR	SJR Value ≥1.99 28.02.202	Ranking JQR3	Year	Author
1	EBSCO	Management Science	USA	Manag. Sci.	MS	Q1	SJR 6.08	A+	1967	Rubenstein, Radnor, Baker, Heiman, and McColly	
2	EBSCO	Journal of Management Studies	UK	J. Manag. Stud.	JMS	Q1	SJR 3.14	A	1969	Eilon	
3	EBSCO	Journal of Management	USA	J. Manag.	JOM	Q1	SJR 7.94	A	1976	Burton, Pathak, and Zigli	
4	EBSCO	Journal of Applied Psychology	USA	J. Appl. Psychol.	JAP	Q1	SJR 6.09	A	1980	Staw and Ross	
5	EBSCO	Administrative Science Quarterly	USA	Adm. Sci. Q.	ASQ	Q1	SJR 13.52	A+	1982	Schilit and Locke	
6	EBSCO	Long Range Planning	UK	Long Range Plann.	LRP	Q1	SJR 3.85	B	1984	Hussey	
7	EBSCO	Journal of Management	USA	J. Manag.	JOM	Q1	SJR 7.94	A	1985	Steel, Mento, Dilla, Ovalle, and Lloyd	
8	PubPsych	Journal of Personality and Social Psychology	USA	J. Pers. Soc. Psychol.	JPSP	Q1	SJR 5.03	0	1987	Wicklund and Braun	
9	EBSCO	Journal of Product Innovation Management	UK	J. Prod. Innov. Manag.	JPIM	Q1	SJR 2.97	A	1996	Chiesa, Coughian, and Voss	
10	EBSCO	Academy of Management Perspectives	USA	Acad. Manag. Perspect.	AMP	Q1	SJR 3.35	0	1997	Choi and Behling	
11	EBSCO	Organization Science	USA	Organ. Sci.	OS	Q1	SJR 6.55	A+	1997	Mosakowski	

#	Search Portal	Source (continued)	Journal Country	Source Abbr. ISO 4 NEU	Source Abbr.	Ranking SJR	SJR Value >1.99 28.02.202	Ranking JQR3	Year	Author
12	EBSCO	Journal of Product Innovation Management	UK	J. Prod. Innov. Manag.	JPIM	Q1	SJR 2.97	A	1997	Song, Souder, and Dyer
13	EBSCO	Journal of World Business	USA	J. World Bus.	JWB	Q1	SJR 3.61	B	1999	Li, Xin, Tsui, and Hambrick
14	EBSCO	Journal of Business & Psychology	USA	J. Bus. Psychol.	JPB	Q1	SJR 2.70	B	1999	Ree and Carretta
15	EBSCO	Journal of Product Innovation Management	UK	J. Prod. Innov. Manag.	JPIM	Q1	SJR 2.97	A	2000	Moenaert, Caeldries, Lievens, and Wauters
16	EBSCO	Organization Science	USA	Organ. Sci.	OS	Q1	SJR 6.55	A+	2001	Faerman, McCaffrey, and Van Slyke
17	EBSCO	Journal of Business Ethics	NE	J. Bus. Ethics	JBE	Q1	SJR 2.21	B	2002	Santiago Marco Perles
18	EBSCO	Academy of Management Perspectives	USA	Acad. Manag. Perspect.	AMP	Q1	SJR 3.35	0	2004	Nutt
19	EBSCO	International Affairs	UK	Int. Aff.	IA	Q1	SJR 2.4	0	2005	Blowfield
20	EBSCO	Academy of Management Perspectives	USA	Acad. Manag. Perspect.	AMP	Q1	SJR 3.35	0	2005	Probst and Raisch
21	PubPsych	Journal of Applied Psychology	USA	J. Appl. Psychol.	JAP	Q1	SJR 6.09	A	2006	Ellis, Mendel, and Nir
22	EBSCO	Business Strategy and the Environment	UK	Bus. Strategy Environ.	BSE	Q1	SJR 2.12	B	2007	Harris
23	EBSCO	European Journal of Information Systems	UK	Eur. J. Inf. Syst.	EJIS	Q1	SJR 2.04	A	2007	Neufeld, Dong, and Higgins
24	EBSCO	Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes	USA	Organ. Behav. Hum. Decis. Process.	OBHDP	Q1	SJR 2.74	A	2008	Giessner and van Knippenberg
25	EBSCO	Long Range Planning	UK	Long Range Plann.	LRP	Q1	SJR 3.85	B	2010	Melnyk, Hanson, and Calantone
26	PubPsych	Journal of Personality	UK	J. Pers.	JP	Q1	SJR 2.51	0	2010	Winter

#	Search Portal	Source (continued)	Journal Country	Source Abbr. ISO 4 NEU	Source Abbr.	Ranking SJR	SJR Value >1.99 28.02.202	Ranking JQR3	Year	Author
27	EBSCO	The Leadership Quarterly	USA	Leadersh. Q.	LQ	Q1	SJR 3.19	A	2011	Bligh, Kohles, and Pillai
28	EBSCO	Journal of Business Ethics	NLD	J. Bus. Ethics	JBE	Q1	SJR 2.21	B	2011	Doh, Stumpf, and Tymon
29	PubPsych	Psychological Science	USA	Psychol. Sci.	PS	Q1	SRJ 4.12	0	2012	Hofmann, Vohs, and Baumeister
30	EBSCO	Human Resource Management Review	UK	Hum. Resour. Manag. Rev.	HRMR	Q1	SJR 2.55	B	2013	Hoch and Dulebohn
31	EBSCO	Journal of Management Information Systems	USA	J. Manag. Inf. Syst.	JMIS	Q1	SJR 2.39	A	2013	Narayanaswamy, Grover, and Henry
32	EBSCO	Academy of Management Review (AMR)	USA	Acad. Manag. Rev.	AMR	Q1	SJR 9.32	A+	2014	Alexander and van Knippenberg
33	EBSCO	Human Resource Management Review	UK	Hum. Resour. Manag. Rev.	HRMR	Q1	SJR 2.44	B	2014	Sheehan, De Cieri, Cooper, and Brooks
34	PubPsych	Contemporary Educational Psychology	USA	Contemp. Educ. Psychol.	CEP	Q1	SJR 2.34	0	2014	Taylor, Jungert, Mageau, Schattke, Dedic, Rosenfield, and Koestner
35	EBSCO	Academy of Management Journal (AMJ)	USA	Acad. Manag. J.	AMJ	Q1	SJR 10.76	A+	2015	Eggers and Lin Song
36	EBSCO	Journal of Management Inquiry	USA	J. Manag. Inq.	JMI	Q1	SJR 2.32	B	2016	Alvesson and Kärreman
37	PubPsych	Journal of Personality and Social Psychology	USA	J. Pers. Soc. Psychol.	JPSP	Q1	SJR 5.03	0	2016	Critchier and Ferguson
38	EBSCO	Strategic Management Journal	UK	Strateg. Manag. J.	SMJ	Q1	SJR 8.84	A	2016	Lee and Puranam
39	EBSCO	Journal of Business Research	USA	J. Bus. Res.	JBR	Q1	SJR 2.05	B	2019	da Silva, Jeronimo, and Vieira
40	PubPsych	Psychological Science	USA	Psychol. Sci.	PS	Q1	SJR 4.12	0	2019	Eskreis-Winkler and Fishbach
41	PubPsych	Journal of Personality and Social Psychology	USA	J. Pers. Soc. Psychol.	JPSP	Q1	SJR 5.03	0	2019	Moon, Gan, and Critcher

#	Search Portal	Source (continued)	Journal Country	Source Abbr. ISO 4 NEU	Source Abbr.	Ranking SJR	SJR Value >1.99 28.02.202	Ranking JQR3	Year	Author
42	PubPsych	Journal of Experimental Psychology: General	USA	J. Exp. Psychol. Gen.	JEP: General	Q1	SJR 3.09	0	2019	Schein, Jackson, Frasca, and Gray
43	EBSCO	Journal of Management	USA	J. Manag.	JOM	Q1	SJR 7.94	A	2019	Yang and del Carmen Triana

Table 29.2 Inductive Category Building

	Category	Definition
I	Scene of Action	Scene of action where failure occurs
1	OrgIntern	Scene of action in a context of an internal organisation
2	OrgExtern	Scene of action in a context of a cross-organisation relationship with external parties
II	Level of Analysis	Dimensions of the focal points of interest
1	Level of analysis people	The human being in the focus of interest
		The level of analysis "people" focuses on the human being as an actor in a social system. The relationships between the members or exponents of a social system with the internal and external environment are influenced by the formative elements of a social structure with the given communication processes in a given reality. Trust, beliefs, and motivation are influencing factors regarding "people" as a building block of failure.
2	Level of analysis structure	The structural situation in the focus of interest
		The level of analysis "structure" focuses on the structural conditions within which interaction between the actors involved take place. The formative elements of a situation determine the social structure of a given reality in which people interact and whereby new structural and individual states emerge. Corporate culture, management and leadership, strategic orientation, and the availability of resources are influencing factors regarding "structure" as a building block of failure.
3	Level of analysis process	The process in the focus of interest
		The level of analysis "process" focuses on the implementation of patterns of action by the members of a social system that contribute to securing the expected outcomes in a given reality. This is influenced by the given formative elements of the organisation under consideration and by the relationships between the members of an organisation in their respective environments. Feedback is an influencing factor regarding "process" as a building block of failure.
4	Level of analysis outcome	Consequences of failure interpreted as a result
		Critical situations in which failure occur lead to outcomes that are influenced by the building blocks of failure on the three levels of analysis "people", "structure", and "process". The influencing factors act as risk areas, either impacting the emotional state of the individual and the willingness or ability of an organisational unit to act. Knowledge of potential risk areas and suitable intervention systems contributes to a map of measures to address "outcome" as a building block of failure.
III	Failure Situation	
2	Action object	Main subject of the action
3	Action outcome	Main outcome of the action
4	Action unit	Relationship between actors in failure situations
5	Actor	Key person to whom failure is assigned
IV	Failure Focus	
1	Main focus	Interest behind specific research of failure
2	Definition failure	Conceptualisation of failure
3	Time-related process development	Time frames for failure development
4	Approach to overcome failure	Type of procedures for failure management
5	Approach theory to overcome failure	Suggested theory behind failure management

	Category (continued)	Definition
V	Expectations and Causality	
1	Expectations situation	Expectations regarding the outcome of the selected behavioural approach in a specific situation
2	Causality failure	Causal understanding of the reasons for failure perceived from the perspective of the actor
VI	Leadership and Failure Management	
1	Leadership	The significance of leadership in failure management
2	Learning process	Learning purpose
3	Innovation	Innovative purpose
VII	Measurement	
1	Measurement of variables	Measurement criteria for failure
2	Variables	

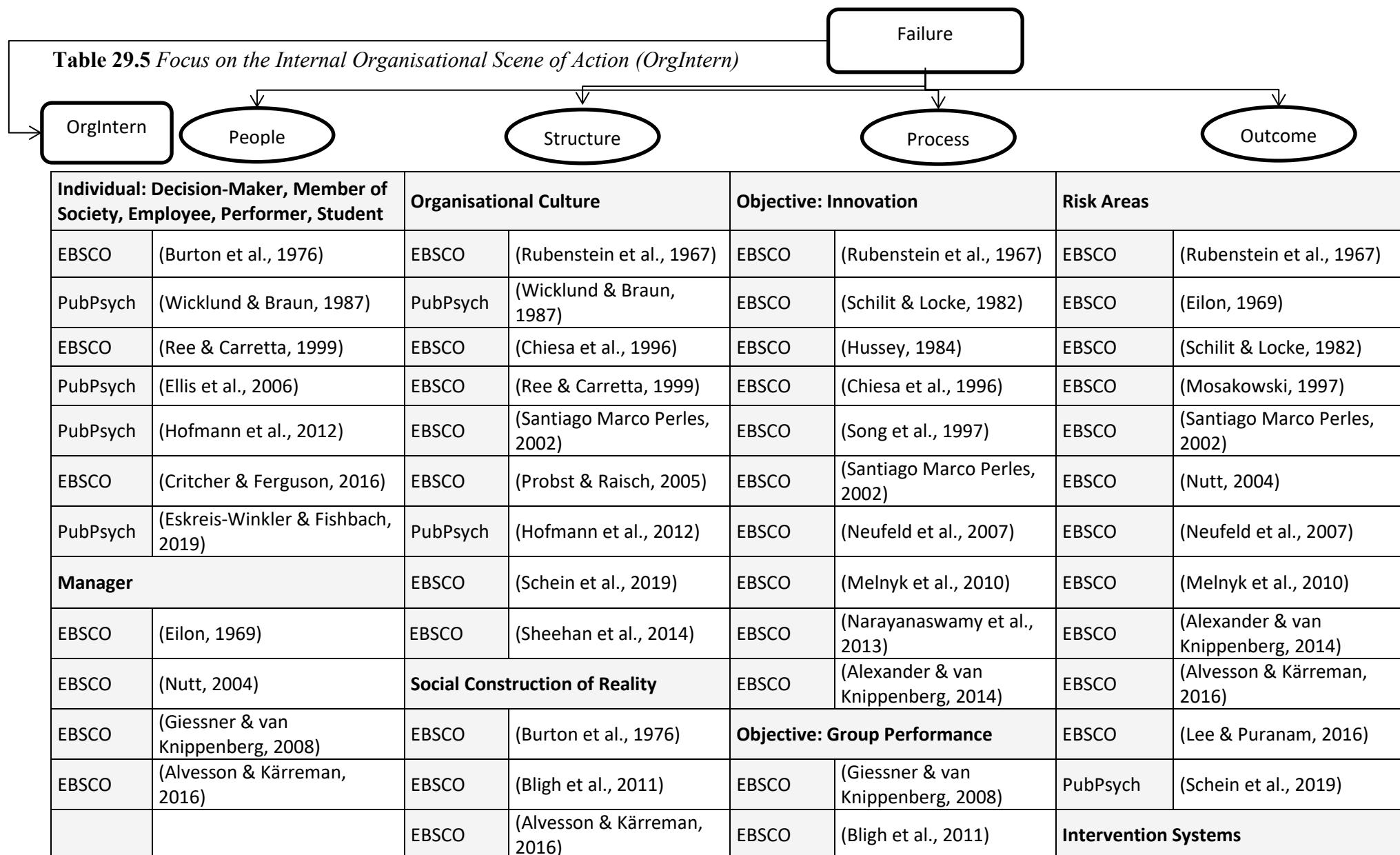
Table 29.3 *Keyword Search on EBSCO-Platform*

Keyword	Number of Matches	Publication Year from	Publication Year to
advantages or benefits	14	1992	2017
anticipation	0	-	-
attitudes or beliefs or perceptions	11	1976	2019
attribution theory in social psychology	1	1982	1982
blunders	1	2004	2004
business communication	13	1982	2015
business ethics	6	2002	2011
Business Process Reengineering	1	2002	2002
challenges or barriers or difficulties	12	1967	2019
change management	26	1983	2017
co-leadership	1	2002	2002
collaborative leadership	5	2001	2016
competition in business	1	2001	2001
contribution	4	2005	2019
corporate culture or organizational culture	15	2002	2014
corporate social responsibility	3	2005	2011
creativity	1	2007	2007
deception	0	-	-
decision making process	7	1969	2011
disappointment	0	-	-
effectiveness	5	1967	2015
employee	35	1967	2019
empowerment	7	1969	2011
expectations	8	1999	2017
experiences or perceptions or attitudes or views	19	1976	2016
fall	4	1994	2010
fall prevention	0	-	-
goals and objectives	3	2004	2015
goals and motivation	1	2014	2014
goals or objectives	13	1995	2017
identification	2	1992	2003
impacts or effects or consequences	18	1985	2019
improvement	9	1992	2017
information	5	2007	2015
innovation	19	1983	2018
innovation and entrepreneurship	1	2018	2018
interaction or communication	13	1982	2015
international	12	1997	2018
interpersonal	2	1976	2006
interpersonal skills	1	2006	2006
interprofessional collaboration	1	2015	2015
intervention	3	1969	2014

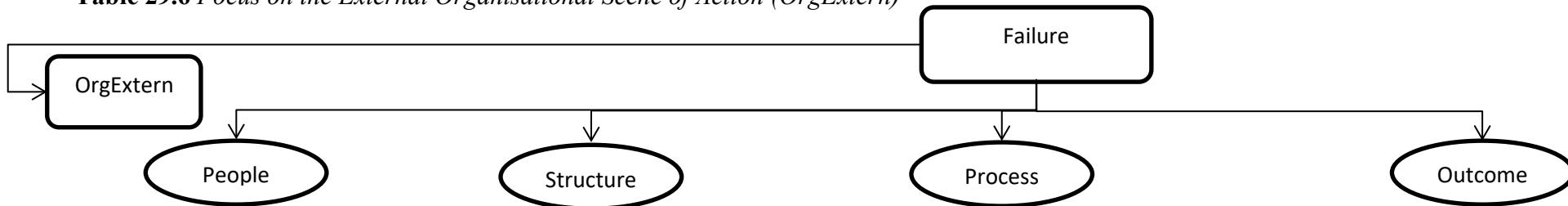
Keyword (continued)	Number of Matches	Publication Year from	Publication Year to
knowledge	9	2004	2016
loss	2	2013	2015
misconceptions	0	-	-
misfortune	1	2014	2014
misjudgement / miscarriage / mistakes / mismanagement	0	-	-
motivation	4	1999	29019
motivation theory in workplace	1	2014	2014
project management	12	1967	2017
Total Quality Management	14	1967	2017
risk factors	3	2001	2014
shared governance	10	1985	2019
shared value	2	2006	2013
strategic planning	12	1982	2016
strategy	20	1983	2019
training	6	1985	2019
transformational leadership	2	2009	2016
trust	2	2002	2015
venture	7	1992	2019
venture teams	3	1999	2019
vision	2	2013	2015
well-being or wellbeing or well being	3	1967	2016

Table 29.4 Levels of Analysis Covered by a Single Article

People	Process	Structure	People and Structure	Structure and Process	Process and People	People, Process, and Structure	
	OrgIntern	OrgIntern	OrgIntern	OrgIntern	OrgIntern	OrgIntern	OrgExtern
(Mosakowski, 1997)	(Steel et al., 1985)	(Eilon, 1969)	(Rubenstein et al., 1967)	(Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008)	(Schilit & Locke, 1982)	(Staw & Ross, 1980)	
(Neufeld et al., 2007)	OrgExtern	(Burton et al., 1976)	(Chiesa et al., 1996)	(Alexander & van Knippenberg, 2014)	(Hussey, 1984)	(Li et al., 1999)	
	(Choi & Behling, 1997)	(Ree & Carretta, 1999)	(Song et al., 1997)	(Taylor et al., 2014)	(Wicklund & Braun, 1987)	(Faerman et al., 2001)	
	(Yang & del Carmen Triana, 2019)	(Probst & Raisch, 2005)	(Narayanaswamy et al., 2013)	(Critcher & Ferguson, 2016)	(Santiago Marco Perles, 2002)	(Blowfield, 2005)	
		(Alvesson & Kärreman, 2016)	(Lee & Puranam, 2016)	(Eskreis-Winkler & Fishbach, 2019)	(Nutt, 2004)	(Harris, 2007)	
			OrgExtern	(Moon et al., 2019)	(Ellis et al., 2006)	(Winter, 2010)	
			(Moenaert et al., 2000)	OrgExtern	(Melnyk et al., 2010)	(Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013)	
			(Doh et al., 2011)	(Eggers & Song Lin, 2015)	(Bligh et al., 2011)	(da Silva et al., 2019)	
					(Hofmann et al., 2012)		
					(Sheehan et al., 2014)		
					(Schein et al., 2019)		



Mutual Relationships (continued)		Management Support		EBSCO	(Sheehan et al., 2014)	EBSCO	(Steel et al., 1985)
EBSCO	(Schilit & Locke, 1982)	EBSCO	(Eilon, 1969)	EBSCO	(Lee & Puranam, 2016)	EBSCO	(Chiesa et al., 1996)
EBSCO	(Bligh et al., 2011)	EBSCO	(Schilit & Locke, 1982)	PubPsych	(Schein et al., 2019)	EBSCO	(Song et al., 1997)
PubPsych	(Taylor et al., 2014)	EBSCO	(Hussey, 1984)	Performer, Decision-Maker		EBSCO	(Probst & Raisch, 2005)
EBSCO	(Moon et al., 2019)	EBSCO	(Steel et al., 1985)	PubPsych	(Wicklund & Braun, 1987)	PubPsych	(Ellis et al., 2006)
PubPsych	(Schein et al., 2019)	EBSCO	(Song et al., 1997)	EBSCO	(Mosakowski, 1997)	EBSCO	(Narayanaswamy et al., 2013)
Group / Company		EBSCO	(Nutt, 2004)	EBSCO	(Nutt, 2004)	EBSCO	(Sheehan et al., 2014)
EBSCO	(Hussey, 1984)	PubPsych	(Ellis et al., 2006)	Psychological Consequences		Traits and States	
EBSCO	(Santiago Marco Perles, 2002)	EBSCO	(Melnyk et al., 2010)	PubPsych	(Ellis et al., 2006)	EBSCO	(Burton et al., 1976)
EBSCO	(Probst & Raisch, 2005)	EBSCO	(Narayanaswamy et al., 2013)	PubPsych	(Hofmann et al., 2012)	PubPsych	(Wicklund & Braun, 1987)
EBSCO	(Melnyk et al., 2010)	EBSCO	(Lee & Puranam, 2016)	PubPsych	(Taylor et al., 2014)	EBSCO	(Ree & Carretta, 1999)
EBSCO	(Alexander & van Knippenberg, 2014)			PubPsych	(Critcher & Ferguson, 2016)	PubPsych	(Hofmann et al., 2012)
EBSCO	(Sheehan et al., 2014)			PubPsych	(Eskreis-Winkler & Fishbach, 2019)	PubPsych	(Taylor et al., 2014)
				PubPsych	(Moon et al., 2019)	PubPsych	(Critcher & Ferguson, 2016)
						PubPsych	(Eskreis-Winkler & Fishbach, 2019)
						Perceptual Implications	
						EBSCO	(Hussey, 1984)
						EBSCO	(Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008)
						EBSCO	(Bligh et al., 2011)
						PubPsych	(Moon et al., 2019)

Table 29.6 Focus on the External Organisational Scene of Action (*OrgExtern*)

Manager: Administrator, Political Leader, Serial Entrepreneur		Beliefs, Standards, and Norms		Objectives: Behavioural Change (Reform, Project, Cooperation, Society, Venture, Politics)		External Conditions	
EBSCO	(Staw & Ross, 1980)	EBSCO	(Staw & Ross, 1980)	EBSCO	(Staw & Ross, 1980)	EBSCO	(Staw & Ross, 1980)
PubPsych	(Winter, 2010)	EBSCO	(Choi & Behling, 1997)	EBSCO	(Li et al., 1999)	EBSCO	((Yang & del Carmen Triana, 2019))
EBSCO	(Eggers & Song Lin, 2015)	EBSCO	(Li et al., 1999)	EBSCO	(Moenaert et al., 2000)	Customer Orientation	
EBSCO	(da Silva et al., 2019)	EBSCO	(Moenaert et al., 2000)	EBSCO	(Faerman et al., 2001)	EBSCO	(Choi & Behling, 1997)
Cooperation, Society		EBSCO	(Harris, 2007)	EBSCO	(Blowfield, 2005)	EBSCO	(Blowfield, 2005)
EBSCO	(Li et al., 1999)	EBSCO	(Doh et al., 2011)	EBSCO	(Harris, 2007)	EBSCO	(Harris, 2007)
EBSCO	(Faerman et al., 2001)	EBSCO	(Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013)	PubPsych	(Winter, 2010)	PubPsych	(Winter, 2010)
EBSCO	(Blowfield, 2005)	EBSCO	(da Silva et al., 2019)	EBSCO	(Doh et al., 2011)	Risk Areas	
EBSCO	(Harris, 2007)	EBSCO	(Yang & del Carmen Triana, 2019)	EBSCO	(Eggers & Song Lin, 2015)	EBSCO	(Li et al., 1999)
EBSCO	(Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013)	Motives		EBSCO	(Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013)	EBSCO	(Moenaert et al., 2000)
		EBSCO	(Faerman et al., 2001)	EBSCO	(da Silva et al., 2019)	EBSCO	(Faerman et al., 2001)
		EBSCO	(Blowfield, 2005)			EBSCO	(Doh et al., 2011)
		PubPsych	(Winter, 2010)			EBSCO	(Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013)
						EBSCO	(Eggers & Song Lin, 2015)
						EBSCO	(da Silva et al., 2019)

Table 29.7 Overview Level of Analysis "People"

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgIntern Level of Analysis People	Actor	Object of Action
Individual: Decision-Makers, Member of Society, Employee, Performer, Student			
(Burton et al., 1976)	Poor management talent with low inner-directed character (p. 51)	Students in future management roles	Managerial career potential
(Wicklund & Braun, 1987)	Experienced and inexperienced: In short, bringing oneself to think in terms of one's own potential ("Am I creative?" etc.) would interfere directly with the dynamic fit between person and environment; thus performance would falter (p. 374). > threat-to-identity > psychological state (p. 378)	Performer, decision-maker	Performance behaviour
(Ree & Carretta, 1999)	There were no notable differences in ability between those who successfully completed training and those who failed to complete training for non-academic reasons. We speculate that the non-academic attritees [eliminees p. 165, drop out] failed to complete training for what might be termed "lack of motivation." (p. 170)	Trainee	Test
(Ellis et al., 2006)	Failure oriented after event review: The FAER may evoke high fear of invalidity and make learners feel less confident in their current knowledge (p. 677)	Decision-maker	Market share
(Hofmann et al., 2012)	Self-regulatory resources are nonspecific and suggest that resource depletion primarily affects people's ability, rather than motivation, to engage in self-control (pp. 585-586)	Individual as a member of the society	Desire regulation
(Critcher & Ferguson, 2016)	People's rapidly and spontaneously activated (implicit) goal-relevant cognitions about the importance of the means leading to valued end-states are a critical part of the explanation for whether they succeed (pp. 818, 835)	People	Achieve the valued end-state
(Eskreis-Winkler & Fishbach, 2019)	Because people find failure ego threatening, they will disengage from the experience, which means they stop paying attention (p. 1734)	Employee or researcher	The task at hand, the experiment

Source	Relevant Concepts Org Intern Level of Analysis People	Actor	Object of Action
Manager			
(Eilon, 1969)	Lack of delegation from one echelon of management to a lower echelon without possibility to develop meaningful initiatives (p. 181)	Higher management echelon	Delegation of authority and responsibility
(Nutt, 2004)	Ignorance of how to carry out an innovative search (p. 20)	Decision-maker	Strategy
(Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008)	Inability of a leader to maintain follower endorsement after failing to achieve a (minimal) goal important to the group (p. 14)	Members of a group	Follower endorsement
(Alvesson & Kärreman, 2016)	Leadership is, within the leadership ideology, viewed as crucial, also in cases where the extreme hero-worshipping is avoided (p. 143)	Researcher	Research on Transformational Leadership
Mutual Relationships			
(Schilit & Locke, 1982)	Discrepancies between supervisors' and subordinates' perceptions of causality intended to protect the self-esteem (p. 314)	Subordinate	Upward-influence attempt
(Bligh et al., 2011)	The infatuation with leadership (romance of leadership) giving insight into follower motivations (needs, mind-sets, anxieties)" (p. 1061), poor organisational performance as a threat to the credibility of top leadership (p. 1063) RoL as a social constructionist approach interpreting leadership as a process of social inference, that takes into account the symbolic role of managers and the sense-making processes of their followers (p. 1062)	Follower	Leadership relationship
(Taylor et al., 2014)	... promote school achievement by maintaining this intrinsic motivation through the support of students' basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness by teachers ... (p. 356)	Teacher	Academic achievement
(Moon et al., 2019)	The overblown implications effect (OIE) arises because observers' actual working trait definitions are broader —encompassing more than the specific performance domain— than actors assume. People show systematic biases in understanding the impressions their performances leave on others (pp. 1, 3)	Actor anticipating observers evaluation	Performance behaviour
(Schein et al., 2019)	Given that people often perceive their own wrongdoings as relatively less blameworthy than other's misdeeds (...), it is likely that even deserved blame might feel undeserved, increasing resentment and decreasing commitment (p. 2)	Decision-maker	Retention of the group members, continuous improvement

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgIntern Level of Analysis People	Actor	Object of Action
Group / Company			
(Hussey, 1984)	Processes which consist solely of cold analysis will lead to plans that do not get implemented: those which are all participation and no analysis lead to misdirected plans which quite probably will be implemented, to the detriment of the organization. ...Planning must give attention to objective analysis and human behaviour. ... The process must also give weight to human behavioural issues, such as motivation, power structures, fear, creativity and the like (p. 45)	Top management board room	Corporate planning
(Santiago Marco Perles, 2002)	However, we cannot forget that the activities of continuous improvement demand a substantial effort and large doses of personal commitment. For this, the individual must be convinced that what is being done is good for him/her and for others, and be confident that the fruits of the improvement will be fairly distributed (p. 64)	Company exercising management and leadership functions	TQM
(Probst & Raisch, 2005)	Lack of trust between the employees and supervisors due to internal competition (pp. 93–94, 102)	Board of directors	Survival of a company on the market
(Melnyk et al., 2010)	At the higher levels, responses were driven mostly by what we may call agency issues. The questions raised were typically: 'Is this good for the company? (as in: Will it work?)', 'Is this good for me?' and 'Will I be rewarded for complying, even if it doesn't work perfectly?' Since compensation at these levels of the organisation is significantly influenced by incentives, the role of the SPMS [strategic performance measurement system] is instrumental in answering the last question (p. 569)	Top management team	Radical product innovation
(Alexander & van Knippenberg, 2014)	Performance avoid orientation in contrast to shared learning orientation (p. 426)	Radical Innovator	Innovation project
(Sheehan et al., 2014)	From the interviews, it emerged that the HRM function's lack of power 'over' money and physical resources detracted from its capacity to influence (p. 199)	Human resources function	HRM initiatives

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgExtern Level of Analysis People	Actor	Object of Action
Manager: Administrator, Political Leader, Serial Entrepreneur			
(Staw & Ross, 1980)	Incapability of acting in an experimental manner (p. 250)	Administrator as decision-maker	Social reform project
(Harris, 2007)	For workers at all levels in the corporation, congruence between corporate documents such as media releases, annual reports and internal directives and senior management's personal actions emphasizes the role each individual has in converting the talk about the concepts and principles of ecological sustainability into concrete actions: ...(p. 545) non-renewable resource extractive corporations in Australia	Leadership	Corporate engagement in ecological sustainability
(Winter, 2010)	People high in implicit achievement motivation function best when they have (or feel) personal control over the situation. When that sense of control is constrained, blocked, or frustrated (...) achievement motivation tends to take on a latent "authoritarian shadow"(p. 1759) threats of loss of control tend to increases authoritarian behaviors (p. 1760)	Political leader	Respond to the frustrations of political life
(Eggers & Song Lin, 2015)	External attribution of reasons for a failed venture, blame external factors that are beyond their control (pp. 1787–1788)	Serial entrepreneur	Subsequent venture
(da Silva et al., 2019)	Studies find that different competencies are critical during various project phases (Russo et al., 2005; Skulmoski & Hartman, 2010) (p. 690) Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) develop a leadership competencies framework that comprises 15 dimensions in three categories of quotients: intellectual (IQ), managerial (MQ), and emotional (EQ). This framework emphasizes the skills and characteristics that a leader needs to develop (p. 690)	Project manager	Information system requirements

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgExtern Level of Analysis People	Actor	Object of Action
Cooperation, Society			
(Li et al., 1999)	A strong, distinct JV leadership team identity can supersede other bases for the managers' social identity, functional background or parent company affiliation (p. 65)	Joint Venture Leadership Teams in China	International Joint Ventures
(Faerman et al., 2001)	Lack of trust between the parties (p. 376)	Organisations involved	Inter-organisational cooperation
(Blowfield, 2005)	Discrimination against the rights of the poor and marginalised in favour of business development (p. 515)	Company	Corporate Social Responsibility
(Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013)	Structural supports: includes perceived team support, reward, and information (p. 118) First perceived team support [PTS] is an extension of perceived organizational support (POS), which is based on the notion of reciprocal attachment and posits that employees form a general perception regarding the extent to which their organization is committed to them and values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986) (p. 118)	Implementation team supporting shared leadership by team members	Implementation of an enterprise resource planning system (ERP)

Table 29.8 Overview Level of Analysis "Structure"

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgIntern Level of Analysis Structure	Leadership
Organisational Culture		
(Rubenstein et al., 1967)	Insufficient organizational response of an Operations Research / Management Science (OR/MS) group activity (p. 508)	The level of managerial support, client receptivity, organizational and technical capability of an OR/MS group, (i. e., the type and quality of its personnel and leadership), the organizational location, group reputation, the relevance of projects performed, and other variables are noted as being significant in determining effectiveness (p. 508)
(Wicklund & Braun, 1987)	An increased felt pressure should manifest itself in increased thinking about potential, given that there is an absence of dynamic fit to the relevant environment (p. 376)	The actor's concern with human potential (dispositions, attitudes, personality traits, roles, values) is rather a reflection of a breakdown of the behavior-environment relation (p. 373)
(Chiesa et al., 1996)	Lack of an innovation supporting climate with resource provision, systems and tools, and leadership creating a climate that encourages and supports innovation and entrepreneurship (p. 131)	Central to leadership is creating a climate that encourages and supports innovation and entrepreneurship (p. 131)
(Ree & Carretta, 1999)	... and set higher standards for selection. This may help in many cases, but sometimes is not fruitful. The following is an example of a training attrition situation where a valid predictor exists, is in place, but cannot be expected to reduce attrition [drop out] (p.165)	Because selection was by appointment or voluntary and because no test score minimums existed, senior managers sought a solution in the setting of standards for a valid selection composite (p. 166)
(Santiago Marco Perles, 2002)	Multidimensional concept of leadership: In a few words, the reasons impelling people to follow a leader can be synthesised in three dimensions which I have called "technical, psycho-affective, and ethical". (p. 65) A trust that may rest on the three aspects of reality to which I have referred: technical, psycho-affective and ethical. (p. 61)	The key to answering this question lies in the terrain of "trust". Three dimensions of leadership: Technical dimension (know how, skill), psycho-affective dimension (attractive climate), ethical dimension (moral correctness of behaviour) (p. 61)

Source	Relevant Concepts Org Intern Level of Analysis Structure	Leadership
Organisational Culture (continued)		
(Probst & Raisch, 2005)	Inability of the company to cope with external change (p. 98)	Empirical studies have shown that a healthy balance between CEO and board powers is required to ensure effective company performance and for effective checks and balances in corporate governance (p. 99)
(Hofmann et al., 2012)	A social system that allows people to have a lot of desires, instead of refusing them signifies to have more training in resisting them but also to be less vulnerable to the effects of resource depletion (pp. 585–587)	Resisting the desire to work when it conflicts with other goals, such as socialising or leisure activities, may be difficult because work can define people's identities, dictate many aspects of daily life, and invoke penalties if important duties are shirked (p. 587)
(Schein et al., 2019)	Not only does widespread blame create toxic "blame cultures" it also cultivates suboptimal performance over time (p. 12)	The model suggest broad praise is optimal over time and that managers should fight the urge to blame broadly after a loss (p. 12)
(Sheehan et al., 2014)	Theoretically, we establish that HRM [human resources management] professionals working within the HRM function can effectively draw from the first three dimensions of power identified by Hardy (1996) [power of resources, processes, and meaning] as the dimensions of power that have the capacity to modify systems that inhibit new behaviour (p. 207)	The devolution of much of the HRM function's authority to other organisational stakeholders, and the interactions of HRM professional with top management team (TMT) executives and line managers who now take shared responsibility for the uptake of HRM initiatives, is more consistent with power 'to' create rather than power connected with coercion (p. 194)
Social Construction of Reality		
(Burton et al., 1976)	Cultural change in social ethic: belief in belongingness as an ultimate personal need (p. 47)	Accounting, banking, general business, health administration and business education majors appear to be a poor source of managerial talent (p. 47)
(Bligh et al., 2011)	Individual differences regarding leadership perceptions (romance of leadership) are not just random variance, but the result of group members defining their own organizational reality developing constructions of leadership (p.1069)	When presented with extreme positive or negative outcomes of an organizational event, observers across three experiments were more likely to attribute causality to the leader of the organization than to equally likely alternative sources (i.e., followers and external causes) (p. 1062)

Source	Relevant Concepts Org Intern Level of Analysis Structure	Leadership
Social Construction of Reality (continued)		
(Alvesson & Kärreman, 2016)	We always are told things such as "a leader is responsible for direction, protection, orientation, managing conflict and shaping norms" (Heifetz & Laurie, 1997, p. 127). This may sound uncontroversial, but the statement implies that others are not responsible for, and in need of, direction, protection, orientation, and so on (Blom & Alvesson, 2014) (p. 143)	Most of the popular leadership ideas assume the existence of the sole leader forming a stable and robust entity with fixed traits and skills operating on others being shaped and improved as a function of the leader's essence being put into operation (p. 141)
Management Support		
(Eilon, 1969)	If there is no delegation from one echelon of management to a lower echelon, then the latter is completely constrained; it cannot exercise any discretion (p. 181)	If complete delegation is practised, the function and the very existence of the higher level may be put into question (p. 181)
(Schilit & Locke, 1982)	Rejection of a proposed new policy (p. 313)	Subordinates and supervisors report different causes of failure (p. 304) > take credit for success and blame others for failure in order to avoid threats to self-esteem > attribution bias as an ego-defensiveness bias
(Hussey, 1984)	Failure to create a climate in the company which is congenial and not resistant to planning (p. 45). Injecting so much formality into the system of corporate planning that it lacks of flexibility and restrains creativity (p. 45)	We must never forget that corporate planning stands or falls on the twin pillars of the analytical and the behavioural. The real ability to change the perceptual boundaries of a strategic problem, or even to recognize that they exist, must come from managers themselves, if better strategies are to result (p. 52)
(Steel et al., 1985)	This nurturing includes genuine management support in the form of open and willing response to valid group proposals, in addition to the provision of tangible resources for program maintenance (e.g., employment of a competent, fulltime organizational facilitator). Also, these programs require extensive training for both leaders and members (p. 117)	QCs [quality circles] are a fragile process, and they will not thrive unless the proper nurturing is provided (p. 117)

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgIntern Level of Analysis Structure	Leadership
Management Support (continued)		
(Song et al., 1997)	Lack of long-term oriented top management support in the strategic development of new products (pp. 92, 97, 99)	Japanese firm feel strongly that top management should demonstrate its support by getting involved in new product projects from the beginning, as well as by granting authority to the project manager (p. 96)
(Nutt, 2004)	Insufficient readiness to invest in information gathering (p. 21) Decision-makers see innovation as risky and limit its use (p. 20)	Decision-makers sometimes rush to judgment, apply failure-prone decision-making practices, and make poor use of their decision-making resources (p. 14)
(Ellis et al., 2006)	After event reviews (AERs) intensifies cognitive elaboration of experiential data and promotes the necessary behavioral changes (p. 669)	An after event review or(AER) is a kind of guided investigation of past experience that directs decision-maker leading an organization to understand the specific causes of successes or failures in order to improve the performance of the company (p. 669)
(Melnyk et al., 2010)	The SPMS [strategic performance measurement system] does not operate in isolation, but must be accompanied by a supporting structure of capabilities and beliefs that dictate how things are to be done. In static conditions, this structure does not need to be specified, but strategic shifts such as the one observed require a shift to a more process-focused set of measures (p. 572)	These executives felt the need for something to fall back on in case innovation failed to produce measurable benefits (p. 570)
(Narayanaswamy et al., 2013)	Lack of an adaptive/flexible leadership style harmonizing values, obtaining cooperation, and motivating collective learning (pp. 196, 192, 213)	Distortion in communicating expectations lead to control loss along the three dimensions: people, processes, and resources (pp. 193, 197)
(Lee & Puranam, 2016)	Insufficient adaption of the organization's strategy based on performance feedback (p. 1530)	Belief about the appropriate strategy for the organization at a point in time, and a subordinate, the manager updates beliefs about the value of the strategy based on feedback about organizational performance (p. 1530)
Source	Relevant Concepts OrgExtern Level of Analysis Structure	Leadership
Beliefs, Standards, and Norms		
(Staw & Ross, 1980)	New norms for behavior may need to be established to make experimentation a desirable (p. 259)	The experimenting administrator would be one who tries one program, and if it does not work, discards that program for another alternative (p. 251)

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgExtern Level of Analysis Structure	Leadership
Beliefs, Standards, and Norms (continued)		
(Choi & Behling, 1997)	Lack of a forward-looking strategy in the company's philosophy striving to "be a world-class supplier" (pp. 40, 42)	Assessing top managers' orientations toward time, market, and customers affect the nature of their firms' TQM programs (p. 37)
(Li et al., 1999)	When assigning managers to the joint venture, parent firms often consider their technical and business acumen and availability, rather than their ability to work in a cross-cultural setting that is inherently ripe for conflict and stereotyping (p. 62)	Leadership refers to the style and behavior of the person in setting goals and the agenda for the joint venture and his/her ability to develop the team and the culture of the venture (p. 54) He or she must also have superb skills in diplomacy, cross-cultural understanding, and communications (p. 66)
(Moenaert et al., 2000)	Lack of capabilities at company and team level, including the assignment of a qualified team leader for international innovation projects (pp. 361, 367–371)	Companies often select the most available person, rather than the best person for the job, the allocation of light weight project leaders may create heavyweight problems in international teams (p. 361)
(Harris, 2007)	It contributes to a substantive explanation of NRRES [non-renewable resource extractive sector in Australia] corporate capacity for engagement, comprising the five internal factors of leadership, resources, structures, understanding and culture (p. 550)	... leadership is identified as the most critical factor in capacity for engagement (pp. 543–544)
(Doh et al., 2011)	Being perceived [a company] as exhibiting a stakeholder culture, having fair and egalitarian HR [human resources] practices, and having leaders who are good role models and support the development and success of their employees were significant and meaningful correlates of intention to leave and turnover ... (p. 96)	Responsible leadership includes the firm having: (1) a stakeholder culture which supports acting in an ethical and social responsible manner; (2) HR practices that are fair and inclusive of all employees; and, (3) managerial support for the development and success of employees (p. 86)

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgExtern Level of Analysis Structure	Leadership
Beliefs, Standards, and Norms (continued)		
(Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013)	The leadership of teams: This is particularly true regarding IS project teams composed of highly skilled employees and knowledgeable workers, whose tasks are complex and highly interdependent, and who are required to engage in a high level of coordination and able to integrate and share their knowledge and expertise (Faraj & Sambamurthy, 2006; Faraj & Sproull, 2000) (p. 117)	Shared team leadership describes a collective team leadership by the team members and is characterized by collaborative decision-making and shared responsibility for outcomes (p. 116)
(da Silva et al., 2019)	The literature demonstrates that appropriate leadership depends on several factors, namely the project itself (Müller & Turner, 2007), the tasks' complexity and structure, the maturity and knowledge of the team members (Faraj & Sambamurthy, 2006), and gender stereotypes (Brescoll, 2016; Pinto, Patanakul, & Pinto, 2017) (p. 690)	Leaders are responsible for creating an environment that emphasizes teamwork and that fosters a spirit of cohesion, motivation, and trust (PMI, 2017) (p. 688) Emotional maturity represents the second most important factor for project success (The Standish Group International, 2015) (p. 688)
(Yang & del Carmen Triana, 2019)	Persistence of gender-specific beliefs that disadvantage women: women's disadvantages in leading their businesses may be perpetuated by gender beliefs that discount women's leadership (p. 926)	The research questions focus on entrepreneurial teams, including both mixed-sex and same-sex teams and the effects of leadership on business survival (p. 935)
Motives		
(Faerman et al., 2001)	Inhibition of cooperation due to initial dispositions of the parties involved as an important part of the structure of the system (pp. 377–378)	Successful cooperation shows leaders actively managing the cooperative process, particularly in its early stages and during trying moments (p. 377)
(Blowfield, 2005)	Precedence of business self-interest over wider societal interests (p. 524)	Both business management mindsets and business investors' prerogatives have significantly influenced the interpretation and practice of corporate social responsibility (CSR) (p. 524)
(Winter, 2010)	The achievement motive predicts entrepreneurial success in business, in politics it does not predict success and may even predict failure (p. 1638)	Politics vs Business: achievement-motivated presidents: all involve avoidance of feedback, whereas use of feedback is one of the major characteristics of achievement-motivated people in business (p. 1641)

Table 29.9 Overview Level of Analysis "Process"

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgIntern Level of Analysis Process	Process Segmentation
Objective: Innovation		
(Rubenstein et al., 1967)	Insufficiently functioning reinforcing feedback system in the life history of an Operations Research / Management Science (OR/MS) group activity (p. 514)	Four stages or phases representing milestones in the life history of an OR/MS activity (p. 512): 1 Pre-Birth, 2 Introductory, 3 Transitional 4 Maturity, 5 Death These stages are qualitatively distinct, act as a parameter in determining the conditions for the activity (p. 511)
(Schilit & Locke, 1982)	Lack of upward influence for an organizational change due to the attribution of incompetence and stubborn rational counter-arguments (p. 305)	Subordinates and supervisors agreed that the adoption of a new policy and an increase in productivity were the most common outcomes of successful attempts at upward influence. Unsuccessful experiences had no effect on the organization's productivity, supervisors and subordinates agreed on the outcomes from both successful and unsuccessful attempts (p. 312)
(Hussey, 1984)	One of the main roles of the planning process must be to challenge the perceptual boundaries within which top management makes its strategic decisions (p. 45)	Evolution of planning thought: 1) basic financial planning --> operational control 2) forecast-based planning --> growth and prediction future 3) Externally oriented planning --> increased responsiveness 4) Strategic management --> manage all resources to create competitive advantage and trying to create the future (p. 45)
(Chiesa et al., 1996)	Technical innovation audit: insufficient management support of the processes (concept generation, product development, process innovation, and technology acquisition) through enabling processes: deployment of human and financial resources, effective use of appropriate systems and tools, and senior management leadership and direction to sustain technical innovation performance (p. 105)	Measures of speed include time to market (from concept to launch) and time taken for the various stages: concept, design, initial production, launch (p. 114-115) Identification of customer problems is an essential starting point for successful concept development (p. 128)

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgIntern Level of Analysis Process	Process Segmentation
Objective: Innovation (continued)		
(Song et al., 1997)	New Product Development Project: Insufficiently developed need-relevant marketing and technical proficiency for ensuring efficient product quality (pp. 88, 90, 91)	Marketing proficiency refers to the four developmental stages of exploration, concept development, market development and market start-up. Technical proficiency refers to the four developmental stages of prototype development, prototype testing, manufacturing start-up, and technical services (p. 90)
(Santiago Marco Perles, 2002)	A manager who is a leader is committed to the process of change, but a committed manager does not have to be a leader (p. 60)	Concept of leadership: delimiting the role to be played by managers during the process of implantation (p. 60)
(Neufeld et al., 2007)	Reference to the unified theory of acceptance and use of technology UTAUT: low end-user acceptance of IT due to difficulty in assimilating innovation during early stages (initiation and adoption) and later stages (adaptation, acceptance, routinization, and infusion) without charismatic leadership influence (pp. 498, 500, 505)	Top-management support for an innovation may facilitate assimilation in both early stages (initiation and adoption) and later stages (adaptation, acceptance, routinization, and infusion) (p. 498)
(Melnyk et al., 2010)	The importance of cost reduction and incremental improvement had become taken for granted at Homebuilder [fictive name of the company in the case study], and they were seen as the right and appropriate way to proceed. (p. 570)	Implementing a new strategy such as radical innovation required challenging this sense of what was right and, as we found, it was not yet accepted as the right way to proceed (p. 570)
(Narayanaswamy et al., 2013)	Information system development (ISD): Control loss over people, processes, resources in ISD projects (p. 218)	Control loss contrasting the continuous adaptation to the rapidly changing project environment understood as an intermediary slippages with respect to people, processes, and resources in dyadic relationships (p. 193)

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgIntern Level of Analysis Process	Process Segmentation
Objective: Innovation (continued)		
(Alexander & van Knippenberg, 2014)	Inability to dynamically switch between learning orientation during idea development and performance prove orientation during idea promotion for radical innovation (p.433)	External communication behaviors associated with two critical tasks in the innovation process: idea development and idea promotion (p. 427) Identification of the roles of ambidextrous leadership and reflexive team processes in achieving goal orientation: shifts as important factors in radical innovation success (p. 423) Team goal orientation is malleable and influenced by salient cues in the team context, induce a shared psychological state with adaptive shifts in team goal orientation: switch between learning and performance prove orientation (p. 432)
Objective: Group Performance		
(Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008)	Denial of the "license to fail" to a non-prototype leader after failing to achieve an minimal goal (p. 30)	Group prototypical (vs. non-prototypical) leaders are proposed to receive more trust in leadership and, therefore, to be evaluated as more effective by their followers after failing to achieve a maximal goal, but not after failing to achieve a minimal goal. (p. 14)
(Bligh et al., 2011)	Romancing leadership: leadership perceptions as a result of group members defining their own organizational reality, and developing constructions of leadership (p. 1069)	After attributing the performance to the leader, team members come to form expectations about team outcomes from those attributions — and hence may be more or less willing to trust the leader. In this way, past successes engender perceptions of efficacy and trust in a team's leader (p. 1066)
(Sheehan et al., 2014)	... and a number of respondents noted the importance of the general quality of information exchange and collaborative behaviour among members of the TMT [top management Team] in promoting HRM's [human resources management] informal involvement. The ease of communication and overall integration within the team allowed all members, and especially HRM, the opportunity to forward their priorities (p. 201)	Instead, Giddens treats power in terms of transformative capacity, that is, the capability of actors to 'make a difference' or intervene in a course of events (p. 194)

Source	Relevant Concepts Org Intern Level of Analysis Process	Process Segmentation
Objective: Group Performance (continued)		
(Lee & Puranam, 2016)	Imperfect communication of the strategy and observation of the implementation (p. 1534)	These efforts are in direct contravention of the official strategy and represent a failure of strategy implementation. Yet, it is now well documented that such deviations from strategy can be beneficial to the firm (Augsdorfer, 2005) (p. 1531)
(Schein et al., 2019)	A praise-many, blame-fewer strategy should be more effective at improving group performance over time (p. 3)	Improvement of group performance over time (p.3)
Performer, Decision-Maker		
(Wicklund & Braun, 1987)	In the static condition, the person feels that something should or must be done but cannot act ... and, as a result, comes to think in terms of the human potential that would be appropriate for that performance setting (p. 374) Whereas those who are highly competent with an ideal fit between the person's behavioral repertoire and the environmental demands (labeled a dynamic fit) should ..., if anything, focus more on the task at hand (pp. 373, 377)	Increased felt pressure should manifest itself in increased thinking about potential, given that there is an absence of dynamic fit to the relevant environment. (p. 376) In the event that you occasional think about the traits of a good tennis player, when do you do this? Before playing: / While playing: / After playing: / During my free time (p. 377)
(Mosakowski, 1997)	Inability of the decision-makers to discern the causal structure cause, lack of experimental spirit (pp. 414, 426)	Firms are learning about causality through experimentation: strategy making as a process in which firms take a series of "baby steps" in response to causal ambiguity (p. 426, 437) Ambiguity is defined as an intermediate state between ignorance (no distributions are ruled out) and risk (all but one are ruled out) (p. 415)
(Nutt, 2004)	Limitation of the search for alternatives leads to a reduced range of ideas with a narrow arena of action (p. 13)	Troublesome signals, indicating a decline in sales after a long period of sales growth ..., suggest both distribution and saturation concerns (p. 23)
Psychological Consequences		
(Ellis et al., 2006)	Learning from experience: Feedback in after event reviews (AERs) concentrates not only on performance outcomes but also and especially on the process of task performance (p. 669)	This process of chaining backward from the to-be-explained event to its causes relies on perceptual principles of causal attribution such as temporal order, temporal and spatial continuity, and similarity (p. 670)

Source	Relevant Concepts Org Internal Level of Analysis Process	Process Segmentation
Psychological Consequences (continued)		
(Hofmann et al., 2012)	<p>Desire, conflict, and resistance are frequent and pervasive features of daily life (p. 587)</p> <p>Extrapolating from our findings, we conclude that the average adult spends approximately 8 hours per day feeling desires, 3 hours resisting them, and half an hour yielding to previously resisted ones (p. 587)</p>	<p>Whereas most resistance attempts are successful, a significant minority of attempts at self-control do fail, depending on the kind of desire people attempt to control and on people's self-control history over the course of the day (p. 587)</p>
(Taylor et al., 2014)	<p>Reciprocal relationship: achievement may have influenced students' perceptions of their academic competence at T1, which then may have led to more intrinsic motivation and less introjected and external regulation at T2 (p. 355)</p>	<p>Prior achievement was associated with later intrinsic motivation over time: perceptions of the academic competence at T1 and T2 have an influence on the self-determination and the development of motivation on a continuum of relative autonomy (pp. 434, 355)</p>
(Critcher & Ferguson, 2016)	<p>A critical factor for whether people succeed in enacting difficult means is their assessment of the means' importance for reaching the end-state (p. 819)</p> <p>It is necessary to create a dividing line to differentiate between the near-term behaviors and activities that often require self-control to enact and the rewarding, highly desirable outcomes that are what follow from effective enactment of those means as end-states (p. 820)</p>	<p>In contrast with the motivating pleasure of the end-state, the pathways that lead to those desired end-states are often difficult and relatively unpleasant. That is, there often exists a long chain of means and end-states such that one link's end-state is the next link's means (pp. 819, 820)</p>
(Eskreis-Winkler & Fishbach, 2019)	<p>Failure feedback undermined learning motivation because it was ego threatening: It caused participants to tune out and stop processing information (p. 1740)</p>	<p>Tuning out from a pursuit in the moment of failure could be the first step in a chain reaction that distances and discourages people from the goal they are pursuing (p. 1740)</p>
(Moon et al., 2019)	<p>Impression management: people aim not merely to passively estimate but also to actively manage others' impressions. When people's meta-perceptions are inaccurate, they may make suboptimal decisions about how best to invest in further impression management (p. 21)</p>	<p>Actors overflow performances' implications even in prospect, before there are experienced successes or failures on which to ruminate (p. 1)</p> <p>Observers' working trait definitions may not be as dominated by the performance behavior as actors anticipate (p. 2)</p>

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgExtern Level of Analysis Process	Process Segmentation
Objective: Behavioural Change (Reform, Project, Cooperation, Society, Venture, Politics)		
(Staw & Ross, 1980)	Lack of experimenting approach to problem solving for social reforms in administrative setting leading to the commitment to consistently continue on the course taken (pp. 249, 251, 254)	Campbell (1967, 1969, 1977) has argued persuasively for "an experimenting society" in which governmental programs would be routinely monitored and evaluated so as to improve the delivery of human services on a continuing basis (p. 249)
(Li et al., 1999)	Instead of carving out distinct, tightly-bounded managerial assignments, interdependence should be created, so that managers must work together to solve problems. (p. 63)	JV [joint venture] top managers must develop the skills to anticipate and observe signs of process breakdown (p. 64)
(Moenaert et al., 2000)	Insufficient efficient and effective cohesiveness of the communication flows for decision making during the early stages of the international innovation project (pp. 366, 371, 374)	The success of an innovation project depends on the effectiveness of the new product development activities during the early phase of the project life-cycle, the major source of problems concerns the non-involvement of relevant units and individuals during the product specification and strategy formulation activities (p. 371) Because the initiation of an international innovation project is often characterized by a high level of ambiguity, the development of a transparent communication network often proves to be problematic, this phase of the product innovation life-cycle as the 'fuzzy front end' (p.364) In an international innovation context, procedural justice is very important in the planning phase (p. 371)

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgExtern Level of Analysis Process	Process Segmentation
Objective: Behavioural Change (Reform, Project, Cooperation, Society, Venture, Politics) (continued)		
(Faerman et al., 2001)	Unsatisfying design of the procedures for behaviour regulation of financial innovation in a public-private cooperation (p. 381)	<p>It also suggests that one needs to understand cooperation as a process in which outcomes at one period set the stage for the next (p. 382)</p> <p>In general, initial dispositions toward cooperation at Time T0 favor or inhibit cooperation. In the ensuing Time T1, how leaders frame and handle choices, and the extant issues and incentives, interact with these initial dispositions, cooperative success in T1 helps build a foundation for cooperation in T2 (pp. 381–383)</p> <p>Case studies of successful cooperation show leaders actively managing the cooperative process, particularly in its early stages and during trying moments (p. 377)</p> <p>How these relationships develop in one period sets the stage for the next cycle of action in T2, the outcomes in one period set the stage for the next (pp. 383–384)</p>
(Blowfield, 2005)	Insufficient willingness of the business community to redefine development and good business practices in order to guarantee their CSR in relation to society at large (p. 518)	Overlooking the consequences of the norms of business influencing our thinking (p. 524)
(Harris, 2007)	The element of translation relates to how understanding of the concepts and principles of ecological sustainability translates into extent of its incorporation into corporate structures and operations (p. 548)	To progress the process of planetary sustainability requires significant contributions and action by governments, the public or consumers and corporations (p. 539)
(Winter, 2010)	High levels of authority combined with no sense of personal control over the situation: Politics often becomes an unhappy series of frustrations: Sensing failure, they [political leaders] redouble their efforts to assert a control that they do not actually have, often resulting in authoritarian shortcuts to the political process (pp. 1643, 1652, 1656)	Politics as a sequence of: sensing failure, frustration, attempts at control, and failure (p. 1643)

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgExtern Level of Analysis Process	Process Segmentation
Objective: Behavioural Change (Reform, Project, Cooperation, Society, Venture, Politics) (continued)		
(Doh et al., 2011)	...we view leadership as a process of inclusion to attain group, organizational, and societal goals (p. 86)	One interpretation of this finding is that companies that are high on responsible leadership will only get the full benefit of it in terms of employee retention if their actions are perceived by employees as meaningful ("high" based on our measures). In order for this to be accomplished, employers must successfully communicate and demonstrate their values and actions to employees. These values and actions are reinforced by employee pride and satisfaction with the organization in predicting both intention to leave and turnover (p. 96)
(Eggers & Song Lin, 2015)	Inability of a serial entrepreneur to step back after failure in order to make sense and learn from experience (pp. 1786–1787)	Planning a subsequent business in a sequence of decisions made in the context of entrepreneurial perceptions of prior outcomes (p. 1787)
(Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013)	a common notion is that this [shared] leadership approach represents a group or team process (p. 116)	As complex systems, implementing ERPs is a complicated and lengthy endeavor often taking years to accomplish (p. 115)
(da Silva et al., 2019)	Further, the requirements phase involves several activities that need a trustable and efficient communication channel in order to achieve consensus (Procaccino et al., 2005) in a male-dominated context (p. 690)	Requirements phase as the major causes of project failure involves early activities in the IS (Information System) project's life cycle (p. 689)

Table 29.10 Overview Level of Analysis "Outcome"

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgIntern Level of Analysis Outcome	Causality
Risk Areas: Acceptance		
(Rubenstein et al., 1967)	Client acceptance: Reduced acceptance by the clients due to unfavourable project results of an OR/MS group activity (p. 517)	Organizational factors influencing success or failure of innovative activities (p. 508) During the early stages, a contribution to operations that is significant in the opinion of both management and clients may serve to improve the reputation of the activity, increase the general perception of the activity's success, and raise the perceived level of managerial support (p. 511) Thus, the activity progresses or regresses through the various phases (p. 513)
(Santiago Marco Perles, 2002)	However, despite the wide diffusion of TQM, the success rate of this type of initiative is limited and the results, heterogeneous (p. 59)	This paper articulates reasons that justify the need of leadership for a successful implantation of TQM. (p. 65) Commitment of the managers means that they will make sufficient allocation of resources and will support – using their power – those who develop the project. (p. 60)
(Neufeld et al., 2007)	End-user acceptance: Lack of end-user acceptance for information technology due to insufficiently charismatic project managers (p. 505) due to difficulty in assimilating innovation during early stages (initiation and adoption) and later stages (adaptation, acceptance, routinization, and infusion) without charismatic leadership influence (pp. 498, 500, 505)	Relevance and importance of leadership to IT implementation outcomes (p. 506). Users who perceived that their project champion demonstrated inspirational motivation and idealized influence behaviours expressed higher levels of performance expectancy (i.e., perceived usefulness), effort expectancy (i.e., perceived ease of use), social influence (i.e., perceived norms), and facilitating conditions (i.e., perceived support) (p. 505)
Risk Areas: Delegation		
(Eilon, 1969)	Delegation of authority and responsibility: Impaired development of initiatives by lack of delegation (p. 181)	And because each echelon prescribes narrower constraints to the lower echelon, the room for manoeuvre and the degree of discretion that the lower echelon can exercise diminish accordingly (p. 189)
(Schilit & Locke, 1982)	Upward influence: Inability to influence the adoption of a new policy, inability to influence higher productivity (p. 312)	Subordinates attributed their failure to their supervisors' closed-mindedness, and supervisors attributed it to the subordinates' lack of competence (p. 312) (Ross et al., 1977) has referred to this attribution bias as an ego-defensiveness bias (p. 306)

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgIntern Level of Analysis Outcome	Causality
Risk Areas: Delegation (continued)		
(Schein et al., 2019)	Apportionment of responsibility : The praise-many, blame-fewer strategy allowed groups to retain high-skill members over time and build highly performing teams (p. 11)	It is difficult to marshal causal evidence for many culturally functional individual behaviors; we find only that a praise-many, blame-fewer strategy is frequently used and is functional over generations (p. 13) The precise maximally functional level of blame and praise hinges on whether individuals learn from blame and the level of insight into individual skill (p. 12)
(Mosakowski, 1997)	Learning from experimentation: Weakness in developing and updating a causal map in strategy making (pp. 415, 438) by impaired ability of a manager to recognize and possibly adjust control variables that might improve his firm's performance (p. 416)	Without well-developed causal understanding, identifying organizational factors that can be changed for strategic ends may be futile (p. 415) A causal structure might be understood as the transformation of inputs to outcomes. The ability to rule out distributions of future outcomes will increase the more one knows of the causal structure and inputs to that structure (p. 415)
(Nutt, 2004)	Search for alternatives: Insufficient search for alternative solutions to problems caused by deficiencies / blunders (pp. 13, 14) Decision-makers and subordinates attempting to come up with new ideas seem to be unaware of how to conduct an innovative search (p. 20)	The major impact of these blunders is that they make it impossible to carry out an adequate search for alternative solutions to problems (p 14) Blunders arise when decision-makers rush to judgment, use failure-prone practices, and allocate time and money unwisely (p. 13) To generate a pool of ideas, expand the alternatives search by finding an appropriate arena of action, using broad objectives and searching from several perspectives (p. 28) 1 expand the arena of action > key stakeholders 2 clarity of objectives > arena with broadest possible scope 3 multiple perspectives > uncover options > balancing the perspectives (organizational, personal, technical) 4 add innovative options (p. 13)

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgIntern Level of Analysis Outcome	Causality
Risk Areas: Delegation (continued)		
(Melnyk et al., 2010)	<p>However, radical innovation (the desired result) had been replaced by incremental innovation (p. 555). The SPMS [strategic performance measurement system] does not operate in isolation, but must be accompanied by a supporting structure of capabilities and beliefs that dictate how things are to be done. ... require a shift to a more process-focused set of measures. Failing to do so can result in what we observed: hitting the target, but missing the point (p. 572)</p>	<p>The metrics communicated the ‘what’ (the new goals) but they failed to communicate the ‘how’ (that a new approach was necessary). (p. 568)</p> <p>In these circumstances, failure [Unterlassung] to specify precisely how things are to be done is basically license for people to continue doing what they have done before, while attempting to make it look like a different result (p. 571)</p>
(Alexander & van Knippenberg, 2014)	<p>Shared team goal orientation: Inability to ensure concerted efforts by the whole team in radical innovation (p. 426)</p>	<p>Team goal orientations are a key element in radical innovation because they influence both goal choice and behavioral strategies in goal pursuit (p. 424)</p>
(Alvesson & Kärreman, 2016)	<p>The seductive power of TFL [transformational leadership], within LS [leadership studies] as well as business and society as a whole, in combination with the eagerness to move out of the disappointment of the field in the 1980s have lead [sic] to the acceptance and celebration of poor scholarship on a broad scale (p. 146)</p>	<p>TFL [transformational leadership]: What it is and why It is problematic? (pp. 140–141)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Incoherent Constructs, 2 Arbitrary Exclusion, 3 Leader-Centricism, 4 Denial/Minimization of Social Setting, 5 Disregard for Social Dynamics, 6 Tautology in Description and Explanation
(Lee & Puranam, 2016)	<p>Precise strategy implementation: Impairment of experiential learning due to imprecise strategy implementation (pp. 1529, 1534, 1543)</p>	<p>Precision of strategy implementation is defined as the extent to which an organization’s actions correspond to its strategic intentions (p. 1529) Imprecise implementation makes it difficult to learn from it, as neither success nor failure necessarily says anything about the value of the strategy (p. 1529)</p>

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgIntern Level of Analysis Outcome	Causality
Intervention Systems		
(Steel et al., 1985)	<p>Quality Circle program: Disillusionment of management when expectations (performance enhancement, tangible benefits) were not realized by the QC program (p. 116)</p> <p>QC intervention procedures are focuses on the analysis and correction of quality and productivity problems (p. 117)</p>	<p>Different time length as a maturity factor > maintenance organization 13 month > hospital facility 7 month (p. 116)</p> <p>leaders in the maintenance organization were trained and assisted (p. 116)</p> <p>a number of obstacles hampered the full development of the program in the hospital group: resignation of the organization's QC facilitators, inadequate training of QC leaders, uneven support from middle, and upper level of management (p. 116)</p>
(Chiesa et al., 1996)	<p>Audit for technical innovation management:</p> <p>Poor leadership impairs continuous improvement, the development of new ideas and the willingness to take risks (p. 131)</p> <p>The technical innovation audit methodology is based on a process model of technical innovation. The model addresses the managerial processes and the organizational mechanisms through which innovation is performed (p. 105)</p>	<p>Based on the EFQM philosophy, innovation is related to good practice in the relevant management processes (p. 105) four innovation-specific processes: concept creation, product development, process innovation and technology acquisition (p. 105)</p> <p>three enabling processes: human and financial resources, the effective use of appropriate systems and tools, and senior management leadership and direction (p. 105)</p> <p>Good-to-excellent results in major areas with evidence that results are caused by active management of innovation (p. 135)</p> <p>An important cause of failure has been identified as the absence of a perceived customer need (p. 128)</p>
(Song et al., 1997)	<p>Benchmarking the competition:</p> <p>Incapacity of the firm to accurately assess its own capability for a NPD Project (p. 99)</p> <p>Reluctance of the firm to devote enough resources to the monitoring system (p. 99)</p> <p>By benchmarking the competition, a firm can gain insight into best practices into new product development (p. 88)</p>	<p>Causal model [structural equation model (SEM)] to test antecedent factors impacting success and failure performance of 65 Japanese new products (p. 89)</p> <p>The proposed model identifies five factors that lead to marketing and technical proficiency: process skills, project management skills, alignment of skills with needs, team skills, and design sensitivity. According to the model, marketing and technical proficiency directly determine product quality, and ultimately lead to new product success or failure (p. 88)</p>

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgIntern Level of Analysis Outcome	Causality
Intervention Systems (continued)		
(Probst & Raisch, 2005)	<p>Early warning system: Inability to prevent crisis due to unbalanced stabilisation and transformation factors (p. 100)</p> <p>An effective early warning system should not be limited to quantitative characteristics alone, but must already register recognizable weak signals much earlier (p. 101)</p>	<p>Analysis of the 100 largest organizational crises of the last five years: In general the problems lay in the four areas of growth, change, leadership and organizational culture. (p. 90)</p> <p>While the root causes of failure are internal and often latent for years, the crisis becomes apparent when fundamental external changes reveal the inability of these firms to cope with such changes (p. 98)</p> <p>> rigid clinging to the old model of success, despite unmistakable changes in the competitive environment (p. 98)</p> <p>Burnout Syndrome: In most cases the companies grew and changed too quickly, had too powerful managers and nurtured an excessive success culture. (p. 90)</p> <p>Premature Aging Syndrome: if these factors were insufficiently developed, companies aged prematurely, which likewise led to failure (p. 90)</p>
(Ellis et al., 2006)	<p>After Event Review: An AER that attracts successful learners' attention to the weak aspects of their task performance (i.e., errors) can call into question the appropriateness of his or her knowledge and boost their motivation to test it, update it, and ultimately use it for improving their performance (p. 677)</p> <p>The aim of AERs is to help individuals and groups gather and analyse data that will ultimately improve their performance (p. 669)</p>	<p>This process of chaining backward from the to-be-explained event to its causes relies on perceptual principles of causal attribution such as temporal order, temporal and spatial continuity, and similarity (p. 670)</p>

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgIntern Level of Analysis Outcome	Causality
Intervention Systems (continued)		
(Narayanaswamy et al., 2013)	<p>A congruence model: communicational and perceptual congruence (p. 193)</p> <p>Distortion in communicating expectations leading to control loss along the three dimensions: people, processes, and resources (pp. 193, 197)</p> <p>Conceptually, control loss is applicable to the ISD project context because ISD projects suffer from intermediary problems related to people, processes, and resources (p. 199)</p> <p>proactive and continually monitor project progress rather than categorically classifying the project as failed post hoc (p. 213)</p>	<p>Control loss refers to slippages (deviation from the set objectives) in achieving the original intentions due to distortion in communicating expectations (p. 197)</p> <p>One of the major reasons attributed to these failures is the inability to harmonize values held by a diverse set of participants in an environment that is characterized by uncertainty due to changing requirements (p. 191)</p> <p>Reasons contributing to project failure include the failure to obtain cooperation among multiple stakeholders with partially congruent objectives and elusive performance measures (costs and time overruns instead of the causes for the delays) used to monitor project progress contribute to project failure (p. 192, 197)</p>
(Sheehan et al., 2014)	<p>Specifically, the research explores the reasons for the success or failure of HRM initiatives that have been associated with organisational outcomes ... (p. 193).</p> <p>... in order to contribute to organisational performance, HRM professionals can effectively utilise three dimensions of power, namely power of resources, power of processes and power of meaning (p. 193)</p>	<p>What are the dimensions of power used by the HRM function to gain influence and have an impact on the HRM and organisational performance relationship (p. 195)?</p> <p>...build understanding of how dimensions of HRM power moderate the relationship between HRM content and organisational outcomes (p. 207)</p>
Traits and States		
(Burton et al., 1976)	<p>Other-directedness and need for belongingness as indicator for weaker potential for management purposes (p. 47)</p>	<p>Students [1976] seem to be perpetuating the trend of the 1960's with respect to managerial careers (p. 53) There has been a major decline in management motivation for college students in the 1960's (p. 48)</p> <p>Majors in the field of banking and finance reflected significantly low scores in achievement motivation and task orientation (p. 52)</p>

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgIntern Level of Analysis Outcome	Causality
Traits and States (continued)		
(Wicklund & Braun, 1987)	<p>Psychological static condition: the condition in which there is felt pressure to perform, but where the person cannot react to the pertinent environment (p. 374), a reflection of a breakdown of the behavior-environment relation (p. 373), the behavioral fit to the given performance situation is imperfect or faltering (p. 381)</p>	<p>To the extent that a person within a specific culture is confronted with pressure to perform in some specific respect, the cultural system of categories becomes salient insofar as the person cannot carry out the act (p. 374)</p> <p>That increased pressure to do something in response to the performance environment results in a higher tendency to ascribe categories to those who are capable, provided that the person doing the ascribing falls short of the ideal competence (p. 376) Threat to identity (p. 379)</p>
(Ree & Carretta, 1999)	<p>Trainees who fail progress checks several times can be recommended for elimination by instructors for non-academic (called "lack of progress") reasons (p. 167)</p>	<p>Of the 32, only three were academic failures. Academic failure results when a student does not achieve sufficiently high scores on the course tests. The causes of attrition [drop out] for the other 29 was a failure to progress in training (p. 169-170)</p>
(Hofmann et al., 2012)	<p>Resource depletion moderates the relation between the resistance and enactment of desires, such that resistance became less effective for high levels of resource depletion (p. 585)</p>	<p>The more frequently and recently participants had resisted any earlier desire, the less successful they were at resisting any other subsequent desire (p. 587)</p> <p>People who reported a higher number of desires were better on average at inhibiting their desires than people who reported a lower number of desires (p. 585)</p>
(Taylor et al., 2014)	<p>Amotivation, the absence of motivation that happens when an individual does not experience intentionality or a sense of personal causation (p. 343)</p>	<p>Intrinsic motivation is positively associated with school achievement because it reflects a sense of volition and personal interest rather than external pressure (p. 355)</p> <p>The satisfaction of competence, along with the other basic needs of autonomy and relatedness, leads to the development of more autonomous forms of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000) (p. 355)</p>
(Critcher & Ferguson, 2016)	<p>Ineffective self-regulation: one reason why some self-regulation is difficult and vulnerable to failure is that the activities that the coveted end-states require are tedious, arduous, or even painful (p. 819)</p>	<p>Implicit importance of means: the more people see a difficult, goal-related activity as critical, necessary, and important, the more they should be willing to perform those activities, even though such means may be less exciting than other candidate behaviors (p. 819)</p>

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgIntern Level of Analysis Outcome	Causality
Traits and States (continued)		
(Eskreis-Winkler & Fishbach, 2019)	Negative feedback lowers people's confidence in their overall ability to pursue their goals, as well as their general expectations of success (pp. 1733–1734)	People who want to learn may be better able to do so via successful experiences than via unsuccessful experiences. When failure feedback is inevitable, our results suggest that people will learn more if failure feedback can be separated from the ego (p. 1742) It is possible that failure generates an immediate motivational shutdown, undermining the individual's motivation to attend to the task at hand. This response—"tuning out"—would imply... stop paying attention ... which means they cannot learn from the experience (p. 1734)
Perceptual Implications		
(Hussey, 1984)	Strategic decisions have to be made whether or not the company plans, and these decisions can be good or bad. ... The real test will be whether British managers have failed in the strategic sense. (p. 44) British firms, I believe, lose out by not relating their planning systems to the outside world in an adequate way (p. 51)	Now there are many reasons for this, and the causes cannot be laid at the door of British management. If the causes were all to do with lazy workers, poor industrial relations, bad government policies or unrealistic personal expectations there would be few lessons for the corporate planner. ...strategic failings... postulate that one cause of these failings is the perceptual boundary within which many managers operate ... (p. 46)
(Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008)	Disappointed trust in the group non-prototypical leadership after non-achievement of a minimal goal (p. 14)	Leadership perceptions after failure Leader characteristics such as leader prototypicality and the associated greater trust in prototypical leaders are more likely to influence leadership perceptions after failure to reach a maximal goal than after failure to reach a minimal goal (p. 17) Failure to reach a maximal goal is more likely to be evaluated gradually and should leave more leeway for interpretation (p. 17)

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgIntern Level of Analysis Outcome	Causality
Perceptual Implications (continued)		
(Bligh et al., 2011)	The romance of leadership Assumption of control and responsibility: RoL can be a dual-edged sword, for it not only implies that followers give leaders credit for positive organizational outcomes, but that they also attribute blame to leaders for negative results (pp. 1062, 1063) The negative spill over attributions cause harm to leaders associated with accused firms as well. In the case of ethical misconduct, investors not only attribute causality to organizational leaders, but also extend those attributions to leaders that are publicly associated with the fraudulent firm as well (p. 1063)	More specifically, individual differences regarding leadership perceptions are not just random variance, but the result of group members defining their own organizational reality, and developing constructions of leadership that can only be understood through the pattern of social ties that link group members to one another (p. 1069) Leader and follower-centered models: interactions between followers' emotional state and leadership attributions This is a radically different approach to the study of charisma, and suggests that the disparities among follower ratings of charisma may be as relevant as the level of consensus concerning a leader's charismatic appeal (p. 1069)
(Moon et al., 2019)	Extremity bias overblows the performance implication: Actors see their own performance as having more evaluative impact on observers than it actually does (p. 19) people overblow the implications not merely of performance failures but of successes as well (p. 19)	The OIE arises because observers' actual working trait definitions are broader—encompassing more than the specific performance domain—than actors assume (p. 1) Observers' working trait definitions [impression in the concrete situation] may not be as dominated by the performance behavior as actors anticipate (p. 2)
Source	Relevant Concepts OrgExtern Level of Analysis Outcome	Causality
External Conditions		
(Staw & Ross, 1980)	Refusal to examine alternatives and consider new programs (p. 250)	The existence of a leadership stereotype would mean that administrators may attempt to model their behavior to others' implicit idea of effective leadership to receive positive evaluations and/or organizational resources (p. 251)
(Yang & del Carmen Triana, 2019)	Bankruptcies of women-led ventures due to discriminatory gender-based beliefs (p. 926)	Our results suggest that women's disadvantages in leading their businesses may be perpetuated by gender beliefs that discount women's leadership (p. 926) Gender expectations may make it difficult for women entrepreneurs to successfully lead a business compared to their male counterparts (p. 928)

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgExtern Level of Analysis Outcome	Causality
Customer Orientation		
(Choi & Behling, 1997)	Defensive and tactical behavior towards the customer due to lack of development orientation of managers (pp. 38–41)	We suggest that the source of the problems may be found in top managers' orientations (p. 45) Tactical orientation: workers in these companies complained that when TQM was introduced it lacked "pre-thought" and "up-front strategy," (p. 42) Defensive orientation: top managers asked the workers to collect data, but ... they rarely used them to monitor the production process (p. 42)
(Blowfield, 2005)	Weakness in protecting workers and environment (p. 515)	Even when CSR makes a positive contribution to development goals, there will still be gaps that need to be tackled by government and civil society (p. 523) Business self-interest can also take precedence over wider societal interests if we treat the outcome of partnerships with business as unbiased, and thus overlook the consequences of the norms of business influencing our thinking (p. 524)
(Harris, 2007)	In our globalizing free market, capitalist, economic system, the widely held goal of corporations is to maximize gain and thereby ultimately maximize shareholder value or utility (Goyder, 1998; Ostensson, 2000). Hence, rational corporate behaviour would be to focus upon this economic goal and ignore environmental and social implications or externalities (Frankel, 1998; Daly and Cobb, 1994) (p. 539)	In Australia, the NRRES [non-renewable resource extractive sector] has been and remains a cornerstone of national economic development, ... (p. 540)
(Winter, 2010)	Students high in achievement motivation react to perceived frustration of their desire for control with an "authoritarian" style that reflects some aspects of the behavior of achievement-motivated U.S. presidents and other political leaders (p. 1659)	When that sense of control is constrained, blocked, or frustrated achievement motivation tends to take on a latent "authoritarian shadow" (p. 1659) The combination of achievement motivation and frustrated concerns for control may, over time, lead to elevated levels of authoritarianism (p. 1656) People high in implicit achievement motivation function best when they have (or feel) personal control over the situation (p. 1659)

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgExtern Level of Analysis Outcome	Causality
Risk Areas		
(Li et al., 1999)	Successful teams are characterized by appropriate composition, incentives, structure, process, and group leader. Ignoring these elements can almost certainly lead to poor performance and failure of an international joint venture in China (p. 66)	This framework [five elements] provides a systematic model for describing major challenges of Chinese JV leadership teams and then proposes ways to cope with and surmount those challenges (p. 54) The five key elements are team composition, processes, structure, incentives, and team leader (p.54)
(Moenaert et al., 2000)	Product launch: Unsatisfactory product launch due to the lack of firm and team level capabilities in an international innovation project (pp. 361, 371, 374)	The selection of less experienced project leaders or project coordinators not only hampers the cooperation during the project, but is often the primary cause for a bad project start (p. 373) To a great extent, this is caused by the distance between the various parties involved, and the limited transparency of the international communication network (p. 374)
(Faerman et al., 2001)	Common rules: Lack of agreement on common rules and principles for regulating behavior (p. 377)	Case studies of successful cooperation show leaders actively managing the cooperative process, particularly in its early stages and during trying moments (p. 377)
(Doh et al., 2011)	Management's effectiveness in addressing the well-being and retention of the organization's workforce is at the heart of responsible leader behavior and the subject of this article (p. 86)	In our study, four times as many employees left who rated their organization as low in responsible leadership compared those who rated their firm as high in responsible leadership (36.8 vs. 8.5%) (p. 96)
(Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013)	Failure is defined as canceling the implementation, inability to run the organization following the implementation (e.g., interrupting production or inability to ship orders), unrealistic extensions of the implementation and go-live schedules, or a post go-live system with inadequate features (p. 116)	ERP implementation projects frequently have high failure rates; although research has investigated a number of factors for success and failure rates, limited attention has been directed toward the implementation teams, and how to make these more effective (p. 114) ERP/HRMS implementation success is heavily dependent on the effectiveness of implementation teams in performing interdependent and concurrent tasks, and communicating and collaborating both within and between the teams (p.115)

Source	Relevant Concepts OrgExtern Level of Analysis Outcome	Causality
Risk Areas (continued)		
(Eggers & Song Lin, 2015)	Change: Inability to influence change by learning from experience (pp. 1785–1786)	Additionally, learning from failure is difficult because it requires acknowledgment and acceptance of the causes of the failure in question (p. 1787) the failure of an entrepreneurial venture is likely to lead the founder to blame external factors ..., which leads them to change industries from the previous to the subsequent venture, but not to change other aspects of the business (namely their strategy or managerial style) (p. 1786)
(da Silva et al., 2019)	However, several authors agree that the main outcome of the requirements phase is to achieve consensus about the system to be built (Pressman & Maxim, 2015; Ram-ingwong, 2012). In other words, since the requirements documents determine the system to be implemented, clients should validate and confirm that their content is good enough to proceed with the project's development (p. 689)	One of the major causes of project failure is the requirements phase, which involves the early activities in the IS [information system] project's life cycle ... (p. 688) The concept of project success is outside this study's scope; however, this study argues that addressing issues arising from the requirements phase contributes to the probability of this phase's success, which can positively influence the overall success of IS projects (p.689)

F Execution Part 3

How Leaders can Learn From Failure: A Plan Analysis Approach

Abstract

The motivational structure of an acting person can be reconstructed as a Plan Structure both bottom-up by observation and top-down based on the addressed needs. One of the factors determining the suitability of a Plan Structure is the extent to which the actors succeed in adapting to new situations. This depends on their ability to perceive changing situations, to recognise possible obstacles, and on their ability to actively adapt to them. Consequently, it is necessary to ask the question about the motivational structures and their underlying behavioural strategies, which may extend to the roots of the basic human needs and determine the leaders' actions. The aim of transferring the school-independent approach of Plan Analysis from clinical psychology to the field of business administration was therefore to identify prototypical leadership to understand the motivational background of leadership behaviour dealing with failure situations at work. For this purpose, the extracted text passages from 43 research articles that were analysed in a systematic literature review (SLR) regarding failure in business were used. From this sample, 13 articles addressing leadership behaviour in business were selected and paraphrased into statements related to the four levels of analysis, "people", "structure", "process", and "outcome", which form the failure evaluation framework (FEF). As a result of this analytical process, a prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business, which can be used as a management consulting tool in the field of failure, was created. In summary, the motivational structures with the underlying behavioural strategies behind the actions of executives as decision makers, project managers, or innovators have a critical impact on a company's creativity and innovative performance.

Keywords: Plan Analysis, prototypical Plan Structure, failure management, failure evaluation framework, critical work situation, innovative performance

Introduction

Effective innovation management is crucially linked to the company's openness to communicate bidirectionally. On the one hand, the company has the opportunity to influence the goal setting and strategic orientation of the employees through permanent communication. On the other hand, ideas for adjustments, renewals, or proposals for radical change arising from the operational business receive the necessary hearing to be seriously examined, evaluated, and if applicable, implemented. In this context, three interacting action-guiding factors are central to a holistic understanding of the innovation process in companies. The determinants of action, namely critical work situations, trust relationships, and innovative performance, are examined in more detail in Part I of this dissertation project. The result of this first analysis leads to three strategy proposals for a quality-oriented implementation of change requirements and continuous innovation in companies. Strategy 1: A company's ability to innovate can be secured by developing trust relationships, which in turn encourages learning processes and risk tolerance in emotionally challenging work situations. Employees who are actively supported in questioning existing problematic, behaviour-determining beliefs about the functioning of a business process and assumptions about its consequences provide important impulses for reorientation and promote learning processes due to a company's risk-ready learning culture. Strategy 2: A company's ability to innovate can be ensured by the continued experience of trustworthiness between the interdependent members of the company, which is perceived and dynamically evaluated during action through the assessment of integrity, benevolence, and proven abilities (Mayer et al., 1995). Through sustained motivation to engage in dialogue, the company has the opportunity to value each employee in respect to his or her individual abilities and qualities, reflecting a corporate culture based on trust and mutual respect. Strategy 3: Qualified leadership enables the activation of group-

internal and group-overlapping interaction processes for the effective management of transformation processes throughout the company. In that way, Plans and goals are shared between the members and contribute to the construction of a common vision of the expected future. The strength of a company lies in skilled leadership. Leaders who succeed in strengthening the self-esteem of their team members can encourage intrinsically driven work motivation through a corporate culture based on openness and communication. As a conclusion of Part I of this dissertation project, it can be stated that trust-based leadership promotes creativity of the employees and thus increases the adaptability of a company to new demands. Inevitably, the root of failure lies in the desire to initiate a change process derived from a strategic management decision that cannot satisfactorily be realised in the concrete situation due to the influence of both internal and external company factors. As Yukl (2009) addresses in his reflections on organisational learning, the main question is how to create conditions that favour learning-oriented behaviour and are thus fruitful for innovative performance. Furthermore, from a psychotherapeutic perspective, the question arises as to how conditions can be created that promote processes of structural change (Piaget, 1976) for greater flexibility in adapting to new situations while reducing self-limiting and inhibiting tendencies (Caspar, 1998). Thus, the question that needs to be answered is how creativity can be stimulated in a continuous, iterative process so that employees can be encouraged to participate in the company's innovative performance. Furthermore, the question arises whether the innovative power of a company can be secured by the competence of its leaders to build trusting relationships that are receptive to learning experiences. These questions are explored in Part II and III of this dissertation project. In Part II, a systematic literature review (SLR) on failure in business provides information on the various aspects that operate in change processes and limit success. In Part III, the Plan Analysis approach (Caspar, 2018a) is used as an alternative to the traditional survey research methods to examine the motivational structures underlying

leaders' behaviour in failure situations and to identify what framework conditions are needed to support leaders in learning from failure experiences. The results of the SLR on failure in business in Part II of this dissertation project suggest that failure can be understood as a disruption of an ongoing process. This disruption has either a self-limiting or an action-guiding effect on individuals, leaders, and affected companies. Building on the method of the SLR used in Part II of this dissertation project, a failure evaluation framework (FEF) was developed to clearly map how the given scattered nature of literature on failure (Tranfield et al., 2003) integrates from the perspectives of different actors: the affected individual, the leader, and the company as a whole. In addition, failure can be identified on four levels of analysis: "people", "structure", "process", and "outcome". These identifications are located inside (OrgIntern) or outside (OrgExternal) of an organisation. Briefly summarising, two different attitudes are central to the definition of failure in business. On the one hand, failure can be interpreted as an operational and functional disruption of a social unit that acts as a threat and triggers defensive behaviour in the involved actors. On the other hand, failure can be interpreted by a social unit as a disruption of a sequence of activities, which is perceived as an opportunity to take adaptive actions. These different attitudes, which are either self-limiting defensive, or open to change and action-guiding, are crucial for motivation to change behaviour. As a consequence, failure is more than just an unsatisfactory performance that is assessed at its completion. The findings from part II of this dissertation project lead to the notion of failure as a disruption of a transformation process aimed at achieving change. Drawing on the findings of part I and part II, the next step in the dissertation project is to identify the motivational structures and Plans behind business failure focused on in the research literature using Caspar's Plan Analysis approach (Caspar, 2018a), as it can be applied independently of a specific therapeutic school. In Part III of the dissertation project, a selection of research articles explicitly dealing with leadership as an agent in organisations is explored in

depth. On this basis, a condensed prototypical account of the motivational structure that may lead to leadership failure in critical work situations with changing demands is proposed. As Nadler and Tushman (1980) note, there is clearly a lack of a framework for organisational pathology that can be used to examine the extent to which a company's capabilities are suited to realising its strategic innovation goals and transforming action into innovative performance. In essence, the Plan Analysis approach and its option for a prototypical Plan Structure outcome (Caspar, 2018a) provides a diagnostic framework for identifying pathological organisational patterns that can be used to define a case concept with a treatment plan. For example, the leadership weaknesses resulting from the analysis could be interpreted in extreme cases as a lack of openness of communication in the corporate culture, which triggers unbalanced stabilisation and transformation processes, and results in burnout or premature ageing of the companies (Probst & Raisch, 2005). These weaknesses could be reflected in the Plan Structure as a lack of openness to strategic communication, which leads to a company's inability to develop and work toward a shared vision of the future. This could also make it difficult for leaders to flexibly address differing perceptions of values and work toward harmonisation. Following the theory and practice of change management propagated by Hayes (2018), organisational change evolves as a punctuated equilibrium where short periods of radical discontinuous change follow long periods of equilibrium (Gersick, 1988). These two modes are essentially influenced by the organisation's deep structure, which is composed by reactive and self-reinforcing processes and interrelated organisational set-ups such as its corporate culture, strategy, and control systems (Romanelli & Tushman, 1994). This deep lying unconscious structure of a system can best be influenced by the three power dimensions of a company, namely the power of resources, processes, and meaning (Sheehan et al., 2014). Following Hardy (1996), these three dimensions of power in combination have the capacity

to mobilise the fourth power, the power of the system to initiate strategic change by influencing values, traditions, and cultures.

The idea behind Part III of this dissertation project is to expand the body of knowledge surrounding failure in business by including a practical application of the findings from the SLR in Part II (Denyer & Tranfield, 2009; Tranfield et al., 2003). Caspar's Plan Analysis approach (2018a) suggests an innovative lever in dealing with failure in companies, start-ups, and intra-organisational innovation teams (Burgelman, 1983; Garrett Jr. & Neubaum, 2013; Sharma & Chrisman, 1999; Villiger et al., 2018). Based on the strategic propositions in Part I of this dissertation project, an approach is provided for determining the conditions for an organisation's increased ability to adapt to new demands (Caspar, 1998; von Rosenstiel, 2003; Yukl, 2009). In summary, the proposed prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business can help to identify the self-limiting and inhibiting parts in management and leadership of a company faced with a concrete case of a failure situation. Consequently, the behaviour-determining beliefs and assumptions about the functioning of the company and its processes can be uncovered as early as possible and appropriate interventions can be made. These individually distinct behaviour-determining beliefs and assumptions arise from personally significant experiences, non-routine situations with extraordinary circumstances, and force the affected members of an organisation to question their beliefs and assumptions and reformulate their understanding of the current situation (Dimock, 1986). In accordance with Epstein and Morling (Epstein, 2003; Epstein & Morling, 1995) basic beliefs about the self and the world emerge from the evaluation of self-relevant information on a needs-specific continuum and thus guide future behaviour in an organisational culture with a shared set of core values, beliefs, and consensus on the company's vision (Schein, 2016). Together, these cognitive processes and emotional states have the power to trigger both adaptive and maladaptive behaviour aimed at satisfying the basic human needs (Epstein & Morling, 1995; Gasiet, 1981;

Gräwe, 2004). The in-depth analysis of the prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business has singled out four subject areas as the four pillars on which the motivational structure in failure situations rests: "learning", "communication", "motivation", and "delegation". These behaviour-determining pillars are the result of the analysis of the research findings of individual research studies collected by the means of a SLR on failure in business. Together, they form a normative model for how an organisation typically functions when dealing with critical work situations. This condensed prototypical model is intended to serve as a baseline for comparison with the Plan Structures of real organisations. Typically, prototypical Plan Structures are developed from a collection of real individual cases. In this case, the prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business is the essence of a collection of motivational structures and internal mental states identified in individual research studies.

30. Theoretical Background

The aim of this third part of the dissertation project is to develop a strategy for observing the factors influencing the innovative performance of a company's operational and managerial processes. Through a suitable choice of methodology, the overarching motivational structures of leaders and their action-guiding effect in an organisational unit can be identified. The Plan Analysis approach (Caspar, 2018a) offers the means to analyse the structures and processes behind the interaction between leaders and employees in concrete critical work situations and thus uncover the limits of the emerging solution space. The analysis of the communication processes, delegation practices, learning orientation, and motivational support of employees by leaders provides the basis for the early detection of failure situations and the selection of appropriate intervention measures. In the following, the theoretical foundations are deepened with the following subjects: skilled leadership, autonomous motivation, motivational structures, and anticipation of failure.

30.1 Skilled Leadership

A key issue in achieving creative and innovative performance is the need for proven leadership skills that are geared to build trust relationships in the company (Bass, 1995). In part I of this dissertation project, three interdependent focal points from the research disciplines of trust, emotion, and leadership were identified: critical work situations, trust relationships, innovative performance. As a general conclusion, the implementation of change management strategies holds the promise of success whenever synergy effects can be achieved through the consideration of the basic human needs and thus through the cooperation of those involved (Gasiet, 1981). Firstly, promoting relationships of trust within a company (Mayer et al., 1995), coupled with the willingness of the individuals and groups to accept challenges (von Cranach, 1986), fosters a learning corporate culture (Moynihan et al., 2013). Secondly, due to critical work situations, emotions can be released and initiate the successive transformation of descriptive and motivational schemata (Grawe, 1998). Critical business situations that are considered as personally significant (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) can lead to an unfavourable re-evaluation (Mayer et al., 1995) of the relationships and thus significantly reduce intentionality and motivation of an employee. Thirdly, the willingness to take risks in critical business situations may result in threatening work conditions, which are coped with differently due to the vulnerability of each individual (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Therefore, it is important to be aware that through an appropriate leadership style with proven leadership qualities and trust-building behaviour (Bass, 1995) alarming work situations can offer opportunities to increase a company's innovative strength and contribute to individual and corporate growth. Mutual trust creates lasting emotional relationships between people, thereby ensuring the continuity of a community (Riedl & Javor, 2012). Trust relationships are therefore the cohesive force that contributes to quality, creativity, and innovation in defined social

units. To achieve this dynamic state of creative and innovative performance in the company, proven leadership capable of building and sustaining trust relationships in the organisation is critical (Bass, 1995). Transformational leaders are conceptually capable of influencing the essential processes of collective learning in a company (Yukl, 2009). The characteristic qualities of transformational leaders, compared to transactional leaders, are best suited to sustain and motivate employees to explore new situations on the one hand and to exploit them on the other. In addition, without communication efforts, the knowledge acquired by individual company agents cannot diffuse into the multi-stakeholder community and is likely to fail to be applied as a long-term oriented corporate reform (Rogers, 2003; Yukl, 2009). Crucial to Yukl's theoretical analysis of the value of organisational learning and the role of leadership in influencing a company's long-term effectiveness is therefore the need to balance external alignment efforts with internal efficiency (Benner & Tushman, 2003; March, 1991; Tushman & O'Reilly III, 1996; Yukl, 2009). According to Nadler and Tushman (1980), an organisational transformation process is guided by congruence in the interaction of the organisational processes and structures of the company to achieve a desired outcome that meets the strategic expectations of the actors involved. Achieving a balanced match between external requirements and internal capabilities requires nothing more than a "learning organisation" (Hayes, 2018, p. 52). The concept of organisational learning is based on self-reflexive processes of the members of a social unit, such as a project team, or an organisational unit in a company (Argyris & Schön, 1978). Self-reflexive processes as a result of concrete experiences can thus trigger insights into the assumptions underlying the implicit theory of action. On the one hand, this occurs as a one-loop learning process that exhausts the possibilities of the concrete situation but assimilates the information gained into the existing mental schemata in a defensive holding (Piaget, 1976). On the other hand, self-reflexion leads to a two-loop process that explores the framework structures behind the theory-in-use, so that norms, guidelines, and

goals are questioned (Argyris & Schön, 1978; Greif, 2008; Greif et al., 2004) thus enabling accommodation through the structural expansion of the mental schemata (Piaget, 1976). In response to von Rosenstiel's question (von Rosenstiel, 2003, p. 460) of whether the concept of the "learning organisation" is an individual learning process, as described by Argyris and Schön (1978), or actually organisational learning to which structural and functional elements of the organisation contribute, the research literature provides some clues. Leadership and management processes are crucial for documenting and diffusing latent experience and knowledge (Rogers, 2003; von Cranach, 1986), and contribute to leadership as culture management (Parry & Bryman, 2006; Schein, 2016) by providing a shared view of what to strive for (Miller et al., 1960). According to von Rosenstiel (2003), this culture management should produce one thing above all: Trust. The findings from the research literature are conclusive: A critical factor in successful strategic leadership is building and maintaining relationships of trust in a progressively developed corporate culture as an effective means to empower a company's collective learning processes towards innovative performance (Bleicher, 1995; Krystec, 1999).

30.2 Autonomous Motivation

Work-specific aspects of the social environment influence autonomous work motivation through challenge, choice, meaningful reasoning, feedback, and explicitly through the work climate, which is provided by leadership to support autonomy. Gagné and Deci (2005) place the self-determination theory (SDT) with its central concept of the self (Deci & Ryan, 1995) in the context of work motivation and identify six research propositions for future research to gain further insight into autonomous motivation in contrast to controlled motivation. Gagné and Deci (2005) are particularly interested in the antecedents of autonomous motivation identified on a continuum from controlled to autonomous: firstly, in the internalised

motivation as a highly developed form of extrinsic motivation and secondly, in genuine intrinsic motivation in the work context. As decisive factors, they focus on supportive leadership practices on the one hand and an autonomy-oriented work climate on the other. An additional antecedent leads to the individual differences determined by perceived locus of causality and which contributes to the agentic and thus self-determined motivated behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 1995). Following Gagné and Deci (2005), all social environment factors, together with the individual differences in causality orientation, influence the performance aspects of task complexity, creativity and citizenship, psychological well-being, organisational trust and commitment, and job satisfaction.

At the centre of SDT is the self, defining the development of the self as a motivated process (Deci & Ryan, 1995). Through this motivated process, the individual integrates all experiences related to the basic needs for autonomy, competence and relationship into the self. Decisive for self-determination is thus intentional development, which exerts a motivating effect on behaviour through the integration of internal and external guiding values. This leads to the distinction between true and contingent self-esteem and gives the theory its name (Deci & Ryan, 1995). As expressed with the propositions three, five, and six, a high level of autonomous causality orientation together with an autonomy-supportive interpersonal climate ultimately leads to autonomous motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). In summary, Gagné and Deci advocate the idea that a supportive work climate with supportive leadership behaviour potentially promotes autonomous motivation.

30.3 Motivational Structures

The Plan Analysis approach (Caspar, 2018a) has the potential to facilitate the management of failure situations. Based on the underlying motivational structures and established Plans behind the self-limiting and inhibiting behavioural tendencies, possible adaptions to the

changing internal and external environmental conditions in an organisation can be identified. Doing so helps to identify the need for reflexion and to define treatment initiatives aimed at achieving an action-guiding attitude in the organisation that supports creativity and innovative performance. The Plan Analysis approach helps to explore the dynamics in the trust relationships between the members of an organisational unit, which represent the result of a lengthy development process (Mayer et al., 1995; Schoormann et al., 2007). Since trust relationships are the prerequisite for creative performance and thus for innovation, trust acts as a catalyst for behavioural change (Bleicher, 1999; Krystec, 1999; Riedl & Javor, 2012; Schein, 2016). The Plan Analysis approach can be used to identify signals that characterise the quality of the corporate culture and communication activities, promoting thus the rethinking of existing structures and processes. The rationale behind this approach rests on the fact that open organisational communication allows considering the concerns of the employees in daily tasks and problem-solving situations, hence reducing the complexity perceived in work situations (Bleicher, 1999; Gasiet, 1981; Krystec, 1999; Luhmann, 2014). Firstly, the open exchange of ideas enables reflexion and adaption to new requirements. Secondly, an organisational structure only becomes controllable through trust-based relationships and risk tolerance.

The clinical psychology approach of Plan Analysis (Caspar, 2018a) is based on the idea of a vertical analysis of the motivational structures and behavioural strategies behind observable behaviour. It is therefore prescriptive in a scientific sense, as it enables the development of theses about a person's motives through observation. In the 1970s, in the team of Klaus Grawe, Hartmut Dziewas, and Sabine Wedel at the Hamburg Psychiatric University Hospital, success was achieved with this new strategy in dealing with difficult patients in psychotherapy (Caspar, 2008b). Together with Dziewas, Grawe developed the Vertical Behavioural Analysis (Vertikale Verhaltensanalyse) as a means to an interactional behavioural therapy in

1977 aimed at better understanding so-called difficult patients (Grawe & Dziewas, 1978). The findings were based on the reflexion of the concept of the "Test-Operate-Test-Exit" unit (TOTE), the groundbreaking innovative proposal on how to explain behaviour offered by Miller, Galanter, and Pribram (1960). Motivational structures determine the values behind the "Image of a desired outcome" and prescribe the intention to execute a "Plan". In addition, a "Plan" is hierarchically structured and consists of TOTE units with test requirements and operations. In the conception of Miller, Galanter, and Pribram, intentions and value judgements determine the motives that are operationally executed through the implementation and testing of the instructions constituting a "Plan" in iterations and recursive loops (Miller et al., 1960). Whether conscious or unconscious, the values contained in the motives are crucially connected with the testing phases of a TOTE unit. Only through the qualitative exchange of a "Plan" with the "Image" the intention to execute a "Plan" becomes goal-determined and behaviour observable (Miller et al., 1960, pp. 60, 64). The shift from the horizontal to the vertical approach with the aim to better understand even the so-called difficult patient was successful. The vertical approach was renamed in the 1980er in Plan Analysis by Caspar (1984). In fact, Grawe suggested this renaming once the extensions by Caspar regarding emotions included much more than just behaviour analysis. In the further development of the vertical behavioural analysis into the Plan Analysis, the emphasis on the complementary relationship between therapist and patient was continued but qualified as a motive-oriented approach (Caspar, 2008b). Today, however, in contrast to the original model of behaviour of Miller, Galanter, and Pribram (1960), where testing procedures control the operation processes in alignment with the imagined outcome, both motivational and capability aspects are recorded in a compressed form in the Plan Structure (Caspar, 2018a, p. 48) and made it more flexible to adaptation. As history progressed, this development contributed to bolstering the idea of a general psychotherapy (Allgemeine Psychotherapie) advocated by Grawe, Donati, and Bernauer

(1994). Plans are instrumentally linked in a purpose-means hierarchy based on Gasiet's then published basic human needs (Gasiet, 1981) and ending with their concrete implementation in a specific situation. One advantage of the Plan Analysis approach is its openness to possible application in disciplines other than psychotherapy. Examples of applications include the analysis of the functioning of cults (Caspar, 1995) and, as a field of political psychology, the self-promotion of politicians (Laux et al., 1996; Schütz, 1992, 1998). The use of the universally applicable approach of Plan Analysis is also explored in dealing with parents at school (documents can be requested from Caspar, F.) and, as in the present dissertation project, applied to the handling of leaders in the workplace. Using this approach, motivational structures coupled with behavioural strategies and internal mental states can be identified from manifest behavioural patterns (Caspar, 2008a, 2018b). What is learned in consulting situations can be used as a Plan Structure for the development of an intervention plan in business counselling. However, following Caspar (1998, p. 109), with an intervention plan, we only can "...try to stimulate a system to self-organize itself in a more favourable direction". On the one hand, these stimulations can bring about an increase in coherence between the elements involved by filling in missing information and validating existing structures in an adaptive connectionist way (Van Overwalle, 2007). On the other hand, these stimulations support implicit forms of learning that are secured by distributing and linking pieces of information under the influence of changing environmental conditions. The question is, what conditions can be created through interventions to trigger accommodative processes in the sense of Piaget's epistemology (Caspar, 1998; Piaget, 1952) promoting learning-oriented behaviour and thus triggering change steps that are fruitful for innovative performance (Yukl, 2009). Through a connectionist perspective, the research claims of psychotherapy can be related to those of organisational psychology. What conditions are necessary to create the willingness of a client or the exponents of an organisation to dare assimilative and thus incremental steps, but also accommoda-

tive, in other words revolutionary changes to support their strategic decisions in favour of innovative performance? These are questions that both psychotherapists and organisational actors ask themselves in their role as change agents.

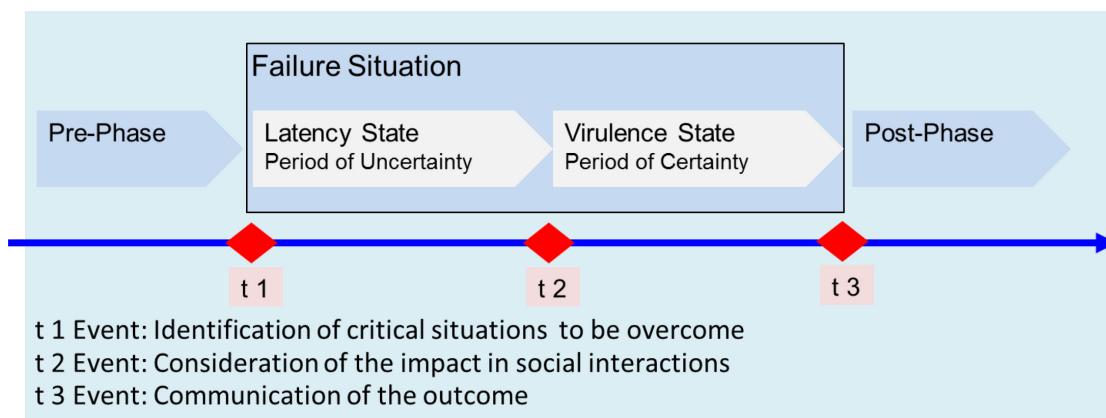
30.4 Failure Anticipation

Based on the notion of an organisation as a transformation process (Nadler & Tushman, 1980, p. 43) and the naïve perception of the world as a form of behavioural theory (von Cranach et al., 1980), failure can be presented as an ordered flow of phases and events providing a basis for the perception of disruptions in the temporal course of change activities of a company (see Figure 30.1). This hypothetical process model is built on people's everyday theory and serves as a naïve behavioural theory in which phases and events during failure situations can be identified. Psychological knowledge presented in the form of a process flow provides the platform to indicate possible intervention points on a timeline basis. Using the proposed hypothetical process model of failure (see Figure 30.1), this structured representation provides the basis for decision-makers to intervene in a timely manner. Drawing on the findings of the qualitative content analysis conducted as part of the SLR in Part II of this dissertation project, the data on process segmentations suggest that failure evolves progressively. The data suggest that failure progresses from a phase of latency and uncertainty to a phase of virulence and certainty about the seriousness of a failure situation. Thus, failure can be observed on a timeline divided into a latency phase and a virulence phase. Accordingly, the qualitative analysis of the SLR, as presented in Part II of this dissertation project, reveals two different attitudes in dealing with failure: an action-guiding, progressive one and a self-limiting, regressive one. If one follows Nadler and Tushman's typology of organisational change (Nadler & Tushman, 1995), a company basically has two options for dealing with the demands of change. Either it recognises the weak signals of changing conditions early on and

can actively counter them in incremental steps, but also through radical transformations. Or a company ignores these signals until it is forced to change course by economic constraints and regulatory requirements. In extreme cases, this can lead to a corporate crisis resulting in a drastic restructuring of the entire company. From this point of view, it is crucial that management and leaders in the companies develop sufficient sensitivity for the course of failure situations and learn to recognise changing framework conditions at an early stage. In this way, they can initiate appropriate measures in time. Otherwise, they are doomed to merely react within a short time frame.

Figure 30.1

Phases and Events in Failure Situations



As shown in Figure 30.1, the intuitive perception of the course of failure during a change process aimed at promoting the innovative performance of a company is characterised by three events: (t1) Point at which a latent feeling about the unfavourable course of the change process occurs, (t2) point at which the effects of the unfavourable course of the change process become noticeable, (t3) point at which failure of the change process is determined. This gives rise to three questions, which will be addressed in more detail in the discussion section following the sections on the methodology and results of the Plan Analysis:

- (1) What does it take to recognise signals of failure?
- (2) What does it take to manage the impact of failure on social interactions?
- (3) What does it take to communicate the outcome of failure?

31. Methodology

Drawing on the insights gained from the research review in Part I of this dissertation project, three interdependent focal points support the establishment and maintenance of trust as a prerequisite for securing the survival of a company: critical work situations, trust relationships, innovative performance. For this reason, it is advisable to develop suitable management tools to analyse, evaluate, and influence the interplay between a trust-based and innovation-oriented corporate culture and the employees' willingness to take risks in critical, challenging work situations such as change requirements or crises. Firstly, the innovative strength, as a company's chance of survival, can be secured by maintaining relationships of trust together with the development of a corporate culture, which encourages learning processes and risk tolerance. Secondly, the potential danger of a decline in intention and motivation and thus an impairment of the employees' willingness to take risks can effectively be counteracted by skilled leadership. To this end, the development and regulation of the employees' emotions in critical work situations should closely be monitored and accompanied. Finally, and as a consequence, the implementation of a reasoned leadership style with internalised qualitative skills is central for promoting learning processes and overcoming challenges. In the following section the procedure for data collection and content analysis is presented. Methodologically, it builds on the qualitative content analysis conducted with the SLR on failure in business in Part II of this dissertation project.

31.1 Data Collection

To obtain an overview of the current state of knowledge on a widely ramified topic, it is useful to conduct a SLR (Denyer & Tranfield, 2009; Tranfield et al., 2003). To this end, the search yielded a total of 43 significant research articles from 1967 to 2019 from two different research portals in the fields of management (EBSCO, 2021) and psychology (PubPsych, n.d.). The inductively generated categories from the qualitative data analysis (see Table 34.1 in the Appendix) led to the failure evaluation framework (FEF) consisting of two dimensions, namely the level of analysis (people, structure, process, outcome) and scene of action (internal and external to an organisation). In the intention of further processing the results of the SLR (see Part II of this dissertation project) each research article was classified from the perspective of the respective central actor category, either as an individual actor, as a leader, or as a company. This enabled to systematically generate a collection of 13 research articles on the topic of failure in business dealing with the central actor leader in an internal organisational context (see Table 34.2) to use as a non-reactive data collection in the scientific document analysis (Döring & Bortz, 2016). The further processing of the inductively generated categories was done by summarising the extracted text passages according to Mayring's paraphrasing method (Mayring, 2010). The results of this further processing must be of interest to the management of companies, start-ups and in-house venture teams to guarantee the quality of strategic decisions and operational processes to ensure constant innovation performance, whether before, during, or after failure situations. The search findings from 146 matches in total (117 EBSCO hits, 29 PubPsych hits) yielded 13 qualified publications (9%) published in 12 journals (see Table 31.1) focusing on the leader as central feature acting internal to an organisation (OrgIntern).

Table 31.1

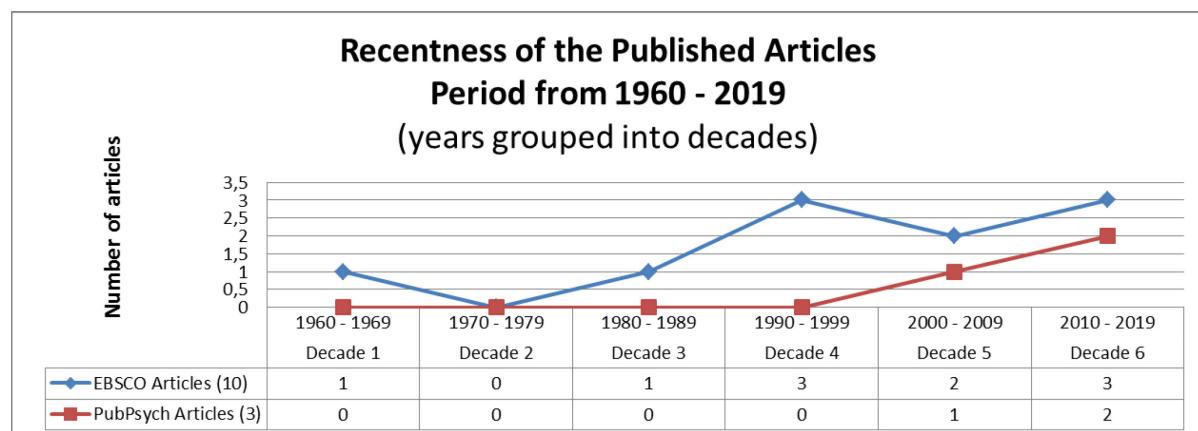
Total Amount of Filtered Articles and Journals: Actor Leader, OrgIntern

DB Se-search	Articles	Period from	Period to	Amount	%	Qualified Articles	Journals	Journals (one over-lap)
EBSCO	117	1967	2019	2		Articles qualified A+	2	5 USA 4 UK
				7		Articles qualified A	6	
				0		Articles qualified B & Q1 >1.99	0	
				1		Articles qualified SJR Q1 >1.99	1	
				10	9%		9	
PubPsych	29	1987	2019	2		Articles qualified SJR Q1 >1.99	2	3 USA 0 UK
				1		Articles qualified A	1	
				3	10%		3	
Total	146	1967	2019	13	9%	Articles		12 Journals

All articles of this sample explicitly address the issue of failure in business from a holistic perspective over a period of six decades (see Figure 31.1) presenting failure and success as two competing aspects of reality.

Figure 31.1

Selected Articles by Decade: Actor Leader, OrgIntern

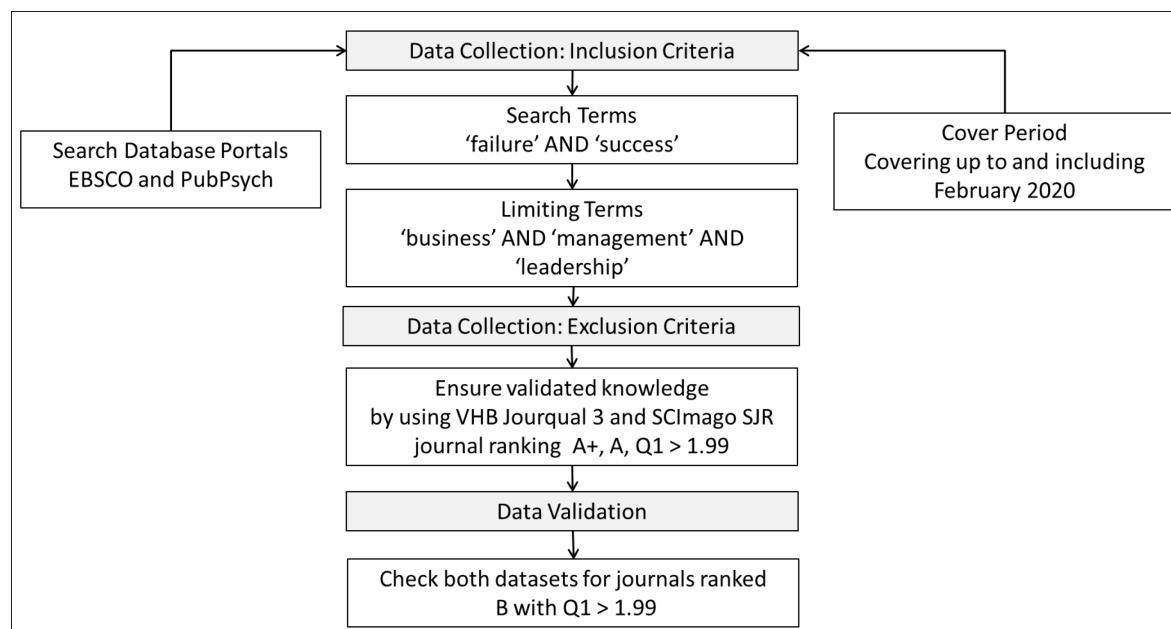


In summary, the 13 articles (10 EBSCO hits, 3 PubPsych hits) identified are spread across six decades, with an increase in the number of publications after the 1990s (see Table

34.2 in the Appendix). With the chosen search procedure and the selected search terms, an unbiased search query could be realised with the following search terms for peer-reviewed top-tier journal articles: ‘failure’ AND ‘success’ as mass nouns (Oxford Dictionaries, 2021) without truncation and without restriction to a given period till the end of February 2020. Because management and leadership together make it possible to implement strategic decisions with a corporate culture appropriate to change, that is to say, to motivate people to achieve goals (Frese, 1993; Hopfenbeck, 1998; von Rosenstiel, 2003, 2009), it was reasonable to narrow the sample by using the two mass nouns ‘management’ and ‘leadership’(Oxford Dictionaries, 2021). The inclusion and exclusion criteria for data collection are presented in Figure 31.2.

Figure 31.2

Data Collection: Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria



With the intent to validate the quality of the findings, and in accordance with Pod-sakoff and his team (2005), the analysis was limited to top tier articles from peer-reviewed journals which are considered validated knowledge and are most likely to have the greatest

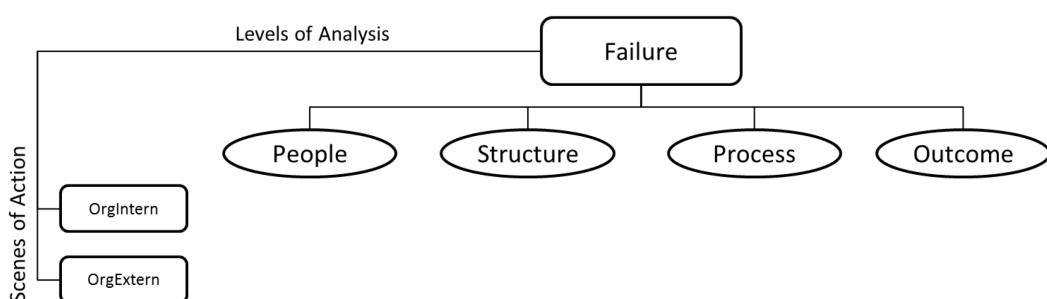
impact on the field (Armstrong & Wilkinson, 2007; Judge et al., 2007; Podsakoff et al., 2005). For this purpose, Quality Journal Ranking System of the Association of University Teachers of Business Administration in the German-speaking countries, the *Verband der Hochschullehrer für Betriebswirtschaft VHB im deutschsprachigen Raum* was used (VHB-Jourqual3, 2019). In addition, this quality assessment instrument was complemented by a second one, the SCImago scientific journal ranking system (SCImago, n.d.), which allows identifying scientific journals with the indicator Q1 (quartile 1) and a Scimago Journal Ranking (SJR) value higher than 1.99.

31.2 Content Analysis

As a basis for defining a prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business, the framework for the evaluation of failure (FEF) in business containing four levels of analysis and two scenes of action was used (see Figure 31.3). The four levels of analysis consist of the level "people", "structure", "process", and "outcome". These four levels are connected with two scenes of action, one internal to an organisational context (OrgIntern) and one external to an organisational context (OrgExtern). Table 34.3 in the Appendix provides a detailed overview of the research articles that are grouped according to the specific levels of analysis addressed by each article.

Figure 31.3

A Framework Structure for the Evaluation of Failure Situations



The listing of the content coding categories (see Table 34.1 in the Appendix) contains the codes for the two dimensions. In addition, this listing includes the definitions for the description of the formal properties of failure situations involving the object of action, the unit of action, the actor, and the approach to overcome the specific failure situation. For the further processing of the data material obtained with the SLR, the Plan Analysis approach (Caspar, 2008a, 2018a, 2018b) was used to elaborate the Plan Structure behind the findings about failure in the research literature. For this purpose, the 13 research articles selected from the SLR (see Table 31.2) were coded according to the structure of the failure evaluation framework (FEF). Table 34.4 in the Appendix provides an overview of the portfolio with the selected research articles with a shortened version of the extracted text passages related to the FEF and the content coding categories. To assess the coding reliability and thus the percentage of agreement in the assignment of the levels of analysis and the formal elements of a failure situation to each article, a second trained coder from the Department of Management at the University of Bern coded one third of the sample. The percentage agreement between the two coders showed a high inter-coder reliability (ICR: 0.94) of the nominally scaled dichotomous data (Mayring, 2010; Wirtz & Caspar, 2002). Any differences in coding were discussed between the two independent coders and the items were revisited (ICR: 1.0). In a further step, the results of the qualitative content analysis were paraphrased into a statement for each level of analysis in each research article (see Table 31.2), which in this case are framed from the perspective of a leader in an intra-organisational context. Table 34.5 in the Appendix gives an overview of the paraphrased motivations and behaviours for each of the 13 articles describing the elements for the Plan Structure. Only with the last step (see Table 31.2) the consolidated paraphrases could appropriately be transformed into a means-purpose hierarchy as the basis for determining the motivational structures and Plans in connection with the observable behaviour within a Plan Analysis (Caspar, 2018a).

Failure manifests itself in the course of a transformation process through the behaviour of the actors involved in a social unit. Building on trusting relationships, the basic human needs can be met through appropriate leadership in critical work situations and pave the way for innovative performance. Thus, it is a matter of defining the motivational structures, together with the behavioural strategies and internal mental states that underlie the demonstrated behaviour of leaders dealing with failure situations in the company and acting in an intra-organisational setting for the purpose of innovation (Caspar, 2008a, 2018a, 2018b). The steps defining a Plan Structure are listed in Table 31.2.

Table 31.2*Steps in Defining a Plan Structure*

Step 1	Data collection	Conduct a systematic literature review (SLR) to produce a focused and quality-assured collection of research articles on the topic of failure in business (Denyer & Tranfield, 2009; Tranfield et al., 2003).
Step 2	Content analysis	Provide a qualitative content analysis using the technique of inductive categorisation (Mayring, 2010).
Step 3	Categorisation	Define the formal elements for each research article (see Table 34.1 in the Appendix): For each research article, define the central actor in dealing with failure, either as an individual, a leader, or a company. For each research article, locate failure either in an internal organisational context (OrgIntern) or in an external context (OrgExtern).
Step 4	Paraphrasing	Extract text passages (MAXQDA, n.d.) and paraphrase them into a statement for each level of analysis "people", "structure", "process", and "outcome" (Table 34.5 in the Appendix)
Step 5	Plan Structure	Condense all phrases (imperatives and indicatives) into a prototypical Plan Structure (see Figure 32.2) for failure analysis as a tool in management consulting (Caspar, 2008a, 2018a, 2018b).

In summary, after conducting the qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2010) the contents of the levels of analysis of "people", "structure", and "process", were condensed into a means-purpose hierarchy in the form of imperatives according to the Plan Analysis approach (Caspar, 2018a). In addition, the observable behaviour according to the circumscribed level

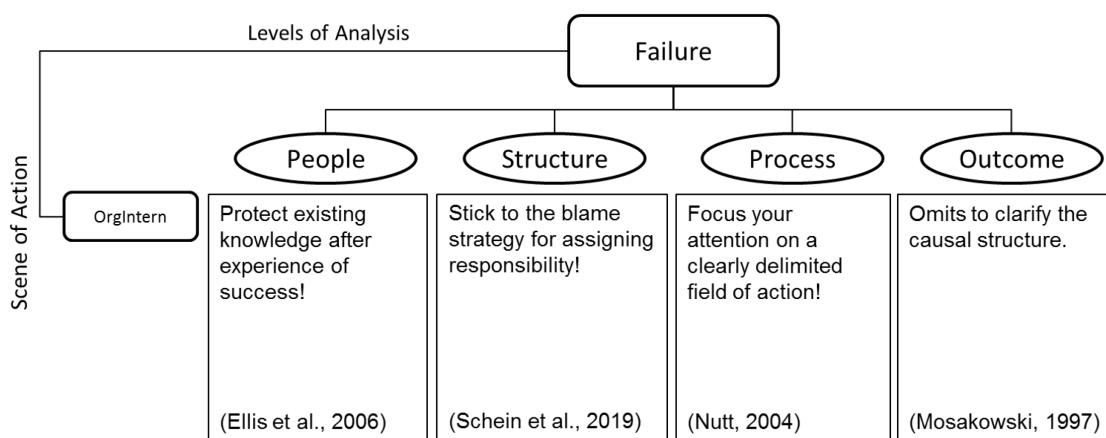
of analysis "outcomes" were condensed in the form of indicatives, which represents the behavioural layer of the Plan Structure in the Plan Analysis (Caspar, 2018a).

32. Plan Analysis

A more in-depth look at the research articles dealing with the actor leader as an active agent in an internal organisational context seems to reveal some insights for the construction of a prototypical Plan Structure, the implications of which support failure situations. After conducting a qualitative content analysis using the technique of inductive content analysis following Mayring (2010), the extracted text passages were bundled into a statement for each level of analysis. After this step, the resulting paraphrased content could be used to define the Plan Structure according to Caspar (Caspar, 2008a, 2018a, 2018b). Figure 32.1 illustrates for each level of analysis by way of examples the elements of the motivational foundations with the levels of analysis "people", "structure", and "process" as well as the level of analysis "outcome" for the observable behaviour, which thus determine the Plan Structure in the Plan Analysis (Caspar, 2018a) .

Figure 32.1

The Framework for Failure Evaluation as a Basis for the Plan Analysis



The components of the Plan Structure were bundled from the statements of the coded text passages as a paraphrase, so that based on this, the means-purpose relations for the motivational structure coupled with behavioural strategies could be derived according to the principles of the Plan Analysis (Caspar, 2018a). Table 32.1 illustrates the procedure for deriving the components of the means-purpose relations of a Plan Structure with text passages from selected research articles, one for each level of analysis.

Table 32.1

Paraphrased Statements as Ingredients to the Plan Structure

ID	Research Article	Extracted Text Passages: Outcome	Paraphrase	Plan Structure: Indicative
5	(Mosakowski, 1997)	<p>The ability to rule out distributions of future outcomes will increase the more one knows of the causal structure and inputs to that structure.</p> <p>The decision maker might have developed a complete causal map of the future causal structure, but, depending on the resolution of future natural events, discoveries, and changing preferences, he may be able to eliminate many distributions of possible outcomes from this causal map.</p>	Weakness in developing and updating a causal map	Omits to clarify the causal structure. (5)
ID	Research Article	Extracted Text Passages: People	Paraphrase	Plan Structure: Imperative
25	(Ellis et al., 2006)	<p>Failures may evoke high fear of invalidity in individuals who are aware of the fact that their prior closure proved to be inadequate.</p> <p>More specifically, the fear that their current knowledge is not relevant after failure stems from the feeling that the knowledge structure on which their performance was based was flawed and from the fact that their expectancy to succeed has been disconfirmed.</p>	Decreased need to elaborate on their knowledge cause of success	Protect existing knowledge after experience of success! (PE, 25)

ID	Research Article	Extracted Text Passages: Structure	Paraphrase	Plan Structure: Imperative
29	(Schein et al., 2019)	If an organization lacks insight into those who deserve to be praised or blamed, a broad apportionment strategy might retain poorly performing members following success and remove excellently performing members following failure. Not only does widespread blame create toxic "blame cultures", ... our models suggest that it also cultivates suboptimal performance over time.	Failed apportionment strategy of responsibility	Stick to the blame strategy for assigning responsibility! (ST, 29)
ID	Research Article	Extracted Text Passages: Process	Paraphrase	Plan Structure: Imperative
23	(Nutt, 2004)	Decision-makers using solicitation develop a needs list, collect ideas, and assess what is offered. Decisions driven by a single idea have another pitfall: There is no clear picture of expected results. Decision-makers are either vague about this or unwilling to disclose their true intentions. Benchmarking is another way to search, found in 25 per cent of the decisions. Here an organization thought to be successful is visited to get decision-making ideas.	Limitation of the search for alternatives	Focus your attention on a clearly delimited field of action! (PR, 23)

Following the principles of the Plan Analysis approach (Caspar, 2008b), the motivational structure as a motivational overlay of behaviour can be traced back further to the basic human needs (Epstein, 2003; Gasiet, 1981; Grawe, 1998, 2004). In their instrumentality, the means-purpose relationships serve to satisfy the affected basic human needs in a given and changing environment (Caspar, 2018a, 2018b). The resulting Plans evolve in their instrumentality based on past experience and can be extended and generalised by a leader in an adaptive, but also in a maladaptive way (Caspar, 2008b). In conclusion, the Plan Analysis ap-

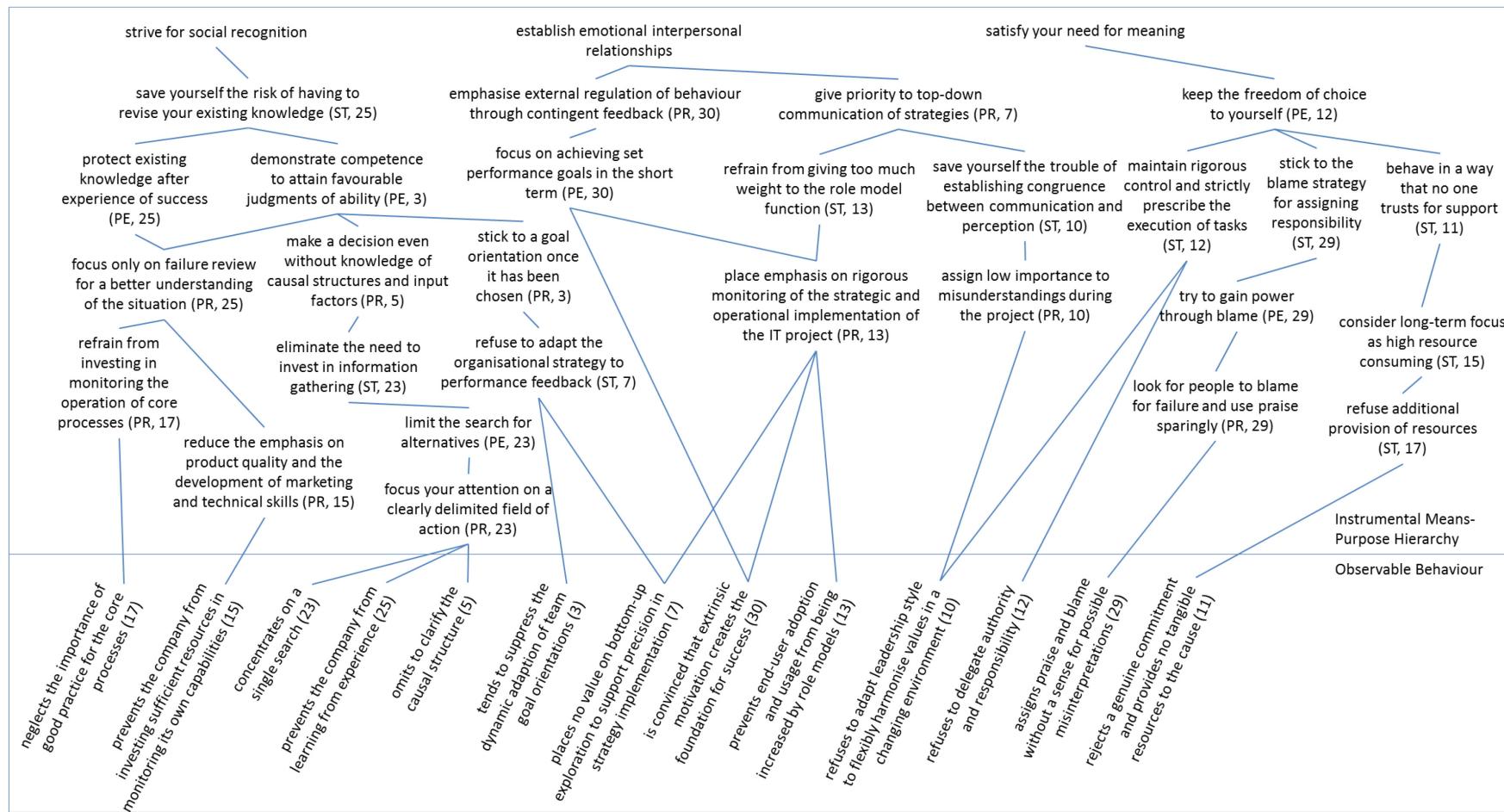
proach can be used to inductively infer conscious and unconscious motives bottom-up based on the observable behaviour (Caspar, 2008b). In other words, the prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business provides guidance for a company's boards of directors in strategic decision-making to identify disruptions in a transformation process at an early stage and to identify intervention options to secure the direction of innovation.

32.1 Prototypical Plan Structure for Failure in Business

Building on the findings of Part I and Part II of the dissertation project, Part III is designed to apply Caspar's approach of Plan Analysis (Caspar, 2018a) to define a prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business (see Figure 32.2). This prototypical representation of the motivational structure with the behavioural strategies underlying failure in business that manifests in failure situations in business can help to identify the self-limiting and inhibiting tendencies of leaders in critical work situations. The idea behind this is to provide the strategic management of a company with a practical means of identifying opportunities for intervention as early as possible in the course of change processes. Effective failure management strengthens the ability of a company to perform innovatively. The in-depth analysis has brought to light four subject areas that are related to the behaviour of leaders in an internal organisational context of critical work situations: "learning", "communication", "motivation", and "delegation". In the prototypical Plan Structure (see Figure 32.2) the information shown within the brackets refer to the identification number of the consulted research articles and the motivational components in short form for the levels of analyses: ST: "structure", PE: "people", and PR: "process" with the level of analysis "outcome" without short form.

Usefulness and flexibility of a Plan Structure both depend on the leader's experiential learning in designing processes in critical work situations. From a psychological perspective, a leader's Plan Structure can therefore develop for future situations in an adaptive but also in

a maladaptive way, reinforcing the self-limiting and inhibiting tendencies (Caspar, 2008b). In this way, the operability of a Plan Structure is determined by the number of upward and downward ramifications. On the one hand, upward ramification is provided by the fact that an action can serve not only one but several purposes. From the actor's point of view, this increases the usefulness of the chosen behaviour and may thus be taken as an indicator of its multiple determination (Caspar, 2018a). On the other hand, branching downwards ensures different sub-Plans with the corresponding means to accomplish the actor's goals, which increases the actor's flexibility. In the following, the four subject areas discovered through the application of the Plan Analysis approach (Caspar, 2018a) in the research literature examined on failure in business are presented. They represent the four fundamental motivational drivers for the behaviour by leaders in critical work situations. They build the four pillars on which the motivational structure and behavioural strategies underlying failure in business rests. As Miller, Galanter, and Pribram (1960) pointed out, there are values and intentions behind behaviour that form the "Image of the desired outcome" in a specific situation, thus revealing the self-limiting and inhibiting tendencies that ultimately can be traced back to the basic human needs. In summary, for each of these subject areas, a strategy is proposed as an intervention option with proposals for management boards to gradually develop the company's corporate culture.

Figure 32.2*Failure in Business: Prototypical Plan Structure*

32.2 Learning

The Plan Analysis first focuses on findings on learning, which involves aspects that can lead to failure in critical work situations. Table 32.2 gives an overview of the motives and behavioural strategies behind the learning-specific tendencies of leaders that result from the paraphrased statements of the research articles on the levels of analysis "people", "structure", and "process" leading to "outcome" as the observed behaviour. Figure 32.3 shows an excerpt from the prototypical Plan Structure with the hierarchical means-purpose relationships as an indication of the motivational foundations of managers with the underlying behavioural strategies related to the subject area "learning."

The ability to change goal orientation in innovation projects at key points in an innovation process through ambidextrous leadership and the resulting reflexive team processes are important success factors for radical innovation (Alexander & van Knippenberg, 2014; Benner & Tushman, 2003; Hardy, 1996; March, 1991; Melnyk et al., 2010; Tushman & O'Reilly III, 1996). The approach to managing failure is to develop the ability to flexibly switch between learning and performance goal orientation (see Figure 32.3: observable behaviour: 3). Explorative behaviour supports search, risk-taking, experimentation, and innovation. Exploitative behaviour supports refinement, efficiency, implementation, and execution. In Alexander's and van Knippenberg's (2014) concept, teams with ambidextrous leadership that dynamically switch between a learning orientation during idea development and a proof-of-performance orientation during idea commercialisation are more likely to successfully achieve the strategic goal of radical innovation. As Caspar (2018a, p. 118) notes on the topic of the therapeutic relationship, this connection of flexible adaption to the needs of the situation without losing sight of the strategic orientation has also been demonstrated in a comparable form for interactional behavioural therapy in studies from the late 1980s. This contrasts

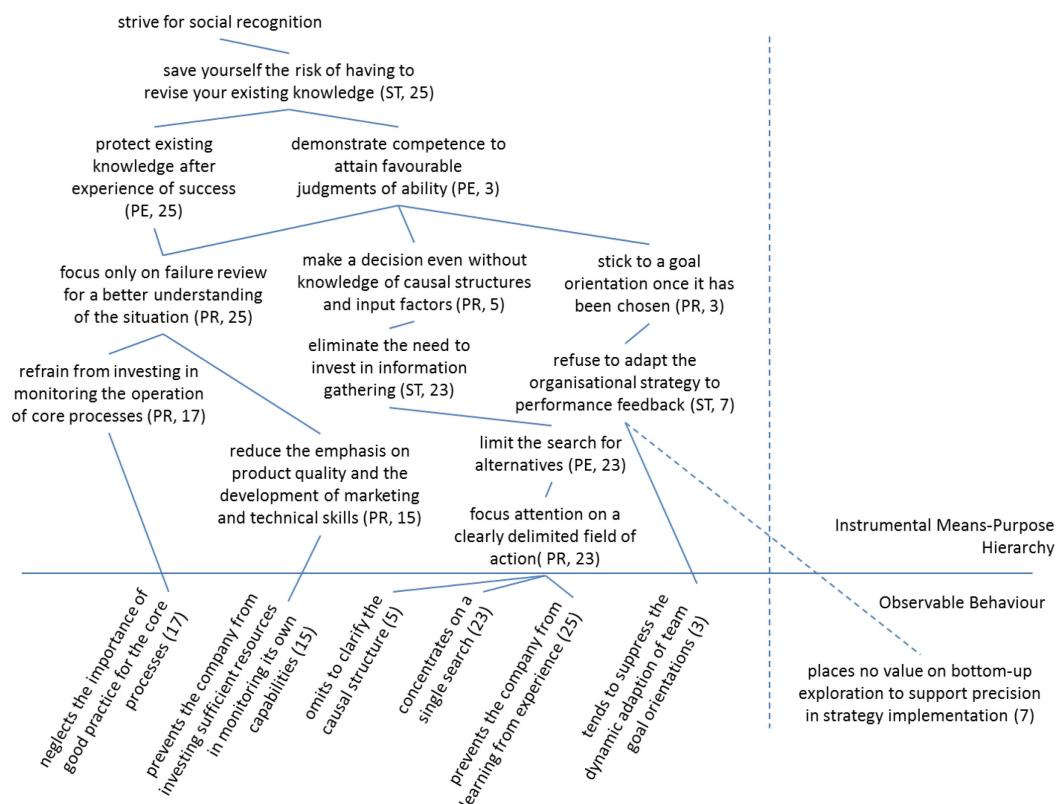
with teams led by leaders who maintain a fixed team goal orientation (see Figure 32.3: observable behaviour: 25) throughout the entire change process (see Figure 32.3: PR, 3). In this way, these team leaders try to avoid demonstrating incompetence (see Figure 32.3: PE, 3), which is associated with unfavourable evaluations and threatens the basic need of social recognition (Epstein, 2003; Gasiet, 1981; Grawe, 1998, 2004). In addition, Ellis and his colleagues (Ellis et al., 2006) argue that a guided after event review (AER) can be used to identify the causes of the to-be-explained events for both the performance process and the performance outcome. Leaders preventing organisations from also learning from successful experiences (see Figure 32.3: ST, 25) lack therefore the opportunity to deepen their knowledge to better understand the internal and specific influencing factors in critical work situations (see Figure 32.3: PE, 25). They focus instead in adjusting their behaviour according to the causes identified in failure situations (see Figure 32.3: PR, 25). As emphasised by Mosakowski (1997), they underestimate the value of determining the causal structures (see Figure 32.3: PR, 5). To sum up, lack of investment in monitoring the functioning of core processes (see Figure 32.3: PR, 17), but also in product quality and the skills to market and produce them (see Figure 32.3: PR, 15) affects performance efficiency (Chiesa et al., 1996; Song et al., 1997). Complementary to the unwillingness to invest in improving the knowledge base and to monitor process quality, learning can also be hampered by rejection of information openness (see Figure 32.3: PR, 23). By focusing on a single search method (see Figure 32.3: PE, 23) and refusing to consider alternatives (see Figure 32.3: ST, 23), the quality of strategic decisions is limited to randomly available options (Nutt, 2004). Refusal to remain open to information and to adapt a chosen strategy when performance feedback suggests it (see Figure 32.3: ST, 7), impairs experiential learning (Lee & Puranam, 2016) neglecting the value of accurate strategy communication. Consequently, the roots to experiential learning reside in effective strategy communication. Behaviour emerges in the interlocking of the idea of a de-

sired state with the iteratively executed and recursively constructed Plan (Miller et al., 1960). As shown in Part I of the dissertation project, the iterative interplay of knowledge activation and knowledge acquisition through process design is the key to self-growth based on the development of the human knowledge base and thus the keystone for creative and innovative problem-solving behaviour (see Figure 32.3: link to the subject area "communication": observable behaviour: 7). In conclusion, this means that the activation and acquisition of knowledge through new life situations form cognitive structures that, on the one hand, trigger adaption processes of mental schemata through assimilation and accommodation (Piaget, 1976) and, on the other hand, enable creative action and innovative performance guided by the intentionality of human behaviour searching for consistency as a universal, pervasive regulatory principle (Grawe, 1998, 2004).

Table 32.2*Learning Aspects in Failure Management*

ID	Research Article	Year	Instrumental Means-Purpose Hierarchy	Observable Behaviour
3	(Alexander & van Knippenberg, 2014)	2014	demonstrate competence and attain favourable judgments of ability (PE, 3)	tends to suppress the dynamic adaption of team goal orientations (3)
			stick to a goal orientation once chosen (PR, 3)	
5	(Mosakowski, 1997)	1997	make a decision even without knowledge of causal structures and input factors (PR, 5)	omits to clarify the causal structure (5)
7	(Lee & Puranam, 2016)	2016	refuse to adapt the organisational strategy to performance feedback (ST, 7)	Link to the subject area "communication":
				places no value on bottom-up exploration to support precision in strategy implementation (7)
15	(Song et al., 1997)	1997	reduce the emphasis on product quality and the development of marketing and technical skills (PR, 15)	prevents the company from investing sufficient resources in monitoring its own capabilities (15)

ID	Research Article (continued)	Year	Instrumental Means-Purpose Hierarchy	Observable Behaviour
17	(Chiesa et al., 1996)	1996	refrain from investing in monitoring the operation of core processes (PR, 17)	neglects the importance of good practice for the core processes (17)
23	(Nutt, 2004)	2004	eliminate the need to invest in information gathering (ST, 23)	concentrates on a single search (23)
			limit the search for alternatives (PE, 23)	
			focus your attention on a clearly delimited field of action (PR, 23)	
25	(Ellis et al., 2006)	2006	save yourself the risk of having to revise your existing knowledge (ST, 25)	prevents the organisation from learning from experience (25)
			protect the existing knowledge after experience of success (PE, 25)	
			focus only on failure review for a better understanding of the situation (PR, 25)	

Figure 32.3*Failure Plan Structure: Subject Area Learning*

Strategy "Learning": Accept Feedback to Discover Alternatives

The connection of the subject area "learning" with the subject area "communication" signals the importance between the willingness to receive information on the one hand and the efforts to communicate on the other hand. Avoiding precise strategy communication means that leaders risk not involving all stakeholders and thus ignoring feedback from bottom-up exploration to better support strategy implementation. It also means that these leaders block search for alternatives and learning from feedback. The basic social need for social recognition (Gasiet, 1981) as well as the need for self-esteem enhancement (Epstein, 2003) and self-esteem protection (Grawe, 1998, 2004) are at the root of this dangerous combination with fatal consequences for the development of the company. Effective strategy communication has in consequence two main beneficial effects: it respects the inclusion of feedback from outside, and it opens up for alternatives in the search of innovative performance.

Proposition 1: Build up a Learning Corporate Culture

The strategic management of a company can be advised to focus on cultivating a corporate culture that supports learning processes and applies risk tolerance in emotionally challenging work situations. In this way, a corporate culture based on learning can develop over time, laying the foundation for satisfying the basic human need for social recognition.

32.3 Communication

The Plan Analysis focuses in a further step on findings on the subject area "communication", which involves aspects that can lead to failure in critical work situations. Table 32.3 gives an overview of the motives and behavioural strategies behind the communication activities of leaders deduced from the paraphrased statements of the research articles on the levels of analysis "people", "structure", and "process" leading to "outcome" as the observed

behaviour. Figure 32.4 shows an excerpt from the prototypical Plan Structure with the hierarchical means-purpose relationships as an indication of the motivational foundations of managers with the underlying behavioural strategies related to the subject area "learning ""communication".

In information systems development (ISD) projects, congruence of communication and perception is crucial (see Figure 32.4: ST, 10). If the project leader's coordinating and motivating activities are not perceived as appropriate by team members (see Figure 32.4: observable behaviour: 10), the project leader runs the risks of losing control over team member actions, process implementation, and resource utilisation, which jeopardises a project's success (Narayanaswamy et al., 2013). Furthermore, he runs the risks of failing to satisfy the need for meaning throughout in project team (Gasiet, 1981). Control loss is thus an intermediate measure in managing failure, indicating a diminished shared understanding between the leader and the team members involved in a change process (see Figure 32.4: PR 10). Congruence between communication and perception reflects therefore the degree of agreement between people and the project leader's use of specific interventions in a major project by measuring loss of control as an intermediate outcome. Congruence as an indicator of the fit of organisational elements has already been used by Nadler and Tushman (1980). Their congruence model provides a qualitative analysis of the fit between four organisational components, namely between actors, tasks, formal structures, and informal structures. According to their experience in management consulting, the quality of congruence between these components determines the effectiveness of a company's defined strategy in transforming inputs into outputs. Ignoring misunderstandings and omitting to flexibly harmonise values in a changing environment (see Figure 32.4: PR, 10) means at the same time missing opportunities for further development (see Figure 32.4: observable behaviour: 10). Precision in strategy communication helps to identify ambiguities (see Figure 32.4: PR, 7) presupposes the willingness to

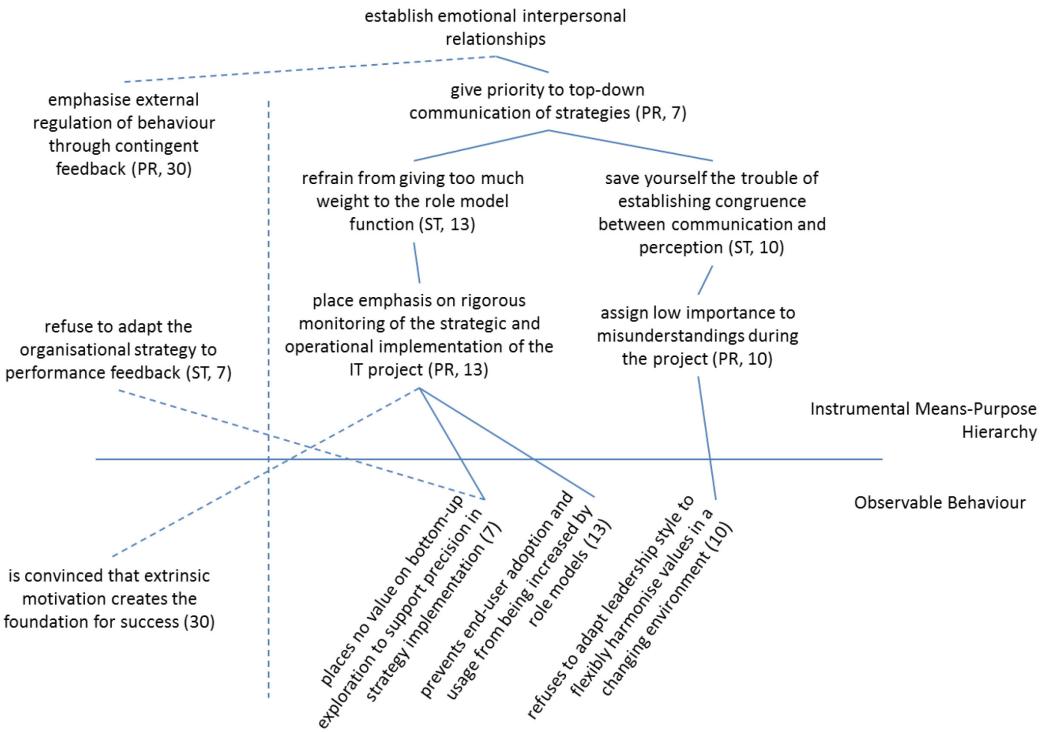
invest in open communication and thus motivates people through charismatic leadership (see Figure 32.4: PR, 13) and readiness to adapt the strategy to the needs of those affected (see Figure 32.4: learning, ST, 7). Where beliefs and actions are separated due to the hierarchical multi-agent organisation of work situations (Lee & Puranam, 2016; Mosakowski, 1997; Simon, 1962), accurate strategy communication is essential to identify and update ambiguous beliefs about group performance (Lee & Puranam, 2016). As Bass (1995) recommends for a transformational leadership style, communication works best through leaders who act as role models (see Figure 32.4: ST, 13). For example, and as emphasised by Neufeld and his colleagues (2007), idealised influence exerted by an accepted role model promotes the acceptance and use of new information systems with changed work structures and processes in the company (see Figure 32.4: observable behaviour: 7). If leaders limit themselves to tight monitoring of strategic and operational implementation (see Figure 32.4: PR, 13), they run the risk that new information systems will not be accepted because of the changes they cause in work processes. Diffusion of an innovation is a process of uncertainty reduction established through communication over time (Rogers, 2003). In addition, through their role model function, leaders can sustainably support the basic need for emotional interpersonal relationships (Gasiet, 1981). Idealised influence combined with individual consideration helps to strengthen relatedness within the company and maintain contact with the employees affected by a change (Bass, 1995; Gagné & Deci, 2005; Kelman, 1958). According to Rogers' understanding of the diffusion process of innovations, what is perceived as new by the members of a social community must be flanked by communication efforts through different lines of communication within the social network (Rogers, 2003).

As already highlighted in the subject area "learning", the emergence of an organisational learning culture between employees at all levels of the hierarchy (Bleicher, 1999; Schein, 1985, 2016) requires the two-way dialogue code of practice for transparent communication

(Moynihan et al., 2013), which is equivalent to building therapeutic alliances in clinical psychology settings (Safran & Muran, 1998). Action-guiding motivation arises when mutual feedback strengthens the perception of one's own competence and respect is shown to the person acting (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Gasiet, 1981). Consequently, the action-guiding motivation for employees' behaviour is based on feedback (see Figure 32.4, link to the subject area "motivation": PR, 30) given in trusting relationships by leaders who act as role models and respect individual points of view (see Figure 32.4, link to the subject area "motivation": observable behaviour: 30). Useful feedback is situational, concrete, subjective, and appreciative (Scharlau & Rossié, 2016) and goes beyond externally controlled motivation by promoting intrinsically motivated behaviour. In addition, communication work triggers valuable feed-forward processes that enable meaning-oriented, purposeful action (Gasiet, 1981; Miller et al., 1960; von Cranach, 1986; von Cranach et al., 1980) and thus promote employee commitment (Bass, 1995; Gagné & Deci, 2005). As shown in Part I of this dissertation project, reciprocity of trust is only meaningful when social structures, such as groups or companies, strive for jointly developed and accepted visions of the future (Miller et al., 1960; Rogers, 2003; von Cranach, 1986). Under pandemic conditions, for example, vaccination against the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) is a social task that each individual is called upon to engage to achieve the goal of herd immunity: "If I get vaccinated against Covid-19 out of self-interest, I can in turn contribute to the protection of others". The pursuit of jointly developed and mutually accepted visions of the future requires leadership as an essential function of group action with guiding, energising, controlling, and evaluating properties (von Cranach, 1986) as a pivot for creative and innovative problem-solving behaviour.

Table 32.3*Communication Aspects in Failure Management*

ID	Research Article	Year	Instrumental Means-Purpose Hierarchy	Observable Behaviour
10	(Narayanaswamy et al., 2013)	2013	save yourself the trouble of establishing congruence between communication and perception (ST, 10)	refuses to adapt leadership style to flexibly harmonise values in a changing environment (10)
			assign low importance to misunderstandings during the project (PR, 10)	
13	(Neufeld et al., 2007)	2007	refrain from giving too much weight to the role model function (ST, 13)	prevents end-user adoption and usage from being increased by role models (13)
			place emphasis on rigorous monitoring of the strategic and operational implementation of the IT project (PR, 13)	
7	(Lee & Puranam, 2016)	2016	give priority to top-down communication of strategies (PR, 7)	Link to the subject area "learning":
			refuse to adapt the organisational strategy to performance feedback (ST, 7)	places no value on bottom-up exploration to support precision in strategy implementation (7)
30	(Taylor et al., 2014)	2014	emphasise external regulation of behaviour through contingent feedback (PR, 30)	Link to the subject area "motivation":
				is convinced that extrinsic motivation creates the foundation for success (30)

Figure 32.4*Failure Plan Structure: Subject Area Communication***Strategy "Communication": Involve Stakeholders Respectfully**

The connection of the subject area "communication" with the subject area "motivation" points to the importance of transformational leaders in their role model function to communicate transparently. It also points to the value of their ability to satisfy the basic need for emotional interpersonal relationships in everyday business life, thus promoting entrepreneurial behaviour. "Idealised charismatic influence" and "individualised consideration" are the two factors in transformational leadership style (Bass, 1995; Bass & Avolio, 1993) that reinforce people's basic emotional and social needs (Gasieć, 1981). Ignoring misunderstandings not only means that leaders are unable to identify alternative ideas for a desired outcome, but also that they disregard the ideas of the involved parties. This also means that they are unable to provide a sense of commitment to foster organisational citizenship (Gagné & Deci, 2005) and

thus overcome self-interest (Neufeld et al., 2007). By acting as role models, leaders have the opportunity to express respect through individual consideration of team members and third parties involved (Neufeld et al., 2007). Insufficient responsiveness to those affected by change processes (Bass, 1995; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass et al., 2003), disregard for their needs and, consequently, a lack of trust in their relationships (Mayer et al., 1995) can impair future performance motivation as the basic human needs for emotional interpersonal relationships and social recognition are violated (Gasiel, 1981).

Proposition 2: Build up a Trusting Corporate Culture

The strategic management of a company can be advised to focus on cultivating a trust-building corporate culture that supports mutual respect between the leaders and subordinates in challenging work situations. In this way, relationships of trust can develop over time, providing the basis for satisfying the basic emotional and social needs.

32.4 Motivation

The Plan Analysis continues in a further step on findings on the subject area "motivation", which involves aspects that can lead to failure in critical work situations. Table 32.4 gives an overview of the motives and behavioural strategies behind the motivation activities of leaders deduced from the paraphrased statements of the research articles on the levels of analysis "people", "structure", and "process" leading to "outcome" as the observed behaviour. Figure 32.5 shows an excerpt from the prototypical Plan Structure with the hierarchical means-purpose relationships as an indication of the motivational foundations of managers with the underlying behavioural strategies related to the subject area "motivation".

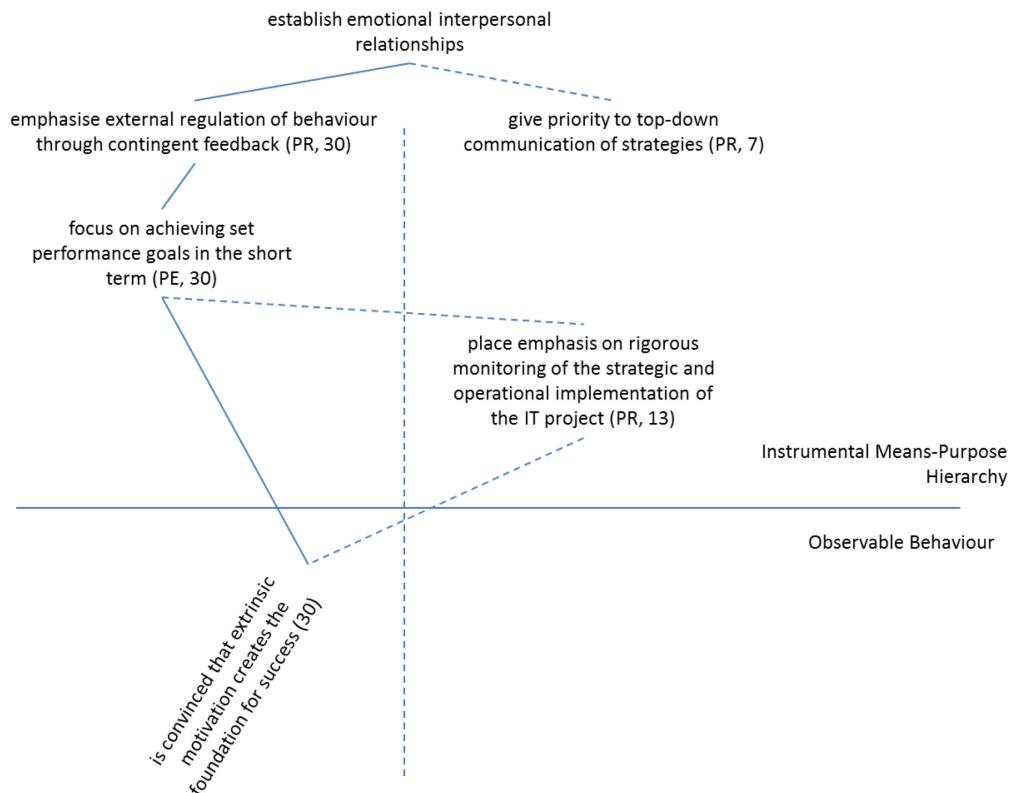
Teachers who ignore feelings of alienation and incompetence in their students during school time by emphasising external regulation through contingent feedback (see Figure 32.5:

PR, 30) underestimate the risk of demotivation and decline in commitment to the acquisition of knowledge and skills in future performance situations (see Figure 32.5: PE, 30). According to Gagné and Deci (2005), motivation can be promoted by a supportive work climate with autonomy-supportive leadership behaviour. This corresponds to the development of intrinsic motivation that leads to a sense of competence and autonomy when leaders are aware of their transformative contribution to innovative performance and perceive their role as analogous to parents towards their children (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989). Through a liberal learning environment as a sphere of social influence on human development (Lewin, 1926, 2012), it should be possible to strengthen the learners' ability to develop intrinsic motivation and to inspire self-confidence for future performance (see Figure 32.5: observable behaviour: 30). That learners' behaviour should be based solely on their causality orientation as a personal characteristic has not been confirmed (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Rather, for Gagné and Deci, it is a matter of capturing the degree of self-determination in a specific situation and thus distinguishing between autonomous and controlled motivation. States and traits are in constant interaction. A locus of causality perceived as external could undermine intrinsic motivation. It is therefore a matter of investing in moving people from extrinsically motivated learning to intrinsically motivated learning. The results of the field experiment by Andersen and Pallesen (2008) in the government and university research sector in Denmark indicate that employees who perceived financial incentives as beneficial and the higher they were, the more this situation motivated these researchers to increase their publication activity. For the divergent results on the effect of financial incentives on labour productivity, Andersen and Pallesen refer to Frey's dual-impact concept of the "crowding effect" (Frey, 1997). The differentiated view of the situation allows an explanation of why, despite financial incentives, there is not always an increase in productivity as expected by the standard economic position. Only if financial incentives are perceived as supportive, a "crowd in" effect can strengthen intrinsic motivation and bring

about an increase in work performance. However, if financial incentives are perceived as controlling, intrinsic motivation is undermined and a "crowd out" effect occurs. In that case, work performance decreases as financial incentives increase. The interaction of incentive and perception makes the economic effect disappear because it is the dual effect that makes the difference. The perception as supportive, combined with the strength of the incentive, leads to more publications in the result. Supportive leadership behaviour, as highlighted by Bass (Bass, 1995; Bass et al., 2003), can lead to students gaining insight into their own behaviour and developing the intention to gain more knowledge about the world through idealised charismatic influence and individual consideration. As shown in Part I of the dissertation project, trust primarily contributes to the reduction of complexity (Luhmann, 2014). Thus, according to Krystec (1999), trust increases the willingness to take responsibility by respecting the basic human needs for social recognition and emotional human relationships on the one hand and by promoting a sustainable motivation for dialogue at and between all levels of the organisational hierarchy on the other hand. Consequently, the roots of motivation reside in the ability of leaders to create a work environment conducive to autonomy (Gagné & Deci, 2005), in which they act as role models (Bass, 1995) and show respect for individual perspectives (see Figure 32.5: link to the subject area communication: PR, 13).

Table 32.4*Motivation Aspects in Failure Management*

ID	Research Article	Year	Instrumental Means-Purpose Hierarchy	Observable Behaviour
30	(Taylor et al., 2014)	2014	emphasize external regulation of behaviour through contingent fee (PR, 30)	is convinced that extrinsic motivation creates the foundation for success (30)
			focus on achieving set performance goals in the short term (PE, 30)	Link to the subject area "communication":
7	(Lee & Puranam, 2016)	2016	give priority to top-down communication of strategies (PR, 7)	
13	(Neufeld et al., 2007)	2007	place emphasis on rigorous monitoring of the strategic and operational implementation of the IT project (PR, 13)	

Figure 32.5*Failure Plan Structure: Subject Area Motivation*

Strategy "Motivation": Reduce Complexity in Critical Work Situations

The connection of the subject area "motivation" with the subject area "communication" points to the role model function of leaders in communication work as an instrument for reducing complexity in critical work situations (Bleicher, 1999; Krystec, 1999; Luhmann, 2014). Leaders who take communication work seriously and are able to engage in new developments as role models (Bass, 1995; Rogers, 2003) while considering the concerns of the members of staff make a significant motivational contribution to the company by addressing the basic emotional and social needs (Epstein, 2003; Gasiet, 1981; Grawe, 1998, 2004) and shaping a trust-based corporate culture through mutual respect (Mayer et al., 1995; Schein, 1985, 2016; Schoormann et al., 2007).

Proposition 3: Build up a Motivating Work Environment

The strategic management of a company can be recommended to focus on creating a motivating work environment that promotes an independent causality orientation and thus differentiates between autonomous and controlled motivation, conducive to the mediation of intrinsic motivation. In this way, trusting relationships can develop over time if the company succeeds in demonstrating willingness to go beyond the company's self-interest and advance the organisation's corporate citizenship through exemplary leadership behaviour.

32.5 Delegation

When delegating authority and responsibility, it is crucial to maintain a balance between power and coexistence between leaders and subordinates at all hierarchical levels of a company. Table 32.5 gives an overview of the motives and behaviour strategies behind leaders' delegation activities. These were deduced from the paraphrased statements of the research articles on the levels of analysis "people", "structure", and "process" leading to "out-

come" as the observed behaviour. Figure 32.6 shows an excerpt from the prototypical Plan Structure with the hierarchical means-purpose relationships as an indication of the motivational foundations of managers with the underlying behavioural strategies related to the subject area "delegation".

If there is no delegation, no meaningful initiative can be developed and no coping skills can be unleashed (see Figure 32.6: observable behaviour: 12). Following Eilon's theoretical considerations (Eilon, 1969), the question is how much delegation is compulsory for sustainable management and innovative development of the company (see Figure 32.6: ST, 12). Restricting the freedom of choice for a lower hierarchical level implies that stakeholders are denied active participation in the planning process (see Figure 32.6: PE, 12). In Eilon's view, planning requires three main steps (Eilon, 1969). The first step concerns the definition of the problem and the objectives to be achieved in the specific case. In a second step, the possible means of solving the issue are determined, along with the available resources and the limiting conditions. The third step involves determining how to proceed. Delegation therefore consists of planning responsibilities and regulating their execution in graduated instructions. These instructions range from mandatory with full specification to non-specified without restriction of the course of action. If complete delegation is practiced, the higher management level loses its authority to act and runs the risk of being questioned in its function and existence. To overcome this dilemma, the interplay in delegation is necessary. As Caspar (2018a) points out, a Plan Structure must always be understood in a specific context in which different actors interact with each other in interlocking Plans. It is not about glorifying the role of leadership. As Alvesson and Kärreman (2016) note, leadership must be understood as central. However, without the transfer of authority and responsibility from one echelon of leadership to a subordinate level, it is impossible to produce meaningful initiatives and situation-specific problem-solving skills in the company. According to an empirical study by Schilit and Locke (1982),

the ability of subordinates to exert upward influence is considered an essential component of organisational effectiveness. By applying Flanagan's critical incident technique (Flanagan, 1954), the two researchers identified an impressive amount of upward influence strategies to initiate personal or organisational change. These attempts to upward influence were not always successful. Most of the failed initiatives were assessed by the supervisors as lack of competence demonstrated by the subordinate or, conversely, as narrow-mindedness of the supervisor in accepting the proposed change. In essence, Schilit and Locke (1982) follow Vroom's (1964) hypothesis that such attributions might be due to an individual defensive attitude to protect self-esteem. Individual defensiveness also applies to leaders who refuse to adapt their leadership style to flexibly harmonise values in a changing environment by ignoring misunderstandings. This leads to a further example for Caspar's interlocking Plans (Caspar, 2018a) referring to the interaction between the project leader and team members in information systems development (ISD) projects (Narayanaswamy et al., 2013). Crucial in this context is the ability of the project leader to influence the performance of the team and balance the values of the different stakeholders in the ISD project in response to uncertainty and changing requirements in a dynamic environment. This is necessary, according to Narayanaswamy, Grover, and Henry (2013), to minimise loss control during ISD projects. The three authors propagate a congruence model for leader-member exchange (LMX) that calls for flexible leadership in a system of relationships interacting with the environment (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). According to their model, congruence reflects the degree of agreement and shared understanding within the dyadic relationships in ISD projects. Congruence can be established through coordinating and motivating interventions by the project leader, establishing this way communication and perceptual congruence.

Seen from a broader perspective, in the transformational leadership model (Bass, 1995; Bass & Avolio, 1993), the role of leaders in communicating goals and expectations exerts an

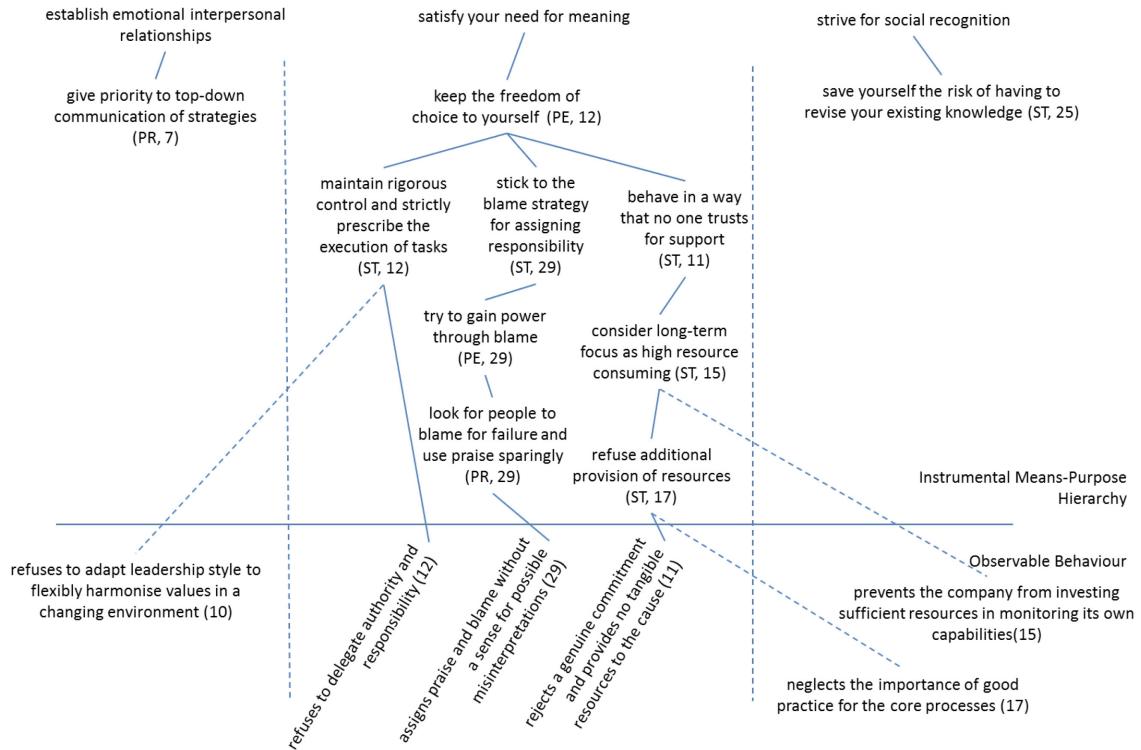
inspirational effect on motivation and promotes problem-solving with intelligence and rationality. In addition to the idealised influence in form of the role model function and the individual consideration by addressing emotions and values, two additional factors in transformational leadership style, inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation, can be targeted through skilful delegation in the service of the company's innovative performance. Successful upward influence initiatives aimed at introducing a new policy or increasing productivity can be seen as the result of effective delegation work. In contrast, loss of control due to decreased shared understanding and inability to harmonise the different emerging values is not (see Figure 32.6: link to the subject area "communication": observable behaviour: 10). In addition, a company's reluctance to foster the role of management in supporting a quality circle programme intervention (Steel et al., 1985) through realistic expectations of quality and productivity (see Figure 32.6: ST, 11) and consequently allocating sufficient resources to the quality of new product development programmes (Song et al., 1997) indicates an inability to properly assess its own capabilities in absence of a performance monitoring system (see Figure 32.6: ST, 15). To maintain best practices for core processes (Chiesa et al., 1996), it is essential that management is committed to continuous improvement and is not reluctant to allocate additional resources when needed (see Figure 32.6: ST, 17). This requires that management is aware of the status of performance and can set appropriate targets for the strategic direction of the company. Delegating does not mean searching for someone to blame (see Figure 32.6: ST, 29). Neither does delegating mean treating everyone with the same brush when it comes to success and failure (see Figure 32.6: PE, 29). Rather, it is about exactly recognising those who have achieved results and giving them credit for it, and specifically addressing those who have flopped (see Figure 32.6: PR, 29). Allocating responsibility among group members according to the model of "praise broadly and blame moderately" seems to be the model that produces optimal performance over time and, contrary to the broadly blame model, yields the

most skilled team members (Schein et al., 2019). Schein's and her colleagues' arguments against a blame strategy are about avoiding an unhealthy corporate culture through widespread blame. The feeling of having one's reputation hurt by a reprimand triggers resentment and leads to lower commitment of the reprimanded person, which increases their intention to leave.

Thus, delegation of authority and responsibility can be achieved through workplace design. "Leading with meaning" is Grant's motto (Grant, 2012, p. 458) for examining the performance-enhancing effects of workplace design and the associated empowering effects of transformational leadership. In Grant's quasi-experimental study for call centre employees in U.S. Midwest and in Belle's randomised controlled study replication with the manipulation of the workplace of nurses in an Italian hospital, a purposeful change in the understanding of the job leads to better employee performance (Bellé, 2014; Grant, 2012). The manipulation consisted of establishing a connection with a beneficiary of the service provided and additionally of a self-persuasion training intended to promote the perceptions of a pro-social contribution. In consequence, both manipulations therefore have a positive mediating effect on job performance as they effectively provide meaning and delegate responsibility through inspirational motivation (beneficiary contact) and intellectual stimulation (self-persuasion) by transformational leadership practice (Bass, 1995). Consequently, the roots of delegation lie in effective strategy communication (see Figure 32.6, link to the subject area "communication": observable behaviour: 10) and the ability to accept and learn from feedback (see Figure 32.6, link to the subject area "learning": observable behaviours: 15 and 17).

Table 32.5*Delegation Aspects in Failure Management*

ID	Research Article	Year	Instrumental Means-Purpose Hierarchy	Observable Behaviour
11	(Steel et al., 1985)	1985	behave in a way that no one trusts for support (ST, 11)	rejects a genuine commitment and provides no tangible resources to the cause (11)
12	(Eilon, 1969)	1969	keep the freedom of action to yourself (PE, 12)	refuses to delegate authority and responsibility (12)
			maintain rigorous control and strictly prescribe the execution of tasks (ST, 12)	
				Link to the subject area "communication"
10	(Narayanaswamy et al., 2013)			refuses to adapt leadership style to flexibly harmonise values in a changing environment (10)
15	(Song et al., 1997)	1997	consider long-term focus as high resource consuming (ST, 15)	Link to the subject area "learning":
				prevents the company from investing sufficient resources in monitoring its own capabilities (15)
17	(Chiesa et al., 1996)	1996	refuse additional provision of resources (ST, 17)	neglects the importance of good practice for the core processes (17)
29	(Schein et al., 2019)	2019	stick to the blame strategy for assigning responsibility (ST, 29)	assigns praise and blame without a sense for possible misinterpretations (29)
			try to gain power through blame (PE, 29)	
			look for people to blame for failure and use praise sparingly (PR, 29)	

Figure 32.6*Failure Plan Structure: Subject Area Delegation***Strategy "Delegation": Give Meaning through Delegation**

The connection of the subject area "delegation" with the subject areas "communication" and "learning" points to the responsibility of management to promote the basic human need for giving meaning when delegating tasks. Giving meaning through delegation requires willingness to share authority and responsibility. Maintaining tight control and rigidly prescribing the execution of tasks prevents the development of a shared value base in a changing environment. This restriction carries the risk that leaders exclude an unfamiliar portion of those affected, which jeopardises the success of a change process. A corporate culture based on openness and communication serves the need for giving meaning (Gasiet, 1981), which means improving self-verification (Epstein, 2003) or orientation and control (Grawe, 1998,

2004), so that autonomous motivation to engage beyond self-interest can emerge to the benefit of a company's innovative performance.

Proposition 4: Build up a Delegating Corporate Culture

The strategic management of a company can be advised to focus on creating meaning through delegation based on a learning and trust-based corporate culture and with attention to openness and communication. The balanced delegation of authority and responsibility between leaders and subordinates aims at achieving the company's innovative performance in solving problems in challenging work situations. In this way, autonomous motivation can develop over time, providing the basis for satisfying the basic need for giving meaning.

33. Discussion

The suitability of a Plan Structure depends on the extent to which an individual is able to adapt his or her behaviour to new situations (Caspar, 2018a). This means that the individual becomes aware of the changing conditions in a particular situation and actively adapt. This is done either by influencing the situational conditions or by deciding to end the unfavourable situation. It is important to emphasise that, according to (Caspar, 2018a), a Plan Structure does not provide ready-made templates for action, but rather the motivational foundations for goal-directed agency that result from a person's acquired abilities and limitations over time. The question that arises is how to create conditions that favour learning-oriented behaviour (Yukl, 2009) and lead to adaptive behavioural processes aimed at achieving congruence with environmental changes (Caspar, 2018a). Specifically, the question that needs to be addressed is how leaders can create conditions that favour learning-oriented behaviour in a company (Yukl, 2009) and lead to reflective processes in the pursuit of innovative performance. In answering this question, which is posed by Caspar (2018a) from a psychotherapeutic perspec-

tive, by von Rosenstiel (2003) from an organisational psychology perspective and by Yukl (2009) from a management perspective, it is important to consider how leaders can successively develop a shared vision with their team members of what is to be achieved in the company. Following Caspar (1998), shaping change in an organization requires the dynamic establishment of favourable conditions that, in the right combination and at the right time, create an environment conducive to structural and behavioural change. Using the Plan Analysis (Caspar, 2018a) approach, the Plan Structure of the leaders can be specifically examined related to the four defining pillars, namely the subject areas "learning", "communication", "motivation", and "delegation".

The usefulness and flexibility of a Plan Structure both depends on the leader's experiential learning in designing processes in critical work situations. From a psychological perspective, a leader's Plan Structure can therefore develop for future situations in an adaptive, but also in a maladaptive way, reinforcing the self-limiting and inhibiting tendencies and thus having an unfavourable impact on future situations (Caspar, 2008b). The functioning of a Plan Structure is determined by its multiple determinations (upward and downward) between the means-purpose relationships developed over time to meet the basic human needs in a given and changing environment (Caspar, 2018a). As an example of upward ramification (see Figure 32.2), to avoid having to revise existing knowledge, leaders choose the option of focusing only on failure review and ignore possible lessons learned from success situations (see Figure 32.2: PE, 25, PR25). The focus consistently lies on the demonstration of competence in search of positive recognition (see Figure 32.2: PE, 3). Furthermore, the goal of being positively recognised (see Figure 32.2: PE, 3) leads in a downward ramification to two additional means for leaders. Apart from avoiding questioning even successful situations (see Figure 32.2: PR25), leaders may stick to a goal orientation once chosen (see Figure 32.2: PR, 3) and prefer to make decisions without bothering to challenge their thinking by analysing the

causal structures and input factors in critical work situations (see Figure 32.2: PR, 5). All these self-limiting motivational and behavioural strategies have the effect of allowing leaders to escape the risk of unfavourable social judgements (see Figure 32.2: PE, 3), at least for a limited time. In summary, the suitability of a Plan Structure for future situations depends on the individual's ability to perceive change, to recognise possible obstacles that may arise, and to actively address them (Caspar, 2018a). Thus, if leaders in their interdependent relationships with the team members are able to anticipate and manage changing demands in critical work situations, then one can speak of a flexible Plan Structure. The usefulness and flexibility of a Plan Structure thus always depends on a leader's ability to transfer experienced behaviour to a new context in which different actors interact in interlocking Plans (Caspar, 2018a). The means-purpose relationships serve in their instrumentality to satisfy the basic human needs in a given and changing environment (Caspar, 2008a, 2008b, 2018a, 2018b). To advise management boards on strategic decision-making in critical work situations and to identify opportunities for intervention in situations where indicators of failed anticipation and management of critical work situations are perceived, the prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business (see Figure 32.2) can be used both from top down and bottom-up. In the following, three questions asked in the theoretical section regarding failure anticipation are addressed (see Figure 30.1).

What does it take to recognise signals of failure? The outbreak of the pandemic disaster in China in 2019 illustrates three ways in which disruption of an ongoing economic process can be countered: by downplaying, secrecy, and repression of on-site observers; by drastic measures of isolation; and by open communication to effectively combat the threat of global spread. The ordered sequence of phases and events of the hypothetical process model of failure (see Figure 30.1) serves as a naïve behavioural theory in which the intuitive observation of the events and phases in the course of a failure situation helps to analyse the effectiveness

of the observed behaviour in promoting the innovative performance of an organisational unit. As the Plan Analysis (Caspar, 2018a) of the selected research articles about failure in business shows, the findings about the four subject areas "learning", "communication", "motivation", and "delegation" contribute to a better understanding of the self-limiting and inhibiting tendencies of leaders in critical work situations. Based on the basic need for emotional interpersonal relationships, leaders in their role model function (Bass, 1995; Rogers, 2003) decisively contribute to the construction of a shared vision of future development. As a consequence, the adaptiveness of a Plan Structure should be interpreted as a function of the interdependence between the different actors acting in interlocking Plans (Caspar, 2018a). The role of the leader is therefore of crucial importance, as relentless communicative work that takes employees' concerns seriously (Gasiet, 1981; Schein, 2016) can reduce the complexity of a situation and motivate employees to commit to a common direction of the company's vision (Bleicher, 1999; Krystec, 1999; Luhmann, 2014; von Cranach, 1986). Consequently, effective strategy communication strengthens a company's capacity for innovation due to two positive effects. Firstly, leaders who actively communicate the corporate strategy respect the inclusion of external feedback and thus open the space for alternative solutions in the search for innovative performance. Secondly, in their role model function, leaders have the opportunity to create a learning-oriented corporate culture providing thus a structural stability through basic assumptions, values, and behaviours that are maintained by the members of a social unit (Schein, 1985, 2016). It represents their body of assumptions, expectations, and practices that were developed over time through the shared history of experience.

What does it take to manage the impact of failure on social interactions? According to De Dreu and van Knippenberg (2005), mere ownership (Beggan, 1992) and by inference the possessive self, can lead to self-protective measures to save the own reputation thus inhibiting comprehensive action-oriented behaviour to solve problems. Given this theoretical back-

ground, defending arguments and positions can become a quality of the self, and the prospect of losing this quality can pose a threat to the self (Beggs, 1992; De Dreu & van Knippenberg, 2005) and promote protection against change (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll et al., 2018). As Hussey pointed out in his analysis of success and failure in British industry at the time: "All managers are prisoners within the boundaries of their own perceptions, ..." (Hussey, 1984, p. 44). It is therefore absolutely critical that management boards and executives learn to overcome the obstacles to this shutting themselves off from feedback and open communication. The risk of losing reputation becomes a threat to the image of the self. Arguments and positions that we hold in everyday life thus carry the risk of becoming a quality of the self that needs to be protected. It is therefore useful to get an accurate idea of the self-limiting and inhibiting tendencies of leaders in critical work situations. Achieving a personally meaningful outcome, such as advancing a successful career (Spurk et al., 2019), requires the development of resource management behaviours to build and use the means necessary to achieve desired goals, but also to prevent them from losing their instrumental and symbolic value (Hobfoll, 1989). Thus, in the theory of resource conservation (COR), it is essential for people to invest in resources, such as adequate social support and available energy in the form of time, money, and knowledge (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll et al., 2018). Moreover, to optimise the use of behavioural strategies, it is crucial to balance the effects of defensive and exploratory strategies to maintain personal adaptability to the environment (Hobfoll et al., 2018; Spurk et al., 2019). The prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business (see Figure 32.2) provides a practical means of identifying intervention approaches to improve the innovative performance in demanding change situations, either at the beginning, during the course of action or after failure has been identified, to draw lessons from the experience gained. Leaders who respectfully engage the stakeholders contribute to a trusting corporate culture and create a motivating work environment by reducing complexity in critical work situations.

In their role model function, leaders have the opportunity to strengthen the bond within the company through their ideational influence combined with individual consideration, and thus maintain contact with the employees affected by a change.

What does it take to communicate the outcome of failure? From the perspective of change processes, the management of failure relies on two different attitudes that are either self-limiting or action-guiding. As described in Part I of this dissertation project, a self-limiting, regressive orientation is contrasted to an action-guiding, progressive orientation. A Plan Analysis (Caspar, 2018a) can be used to identify the need for adjustment based on the motivational structures and behavioural strategies underlying failure in business and help to identify change initiatives. The intention behind this is to achieve an action-guiding attitude in the company to promote creativity and innovative performance (see Table 25.1). A social unit that defines failure as an operational and structural disruption of the social unit feels threatened and provokes defensive behaviour that eventually forces drastic corrective measures. In contrast, a social unit that defines failure as a disruption of a sequence of activities perceives the freedom to take adaptive actions. To secure the expected outcome, further options are envisaged, leading to a revision of the underlying knowledge structures and opening them up to innovative redesign. In this context, leaders who engage in giving meaning through delegation and are open to share authority and responsibility contribute to a corporate culture based on openness and communication. Leaders, in their role model function (Bass, 1995; Rogers, 2003; von Cranach, 1986), have the opportunity to invest in inspiring motivation and intellectual stimulation of the team members to create a delegating corporate culture with autonomous motivation to engage beyond self-interest (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Neufeld et al., 2007).

33.1 Limitations and Propositions for Future Research

The most important prerequisite for the application of the Plan Analysis approach (Caspar, 2018a) is the intention of companies to better understand the strengths and weaknesses of the innovative capabilities of their organisational processes and structures. Management boards should apply the long-term view in addition to the short-term goal orientation if they prefer not to risk their employees achieving the set goals but missing the crucial point of strategic change (Melnyk et al., 2010). As Melnyk and his colleagues illustrate with a case study, it is both an astonishing and shocking story of how employees at all levels of the company succeed in outsmarting the intended corporate goal of radical innovation. Strategic performance measurement systems alone are not enough to persuade the workforce to overhaul existing organisational structures and thus risk missing their previously accustomed performance targets. Lack of transparency, acceptance, and organisational decision-making freedom cannot drive an incrementally oriented performance view to radical innovation and leads to strategic dissonance (Burgelman & Grove, 1996) and trust erosion (Mayer et al., 1995). From the company's perspective, action is only possible if it can rely on the performance of employees at the operational level. However, when beliefs and actions are separated due to the multi-agent character of workflows in a company (Lee & Puranam, 2016; Mosakowski, 1997; Simon, 1962), accurate strategy communication is essential to identify and update ambiguous beliefs about the purpose and means of achieving innovative performance (Lee & Puranam, 2016). This implies that management boards should be prepared to provide sufficient space and time for reflexion on critical work situations they have experienced in the past, are currently experiencing, and may experience in the future. Triggered by emotionally stressful situations, adaptive and maladaptive behaviours aimed at satisfying the affected basic human needs (Epstein, 2003; Grawe, 2004) determine the goals and necessary conditions for the quality of life in the company. These goals and conditions are the basis by which reality is perceived and learning processes are influenced. According to Gasiet (1981), the

basic human needs for emotional relationships, social recognition, and giving meaning manifests themselves in the long-term context of a company's history.

This dissertation project provides a solid theoretical foundation, a systematically applied approach to literature review (Denyer & Tranfield, 2009), quality assurance of the selected body of documents as a non-reactive data collection (Döring & Bortz, 2016; Podsakoff et al., 2005), an inductive content analysis framing the evaluation of failure in business (Mayring, 2010), and the definition of a prototypical Plan Structure for a condensed overview of the phenomenon of failure in business (Caspar, 2018a). Even though the research findings in this dissertation project rely on a rigorously conducted qualitative research approach (Döring & Bortz, 2016), there are limiting factors. Firstly, the research articles on the topic of failure in business span six decades, each with different historically grounded theoretical conceptions of the topic. Although the goal of this dissertation project was precisely to capture this diversity, it may be useful for future researchers to specifically select the most recent decade to corroborate the transferability to today's business environment. Secondly, because of the author's contextual experience with more than 30 years of business expertise as an executive in large companies, the ability to classify the findings based on the analysis of the 43 research articles can be drawn upon. However, it would be worth considering whether young students with less business experience would come to comparable findings. Thirdly, the study considered research articles on companies with different industry affiliations and different company sizes without distinction. To strengthen transferability, the selection of research articles could be differentiated according to large, medium-sized, and small companies.

As a recommendation for future research and for more detailed insight into the effectiveness of applying the prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business, real cases of failure management (Yin, 2018) could be reconstructed from a historical perspective based on

official company documents for scientific document analysis (Döring & Bortz, 2016). The idea behind is to investigate how the prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business works methodically to effectively identify the self-limiting and inhibiting tendencies of leaders in specific challenging work situations. Typically, prototypical Plan Structures are the essence of a collection of Plan Analyses conducted on real individual cases. In this case, the prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business is the essence of a collection of findings obtained in individual research studies. In a further strand of research, the question should be asked as to what experience the boards of directors have gained with the effectiveness of the intervention measures they have chosen. It would be helpful to know when exactly in the course of action and with what temporal orientation these interventions were used.

34. Conclusions

The application of the Plan Analysis approach (Caspar, 2018a) to analyse the research articles on failure in business selected as part of a SLR has resulted in a prototypical Plan Structure that represents the basic motivational structures with the underlying behavioural strategies of leaders in critical work situations in an internal organisational context. In this sense, according to Caspar (2018a, pp. 216–218), it might be interesting to try to develop an overarching Plan Structure of all the role players involved in a system to make the interlocking of the different Plan Structures visible. However, this would clearly exceed the complexity of the Plan Structure of one actor. For better visualisation, this dissertation project provides a prototypical Plan Structure of leaders acting in a specific context, namely in an internal organisational setting. The prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business is divided into four interrelated subject areas to assist board members in their strategic decision-making processes to improve the innovative performance of their company. These subject areas, namely "learning", "communication", "motivation", and "delegation", specifically target the basic

motivational drivers that affect leadership behaviour in challenging work situations. As compared to the procedure propagated by Chiesa and his colleagues for auditing the technical innovative capacity of a company (Chiesa et al., 1996), the application of the prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business focuses on identifying the self-limiting and inhibiting tendencies of leaders in challenging work situations. According to Chiesa and his colleagues, innovation is associated with good practice, where innovation-specific processes are supported by enabling processes, which include not only resources and technical skills, but also leadership at the senior management level. In contrast, the prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business is an approach designed to counsel leaders in addressing failure as a starting point for active learning. It is designed to guide management boards in answering the following question: How can leaders learn from failure? More specifically, how do leaders behave in critical work situations to meet the requirements of the four pillars on which the motivational structure with the underlying behavioural strategies of failure in business are founded: "learning", "communication", "motivation", and "delegation"?

The prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business can be used for three main purposes in a counselling setting. Firstly, it can be used to broadly reflect on the motivational background with the underlying behavioural strategies indicated by the means-purpose relationships in a organisation impacting the four interrelated pillars of the Plan Structure for failure in business. Secondly, it can be beneficial to gauge the readiness of leaders to reflect on the interdependence of the subject areas "learning", "communication", "motivation", and "delegation" in their own area of responsibility. In accordance with Ellis and his colleagues, this is where leaders can reflect on experiences together with their team members and revise the underlying knowledge structures in the form of an after-event review (Ellis et al., 2006). Thirdly, the prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business can also be used to assess the strengths and weaknesses of leadership in concrete change projects. Such assessments pro-

vide an estimate of the severity of a critical work situation and possible failure traps in the course of action during a change process. In this case, interventions can already be made during the change process to prevent failure. Following Probst and Raisch, this approach contributes to alert the affected social system by detecting weak signals of unbalanced stabilisation and transformation processes in the company at an early stage (Probst & Raisch, 2005). In summary, the prototypical Plan Structure for failure in business provides an instrument for counselling boards of directors in a consulting setting to gain an overview of the motivational power and ability to act of the leadership team in the company and, depending on this, the willingness of the employees to engage in change processes. The willingness of the employees to act in situations perceived as critical and emotionally stressful can be influenced by responsible leadership and a constantly evolving corporate culture that promotes learning, trust, and delegation in a motivating work environment. This means that responsible leadership takes place in the expectation of excellent performance.

Appendix B

Table 34.1 Inductive Category Building

	Category	Definition
I	Scene of Action	Scene of action where failure occurs
1	OrgIntern	Scene of action in a context of an internal organisation
2	OrgExtern	Scene of action in a context of a cross-organisation relationship with external parties
II	Level of Analysis	Dimensions of the focal points of interest
1	Level of analysis people	The human being in the focus of interest
		The level of analysis "people" focuses on the human being as an actor in a social system. The relationships between the members or exponents of a social system with the internal and external environment are influenced by the formative elements of a social structure with the given communication processes in a given reality. Trust, beliefs, and motivation are influencing factors regarding "people" as a building block of failure.
2	Level of analysis structure	The structural situation in the focus of interest
		The level of analysis "structure" focuses on the structural conditions within which interaction between the actors involved take place. The formative elements of a situation determine the social structure of a given reality in which people interact and whereby new structural and individual states emerge. Corporate culture, management and leadership, strategic orientation, and the availability of resources are influencing factors regarding "structure" as a building block of failure.
3	Level of analysis process	The process in the focus of interest
		The level of analysis "process" focuses on the implementation of patterns of action by the members of a social system that contribute to securing the expected outcomes in a given reality. This is influenced by the given formative elements of the organisation under consideration and by the relationships between the members of an organisation in their respective environments. Feedback is an influencing factor regarding "process" as a building block of failure.
4	Level of analysis outcome	Consequences of failure interpreted as a result
		Critical situations in which failure occur lead to outcomes that are influenced by the building blocks of failure on the three levels of analysis "people", "structure", and "process". The influencing factors act as risk areas, impacting the emotional state of the individual and the willingness or the ability of an organisational unit to act. Knowledge of potential risk areas and suitable intervention systems contributes to a map of measures to address "outcome" as a building block of failure.
III	Formal Failure Situation	
1	Action object	Main subject of the action
2	Action unit	Relationship between actors in failure situations
3	Actor	Key person to whom failure is assigned
4	Approach	Approach to overcome failure

Table 34.2 Overview of the Selected Articles and Journals

#	ID	Search Portal	Source	Journal Country	Source Abbr. ISO 4 NEU	Source Abbr.	Ranking SJR	SJR Value >1.99 28.02.2020	Ranking JQR3	Year	Author
1	12	EBSCO	Journal of Management Studies	UK	J. Manag. Stud.	JMS	Q1	SJR 3.14	A	1969	Eilon
2	11	EBSCO	Journal of Management	USA	J. Manag.	JOM	Q1	SJR 7.94	A	1985	Steel, Mento, Dilla, Ovalle, and Lloyd
3	17	EBSCO	Journal of Product Innovation Management	UK	J. Prod. Innov. Manag.	JPIM	Q1	SJR 2.97	A	1996	Chiesa, Coughian, and Voss
4	5	EBSCO	Organization Science	USA	Organ. Sci.	OS	Q1	SJR 6.55	A+	1997	Mosakowski
5	15	EBSCO	Journal of Product Innovation Management	UK	J. Prod. Innov. Manag.	JPIM	Q1	SJR 2.97	A	1997	Song, Souder, and Dyer
6	23	EBSCO	Academy of Management Perspectives	USA	Acad. Manag. Perspect.	AMP	Q1	SJR 3.35	0	2004	Nutt
7	25	PubPsych	Journal of Applied Psychology	USA	J. Appl. Psychol.	JAP	Q1	SJR 6.09	A	2006	Ellis, Mendel, and Nir
8	13	EBSCO	European Journal of Information Systems	UK	Eur. J. Inf. Syst.	EJIS	Q1	SJR 2.04	A	2007	Neufeld, Dong, and Higgins
9	10	EBSCO	Journal of Management Information Systems	USA	J. Manag. Inf. Syst.	JMIS	Q1	SJR 2.39	A	2013	Narayanaswamy, Grover, and Henry
10	3	EBSCO	Academy of Management Review (AMR)	USA	Acad. Manag. Rev.	AMR	Q1	SJR 9.32	A+	2014	Alexander and van Knippenberg
11	30	PubPsych	Contemporary Educational Psychology	USA	Contemp. Educ. Psychol.	CEP	Q1	SJR 2.34	0	2014	Taylor, Jungert, Mageau, Schattke, Dedic, Rosenfield, and Koestner

#	ID	Search Portal	Source	Journal Country	Source Abbr. ISO 4 NEU	Source Abbr.	Ranking SJR	SJR Value >1.99 28.02.2020	Ranking JQR3	Year	Author
12	7	EBSCO	Strategic Management Journal	UK	Strateg. Manag. J.	SMJ	Q1	SJR 8.84	A	2016	Lee and Puranam
13	29	PubPsych	Journal of Experimental Psychology: General	USA	J. Exp. Psychol. Gen.	JEP: General	Q1	SJR 3.09	0	2019	Schein, Jackson, Frasca, and Gray

Table 34.3 *Levels of Analysis Covered by a Single Article*

People	Process	People and Structure	Structure	Structure and Process	Process and People	People, Process, and Structure
	OrgIntern	OrgIntern	OrgIntern	OrgIntern	OrgIntern	OrgIntern
	(Mosakowski, 1997)	(Eilon, 1969)	(Steel et al., 1985)	(Chiesa et al., 1996)	(Alexander & van Knippenberg, 2014)	(Nutt, 2004)
	(Neufeld et al., 2007)			(Song et al., 1997)	(Taylor et al., 2014)	(Ellis et al., 2006)
				(Narayanaswamy et al., 2013)		(Schein et al., 2019)
				(Lee & Puranam, 2016)		

Table 34.4 Overview Portfolio Research Articles

Overview Portfolio Research Articles	Level of Analysis: Outcome	Action Object	Action Unit	Leader	Approach to Overcome Failure	Level of Analysis: People	Level of Analysis: Structure	Level of Analysis: Process
Alexander_van Knippenberg_2014 (N=1)	<p>Survival of the innovation project</p> <p>This sharedness is particularly relevant for the challenges of radical innovation that may often require the concerted efforts of the entire team.</p> <p>Teams with a performance avoid orientation are driven by fear of failure.</p> <p>The challenges of radical innovation will therefore discourage avoid-oriented teams.</p>	<p>Radical innovations</p> <p>the innovation project</p> <p>important factors in radical innovation success.</p> <p>both radical and incremental innovation projects</p>	<p>We propose a novel approach for managing team motivational states that involves adapting team goal preferences at key points in the innovation process in order to achieve radical innovation success</p> <p>identify the roles of ambidextrous leadership and reflexive team processes in achieving goal orientation shifts as important factors in radical innovation success.</p>	Ambidextrous leadership	<p>The Goal Orientation Framework</p> <p>Innovation is a goal-directed process (Kanter, 1988; Van de Ven, 1986; West, 2002) and, thus, largely motivational (Locke & Latham, 1990).</p> <p>Goal orientation serves as a framework for effective adaptation of team goal striving to meet the changing requirements of innovation development and implementation.</p>	<p>Radical innovators are driven by a strong motivation stemming from intense curiosity, determination, and passion for their work</p> <p>Performance prove orientation is the desire to demonstrate competence and attain favorable judgments of ability; performance avoid orientation is the desire to avoid demonstrating incompetence and unfavorable judgments.</p>	No statement	<p>Innovation process</p> <p>reflexive team processes in achieving goal orientation shifts</p> <p>challenges related to idea development and idea promotion</p>

Overview Portfolio Research Articles	Level of Analysis: Outcome	Action Object	Action Unit	Leader	Approach to Overcome Failure	Level of Analysis: People	Level of Analysis: Structure	Level of Analysis: Process
Chiesa_Coughian_Voss_1996 (N=1)	<p>Innovation is related to good practice in the relevant management processes</p> <p>The outcome from these core and enabling processes is performance in terms of innovation and the resulting competitiveness in the marketplace.</p> <p>success in innovation</p> <p>there were also elements of the company's culture and style that reduced risk taking and innovation at the middle management level</p>	<p>Technical Innovation</p> <p>technical innovation management.</p> <p>technical innovation</p> <p>tool for auditing a firm's innovation capability.</p> <p>active management of innovation</p>	<p>The model addresses the managerial processes and the organizational mechanisms through which innovation is performed.</p> <p>to allow companies to audit their innovation capability through measuring the overall innovation performance and the performance of each innovation process, auditing innovation processes and benchmarking the practices adopted against the world class practice.</p>	<p>Senior management leadership</p> <p>managing director</p> <p>Senior management team leader</p> <p>team leadership</p>	<p>A framework for auditing technical innovation management highlighting problems and needs, and providing information that can be used in developing action plans for improving performance</p> <p>two-level approach: a rapid assessment based on innovation scorecards and an in-depth audit</p> <p>Auditing goes beyond measuring: it builds on this to identify gaps between current and desired processes and performance. Identifying key opportunities for improvement</p>	No statement	<p>Technical innovation management</p> <p>the overall management of technological innovation includes the organization and direction of human and capital resources towards effectively: (1) creating new knowledge, (2) generating ideas aimed at new and enhanced products, manufacturing processes and services, (3) developing those ideas into working prototypes and (4) transferring them into manufacturing distribution and use</p>	<p>To continually improve, we must examine not only our innovation performance, but the processes with which we develop and exploit these innovations.</p> <p>a process model of technical innovation</p> <p>Underlying this method is the notion that success in innovation is related to good practice in the relevant management processes. The model identifies four core processes:</p>

Overview Portfolio Research Articles	Level of Analysis: Outcome	Action Object	Action Unit	Leader	Approach to Overcome Failure	Level of Analysis: People	Level of Analysis: Structure	Level of Analysis: Process
Eilon_1969 (N=1)	If there is no delegation from one echelon of management to a lower echelon, then the latter is completely constrained; it cannot exercise any discretion, nor can it meaningfully develop initiative or skill in handling situations which call for managerial intervention, and it cannot therefore share in any responsibility for the success or failure of such intervention.	Delegation of authority and responsibility is considered to be one of the fundamental problems in management control	The lower echelon may still be useful for monitoring events or as a convenient means of transmitting messages through the system, but it has no active participatory role in the decision process. At the other end of the scale, if complete delegation is practiced, the higher management level becomes insipid;	The higher management level the higher level the higher echelon	Delegation of authority and responsibility balance of power and coexistence A constraint is a limitation, which defines a condition or a set of conditions that must be satisfied for a decision to be valid; so long as the constraint is not violated, the decision maker' has a freedom of choice	If complete delegation is practiced, the higher management level becomes insipid; full authority and responsibility for decisions are then vested with the lower echelon, and the function and the very existence of the higher level may be put into question	The more prescriptions of forms (a) and (b) the less delegation of authority to make decisions is to be found, the looser the constraints in form (c), the more freedom of action that the lower echelon can enjoy. Prescription may be regarded as a set of instructions, imposed by higher management or self-imposed, between the constraints imposed upon him and those he imposes on others.	No statement

Overview Portfolio Research Articles	Level of Analysis: Outcome	Action Object	Action Unit	Leader	Approach to Overcome Failure	Level of Analysis: People	Level of Analysis: Structure	Level of Analysis: Process
Elliis_Mendel_Nir_2006 (N=1)	<p>More specifically, after successful events, the most effective review is that of wrong actions, whereas after failed events, any kind of event review (correct or wrong actions) is effective</p> <p>AERs elicit more internal (as opposed to external) and specific (as opposed to general) attributions.</p> <p>motivation to learn from experience has to do with the intensity and duration of the knowledge acquisition processes</p>	<p>These 2 classifications moderate the effect of AERs on task performance.</p> <p>Those participants who successfully captured a market share</p>	<p>"The beer war game" is a simulation of the market in a country with 10 cities, in which various beer producers compete for customers</p> <p>The player's goal is to beat the other competitors and monopolize the beer market.</p>	<p>Making high-commitment decisions managers in key positions</p>	<p>After-event reviews (AERs) conducted in organizations constitute an effective tool for helping learners to change their mental models and improve their performance</p> <p>The aim of AERs is to help individuals and groups gather and analyze data that will ultimately improve their performance.</p> <p>give learners an opportunity to analyze their behavior systematically and to evaluate the contribution of its various components to performance outcomes</p>	<p>Failures may evoke high fear of invalidity in individuals who are aware of the fact that their prior closure proved to be inadequate.</p> <p>More specifically, the fear that their current knowledge is not relevant after failure stems from the feeling that the knowledge structure on which their performance was based was flawed and from the fact that their expectancy to succeed has been disconfirmed.</p>	<p>By conducting appropriate AERs, organizations can help individuals learn important lessons from the valuable information embedded not only in failed events but also in successful experience as well.</p> <p>If learners still want to improve their successful behaviors, then they must focus on the internal logic of their plan (prior knowledge structures) and on the potential misfits between the existing plan and the conditions under which these behaviors were executed.</p>	<p>The dynamic process of AER sessions is quite different from that of regular feedback sessions</p> <p>Feedback in AERs concentrates not only on performance outcomes but also and especially on the process of task performance, that is, not only on the overall success or failure but also on the particular aspects or parts of task performance.</p> <p>One may say that an AER is a kind of guided investigation of past experience</p>

Overview Portfolio Research Articles	Level of Analysis: Outcome	Action Object	Action Unit	Leader	Approach to Overcome Failure	Level of Analysis: People	Level of Analysis: Structure	Level of Analysis: Process
Lee_Puranam_2016 (N=1)	<p>Precise implementation has benefits beyond the well-known effect of enabling exploitation of good strategies</p> <p>It enables the discovery of better strategies by allowing more effective learning from feedback on the value of current strategies.</p> <p>Our model helps us to explore in a precise and rigorous way the general intuition that the process of learning from feedback should be more complicated when beliefs and actions are separated across agents</p>	<p>We propose a theory that explains why the relentless pursuit of perfect implementation of strategy may be useful even in a world in which the strategies being implemented are far from optimal.</p>	<p>We assume that our organization consists of a manager (M) and her subordinate, (S).</p> <p>the formulators and implementors of strategy are distinct</p> <p>However, we enrich current models by explicitly incorporating the feature that the agent who holds beliefs and the agent who executes them are not the same.</p>	<p>The formulators and implementors of strategy</p> <p>the formulators</p>	<p>The implementation imperative: Why one should implement even imperfect strategies perfectly</p> <p>In this sense, the model is a classic model of adaptive rationality through experiential learning</p> <p>Imprecise implementation as a source of exploration</p> <p>Thus, some degree of variance in realized organizational actions around the intended action is a valuable source of exploration for better strategies</p>	No statement	<p>We abandon the organization as a "unitary actor" assumption, and model a separation of beliefs and actions</p> <p>It is not easy to achieve, as lower level managers may not execute strategies precisely because some degree of employee discretion in actions is inevitable</p> <p>no organization design can completely control behavior</p>	<p>In the model, a manager holds a belief about the appropriate strategy for the organization at a point in time, and a subordinate then implements this belief. The manager then updates beliefs about the value of the strategy based on feedback about organizational performance.</p>

Overview Portfolio Research Articles	Level of Analysis: Outcome	Action Object	Action Unit	Leader	Approach to Overcome Failure	Level of Analysis: People	Level of Analysis: Structure	Level of Analysis: Process
Mosakowski_1997 (N=1)	<p>The ability to rule out distributions of future outcomes will increase the more one knows of the causal structure and inputs to that structure.</p> <p>The decision maker might have developed a complete causal map of the future causal structure, but, depending on the resolution of future natural events, discoveries, and changing preferences, he may be able to eliminate many distributions of possible outcomes from this causal map.</p>	<p>Strategy Making under Causal Ambiguity examine the prototypical strategic problem of finding the most profitable use of a firm's assets;</p>	<p>Decision maker's inability to discern the causal structure that leads to his firm's success or failure (i.e., causal ambiguity)</p> <p>This paper also considers the circumstances under which causal ambiguity will affect strategy making: in particular, pointing to the overall complexity both within the firm and in its environment</p>	<p>Decision maker corporate board members</p>	<p>For this process, I advocate a calculative experimentation approach</p> <p>A simple model of decision making is presented based on a hypothesis-testing approach to problem solving, with tentative rules about the relationships between actions and outcomes being revised in a Bayesian fashion</p> <p>This paper also considers the circumstances under which causal ambiguity will affect strategy making: in particular, pointing to the overall complexity both within the firm and in its environment</p>	No statement	No statement	<p>Managing the strategy-making process</p> <p>my objective is to consider the choices and contingencies facing a decision maker operating under causal ambiguity</p> <p>discussion of the relationship between calculative experimentation versus purely random trial-and-error behavior and planned approaches to strategy making</p> <p>The process of decision making may itself transform over time as causal understanding increases.</p>

Overview Portfolio Research Articles	Level of Analysis: Outcome	Action Object	Action Unit	Leader	Approach to Overcome Failure	Level of Analysis: People	Level of Analysis: Structure	Level of Analysis: Process
Narayanaswamy et al._2013 (N=1)	<p>Constructs of perceptual congruence and communication congruence that reflect a level of agreement and degree of shared understanding between the project manager and team members are described.</p> <p>The results indicate that having strong relational equity and common understanding can minimize control loss.</p> <p>Finally, it is critical to address the performance problems as they occur rather than wait until the completion of the project.</p>	<p>Information systems development (ISD) projects are prone to high levels of failure.</p> <p>Successful management of information systems development (ISD) projects is a challenge for organizations.</p>	<p>Level of agreement and degree of shared understanding between the project manager and team members</p> <p>communicational congruence between project managers and team members</p> <p>Perceptual congruence between project managers and team members</p> <p>In other words, the leader should know how to monitor team members, when to step in and help the team, and when to change his or her behavior in response to the needs of the team</p>	Project manager	<p>The results indicate that having strong relational equity and common understanding can minimize control loss.</p> <p>It is important to consider the perspectives of both the project manager and a team member while formulating and assessing monitoring strategies to promote the success of an ISD project. From a performance standpoint, given the huge sunk costs involved in an ISD project, it is important for the stakeholders to be proactive and continually monitor project progress rather than categorically classifying the project as failed post hoc.</p>	No statement	<p>Many of the intermediary problems in ISD projects are primarily related to people, processes, and resources</p> <p>The project manager and team member are highly interdependent; miscommunication in their relationship can have dire consequences on the project outcomes.</p> <p>From a broader perspective, the project manager and senior management can use control loss as an evaluation mechanism to determine project progress</p>	<p>Moreover, ISD projects face a high degree of requirement volatility and technological uncertainty, which enforces the need to continuously adapt to a changing environment</p> <p>continuously adapt to the rapidly changing project environment</p> <p>This measure [control loss] assesses project progress along three dimensions—people, processes, and resources—that can be evaluated while the project is being developed</p>

Overview Portfolio Research Articles	Level of Analysis: Outcome	Action Object	Action Unit	Leader	Approach to Overcome Failure	Level of Analysis: People	Level of Analysis: Structure	Level of Analysis: Process
Neufeld_Dong_Higgins_2007 (N=1)	<p>User acceptance of information technology effects on information technology (IT) acceptance and use</p> <p>IS implementation failure is a shockingly common outcome of organizational information technology (IT) adoption efforts.</p> <p>IT implementation failure problem, user acceptance</p>	<p>Information technology (IT) acceptance and use</p> <p>large-scale IT implementation IT</p> <p>IT implementation failure problem</p> <p>IT implementation failure rates</p>	<p>Leadership has important effects on information technology (IT) acceptance and use</p> <p>Considering the severity of the IT implementation failure problem, and the potential for excellent leadership to help resolve this problem</p> <p>charismatic leadership and user acceptance</p> <p>the influences of leadership on user acceptance</p>	<p>The role of project champions</p> <p>top management</p>	<p>We have made little progress in addressing our failure to 'determine if, when, how much, and what type of executive support is likely or organizationally appropriate'</p> <p>In order to gain followers' commitment to group-level goals, charismatic leaders seek to tie individual participation of followers into the larger, collective identity of the organization</p> <p>Therefore, we hypothesize that followers of charismatic leaders will be sensitized to go beyond their self-interested motivations and consider the opinions of others</p>	<p>No statement</p>	<p>The notion of top management support, in one form or another, 'has received consistent attention in the literature as an important influence on technology adoption in organizations'</p> <p>Indeed, many IS adoption studies have attempted to account for the presence of top management.</p> <p>the term "commitment" rather than "support" to indicate the strong, active role top management</p>	<p>Considering the severity of the IT implementation failure problem, and the potential for excellent leadership to help resolve this problem, the present paper seeks to explore the question: how does perceived leadership behaviour influence the acceptance and use of IT?</p> <p>officially responsible for leading the project in terms of initiating, monitoring and leading the overall planning, adoption and implementation processes</p>

Overview Portfolio Research Articles	Level of Analysis: Outcome	Action Object	Action Unit	Leader	Approach to Overcome Failure	Level of Analysis: People	Level of Analysis: Structure	Level of Analysis: Process
Nutt_2004 (N=1)	<p>Blunders arise when decision-makers rush to judgment, use failure-prone practices, and allocate time and money unwisely.</p> <p>The major impact of these blunders is that they make it impossible to carry out an adequate search for alternative solutions to problems.</p> <p>innovation failures are caused more by poor search practices than by risk</p>	<p>Strategic decisions</p> <p>Half of all strategic decisions fail, making failure more prevalent than previously thought</p> <p>More than four hundred strategic decisions were collected in this research effort. The decisions involved new products, marketing, and operations—the sorts of things that organizational leaders deal with regularly.</p>	<p>Failed decisions stem from decision-maker actions in which blunders create traps and traps bring about failure</p>	<p>Decision-maker organizational leader</p>	<p>Here we consider how these blunders set a trap that limits the search for remedies. Blunder 1: Rush to Judgment / Blunder 2: Failure-Prone Practices / Blunder 3: Poor Allocation of Resources</p> <p>First, decision-makers should expand the arena of action by identifying key stakeholders, their concerns and claims. The second approach is to increase the clarity of objectives and select one that defines an arena of action with the broadest possible scope.</p> <p>The third is to use multiple perspectives to uncover options that would otherwise be undiscovered</p>	<p>The focus is on the idea, not the results which the idea is to provide. Without clarity here, subordinates form different impressions about what is wanted.</p> <p>Decision-makers and subordinates attempting to come up with new ideas seem to be unaware of how to conduct an innovative search.</p> <p>Hidden movers are gatekeepers, power brokers, or policy makers who write SOPs [Standard operating procedure] with the power to slow, or even block a decision.</p>	<p>To do this, organizations should expand horizons by opening up to stakeholders yet to be heard.</p> <p>Such an investment introduces several new arenas of action that encompass concerns held by stakeholders whose support is needed if the decision is to be successful.</p> <p>Stakeholders with interests can be found in top mgmt teams, leaders of key departments, technical experts, internal people with relevant experiences, ...</p>	<p>Decision-makers using solicitation develop a needs list, collect ideas, and assess what is offered.</p> <p>Decisions driven by a single idea have another pitfall: There is no clear picture of expected results.</p> <p>Decision-makers are either vague about this or unwilling to disclose their true intentions</p> <p>Benchmarking is another way to search, found in 25 per cent of the decisions. Here an organization thought to be successful is visited to get decision-making ideas.</p>

Overview Portfolio Research Articles	Level of Analysis: Outcome	Action Object	Action Unit	Leader	Approach to Overcome Failure	Level of Analysis: People	Level of Analysis: Structure	Level of Analysis: Process
Schein_Jackson_Frasca_Grey_2019 (N=1)	<p>Although the performance of these groups hinges on the actions of its members, it is often unclear exactly how the inputs of individuals translate into the outcomes of groups</p> <p>Should CEOs praise all employees after a successful merger (broad apportionment) or only a few superstars (narrow apportionment)?</p> <p>Should coaches blame their entire team for a loss (broad apportionment) or only the worst performers (narrow apportionment)?</p>	<p>Strategy for Attributing Responsibility in Groups</p> <p>When blame leads to resentment, not motivation, a praise-many, blame-fewer strategy should be more effective at improving group performance over time.</p> <p>apportionment decisions examine the link between judgments of praise and blame and decisions about retention</p>	<p>High-profile sports championships</p> <p>hierarchical business decisions</p> <p>first- and third-person judgments of impromptu work teams</p> <p>Some groups (e.g., family units)</p> <p>impromptu groups</p> <p>the precise maximally functional level of blame and praise hinges on whether individuals learn from blame and the level of insight into individual skill</p>	<p>Decision makers</p> <p>hierarchical business decisions</p> <p>Understanding how people do and should apportion responsibility to members of groups is also of practical importance to coaches, lieutenants, bosses, and managers.</p>	<p>It is adaptive to praise broadly after success and to blame more narrowly after failure</p> <p>When blame leads to resentment, not motivation, a praise-many, blame-fewer strategy should be more effective at improving group performance over time.</p> <p>Under most circumstances, it was functional to praise as many group members as possible after group success and to blame fewer group members—approximately 40%—after group failure. This strategy allowed groups to retain high-skill members over time and build highly performing teams.</p>	<p>Blaming another person in a way that is seen as unjustified or excessive can lead to the deterioration of relationships, retaliation, and revenge</p> <p>Given that people often perceive their own wrongdoings as relatively less blameworthy than other's misdeeds</p> <p>it is likely that even deserved blame might feel undeserved, increasing resentment and decreasing commitment</p>	<p>If an organization lacks insight into those who deserve to be praised or blamed, a broad apportionment strategy might retain poorly performing members following success and remove excellently performing members following failure.</p> <p>Not only does widespread blame create toxic "blame cultures", ... our models suggest that it also cultivates suboptimal performance over time.</p>	<p>Group performance over time</p> <p>This causal uncertainty leads to a key issue for groups, the apportionment problem: How should responsibility for successes and failures be distributed among group members?</p> <p>In seven studies, we examine how people make apportionment decisions across college basketball (Study 1), American football (Study 2), hierarchical corporations (Study 3), and online work teams (Studies 4 through 7).</p>

Overview Portfolio Research Articles	Level of Analysis: Outcome	Action Object	Action Unit	Leader	Approach to Overcome Failure	Level of Analysis: People	Level of Analysis: Structure	Level of Analysis: Process
Song_Souder_Dyer_1997 (N=1)	<p>New product performance</p> <p>According to the model, marketing and technical proficiency directly determine product quality, and ultimately lead to new product success or failure.</p> <p>Incorporated in the strategic planning initiative, of course, is also the ability of the firm to accurately assess its own capability.</p> <p>Failure in new product development programs goes hand in hand with success</p>	<p>New product development</p> <p>However, the question remains about what constitutes Japanese best practices in new product development (NPD)</p>	<p>Every new products organization will experience its fair share of failures, but a firm can take steps to ensure that its failures do not outweigh its successes.</p> <p>The responses highlight the importance to these firms of responsiveness to customer wants and needs, as well as ensuring a close fit between project needs and the firm's skills in marketing, R&D, engineering, and manufacturing.</p>	<p>Managers</p> <p>new product development</p> <p>NPD management</p> <p>new product manager</p>	<p>By benchmarking the competition, a firm can gain insight into best practices-the factors that lead most directly to new product success.</p> <p>The proposed model identifies five factors that lead to marketing and technical proficiency: process skills, project management skills, alignment of skills with needs, team skills, and design sensitivity.</p> <p>clearly show that marketing proficiency and product quality strongly and positively influence new product performance in Japanese firms, as do process skills, project management skills and skills/needs alignment.</p>	No statement	<p>Resources must be devoted to the reporting systems, procedures, and other measures that will ensure an objective and accurate assessment of the home firm.</p>	<p>Project management skills include top management support as well as the project manager's skills.</p> <p>Skills/needs alignment refers to the fit between the project needs and the functional skills.</p> <p>Team skills cover matters of member collaboration, participation and group dynamics.</p> <p>Design sensitivity refers to the incorporation of customer wants and needs into the product's design, based on systematic feedback mechanisms</p>

Overview Portfolio Research Articles	Level of Analysis: Outcome	Action Object	Action Unit	Leader	Approach to Overcome Failure	Level of Analysis: People	Level of Analysis: Structure	Level of Analysis: Process
Steel et al._1985 (N=1)	<p>QC [Quality Circle] treatment effects influence the degree of success achieved by each program.</p> <p>ineffectiveness of this intervention</p> <p>The results of these tests depict an almost classic scenario of raised expectations followed by disillusionment when expectations were not realized.</p> <p>The publicity surrounding the inauguration of the QC program implied that tangible benefits would soon flow from the program.</p>	<p>Quality circle programs</p> <p>correction of quality and productivity problems</p> <p>performance improvement intervention</p> <p>QC interventions are reviewed in an effort to identify potential moderating variables conditioning the degree of program success.</p> <p>QC groups are frequently trained in group dynamics to create an effective problem-solving team.</p>	<p>Prior to the inaugural survey, all managers in both organizations received a short briefing dealing with QC principles and techniques.</p> <p>Supervisors from operational departments were invited to volunteer for installation of a QC in their work units</p> <p>Also, these programs require extensive training for both leaders and members.</p>	Managerial decision makers	<p>QCs provide a unique blending of procedures derived from statistical quality control ... with group problem-solving techniques</p> <p>QC groups are trained to conduct problem analysis using a repertoire of QC "tools"</p> <p>However, one may also argue reasonably that the greatest impact of the intervention will be experienced by individuals who actively participate in the QC process.</p> <p>When such programs are prudently initiated and carefully nurtured, and when realistic expectations are created, behavioural interventions may bear considerable fruit</p>	No statement	<p>Measures of group cohesiveness, communication climate, and participation in decision making were composed of three, four, and five items, respectively.</p> <p>Independent evidence supporting these impressions was provided by the a posteriori items referencing the degree of support received from management [provide tangible resources to sustain the QC program] and the frequency of implementation of group proposals.</p>	No statement

Overview Portfolio Research Articles	Level of Analysis: Outcome	Action Object	Action Unit	Leader	Approach to Overcome Failure	Dimension: People	Dimension: Structure	Dimension: Process
Taylor_Jungert_Mageau_Schattke_Dedic_Rosenfield_Koestner_2014 (N=1)	<p>SDT [Self-Determination Theory] also considers amotivation, the absence of motivation that happens when an individual does not experience intentionality or a sense of personal causation.</p> <p>Study 2 focused on high school students and examined self-reported academic achievement as an outcome variable.</p>	<p>School achievement</p> <p>the relations of specific types of motivation to overall academic achievement</p> <p>The potentially important role of intrinsic motivation in predicting school achievement, academic achievement</p>	<p>Future academic success of high school and college students</p> <p>academic achievement, over time, in different school contexts and cultures</p> <p>and where teachers tend to encourage cooperation and create equal opportunities</p>	<p>Teachers tend to encourage co-operation</p> <p>teachers' professional development to promote school achievement by focusing on igniting students' interests for different subjects or fields and by maintaining this intrinsic motivation through the support of students' basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness</p>	<p>However, our studies provide consistent evidence that intrinsic motivation seems to be the most important "motivational ingredient" in the recipe for academic achievement.</p> <p>Our studies provide consistent support for the beneficial role of engaging in school activities because of interest and enjoyment.</p>	<p>The fact that students who feel like they do not know why they are in school have difficulty maintaining their grades is not surprising.</p> <p>amotivation entails feelings of alienation and incompetence, both of which will naturally lead to problems in academic self-regulation</p>	<p>No statement</p>	<p>Indeed, we showed that prior achievement can positively predict subsequent intrinsic motivation (Study 2), and that it can negatively predict external regulation (Study 3), and introjected regulation (Study 4).</p> <p>In our studies, achievement may have influenced students' perceptions of their academic competence at T1, which then may have led to more intrinsic motivation and less introjected and external regulation at T2.</p>

Table 34.5 Defining Motivations and Behaviours: Failure Plan Structure

ID	Authors	Year	Actor	Action Object	Level of Analysis People	People Imperative	Level of Analysis Process	Process Imperative	Level of Analysis Structure	Structure Imperative	Level of Analysis Outcome	Behaviour Indicative	Approach to Overcome Failure
3	Alexander_van Knippenberg_2014	2014	Radical innovator, ambidextrous leadership	Radical innovation in contrast to incremental innovation projects	Performance avoid orientation triggers avoidance behaviour	Demonstrate competence and attain favourable judgments of ability	Inability to adapt goal orientation	Stick to a goal orientation once it has been chosen	No statement	No statement	Inability to ensure concerted efforts by the whole team	Tends to suppress the dynamical adaption of team goal orientations Ineffective goal adaption	Shift in goal orientation between development and promotion of ideas
5	Mosakowski_1997	1997	Decision-maker, corporate board member, operational personnel	Strategy making under causal ambiguity	No statement	No statement	Inability to discern the causal structure, Lack of calculative experimentation	Make a decision even without knowledge of causal structures and input factors	No statement	No statement	Weakness in developing and updating a causal map	Omits to clarify the causal structure	Solve problems through hypothesis-testing
7	Lee_Puranam_2016	2016	Strategist, a manager Formulator as an agent who holds beliefs about the appropriate strategy for the organ. at a point in time	The relentless pursuit of perfect implementation strategy	No statement	No statement	Imperfect communication of strategy	Give priority to top-down communication of strategies	Insufficient adaption to performance feedback	Refuse to adapt the organisational strategy to performance feedback	Impairment of experiential learning caused by imprecise implementation	Places no value on bottom-up exploration to support precision in strategy implementation	Adapt through experiential learning

ID	Authors	Year	Actor	Action Object	Level of Analysis People	People Imperative	Level of Analysis Process	Process Imperative	Level of Analysis Structure	Structure Imperative	Level of Analysis Outcome	Behaviour Indicative	Approach to Overcome Failure
10	Narayanaswamy et al._2013	2013	Project manager	Information systems development (ISD) projects	No statement	No statement	Miscommunication between project manager and team members	Assign low importance to misunderstandings during the project	Missing adaptive/flexible leadership style	Save yourself the trouble of establishing congruence between communication and perception	Control loss due to decreased level of shared understanding	Refuses to adapt leadership style to flexibly harmonise values in a changing environment	Assure congruence between communication and perception
11	Steel et al._1985	1985	Managerial decision maker	Quality Circle QC intervention program thought to correct quality and solve productivity problems	No statement	No statement	No statement	No statement	Unrealistic goals and low support and responsiveness from management limit the effectiveness of QC interventions	Behave in a way that no one trusts for support	Disillusionment of management when expectations were not realised regarding the effectiveness of QC intervention programs	Rejects a genuine commitment and provides no tangible resources to the cause	Ensure active support of the Quality Circle QC programmes by management
12	Eilon_1969	1969	The higher management echelon	Delegation of authority and responsibility	Unsensible delegation from management to lower echelon	Keep the freedom of choice to yourself	No statement	No statement	Strong prescriptions of forms with less delegation of authority	Maintain rigorous control and strictly prescribe the execution of tasks.	Impaired development of initiatives by lack of delegation	Refuses to delegate authority and responsibility	Delegate authority and responsibility

ID	Authors	Year	Actor	Action Object	Level of Analysis People	People Imperative	Level of Analysis Process	Process Imperative	Level of Analysis Structure	Structure Imperative	Level of Analysis Outcome	Behaviour Indicative	Approach to Overcome Failure
13	Neufeld_Dong_Higgins_2007	2007	The role of project champions influencing user adoption, Top management	Information technology (IT) acceptance and use: large-scale IT implementation	No statement	No statement	Incompetent leadership to foster user IT acceptance and use	Place emphasis on rigorous monitoring of the strategic and operational implementation of the IT project	Presence and support of the top management	Refrain from giving too much weight to the role model function.	Lack of end-user acceptance due to insufficient leader charisma	Prevents role models to increase acceptance and use by the end user.	Integrate the individuals into the superordinate, collective identity
15	Song_Sunder_Dyer_1997	1997	Managers of the New Product Development Team	New product development	No statement	No statement	Insufficient monitoring capabilities, Insufficient process abilities	Reduce the emphasis on product quality and the development of marketing and technical skills	Missing strategic long-term oriented resource support	Consider long-term focus (time, money, personnel, and systems) as high resource consuming	Reluctance of the firm to devote resources for new product quality monitoring: Incapacity of the firm to accurately assess its own capability	Prevents the company from investing sufficient resources in monitoring its own capabilities	Position best practice through marketing expertise, product quality, and improved management

ID	Authors	Year	Actor	Action Object	Level of Analysis People	People Imperative	Level of Analysis Process	Process Imperative	Level of Analysis Structure	Structure Imperative	Level of Analysis Outcome	Behaviour Indicative	Approach to Overcome Failure
17	Chie-sa_Coug-hi-an_Voss_1996	1996	Senior management leadership, managing director, team leader	Technical innovation management	No statement	No statement	Insufficiently operating core processes for sustainable innovation	Refrain from investing in monitoring the operation of the core processes	Missing leadership, resource provision, systems and tools	Refuse additional provision of resources	Hampered continuous improvement by inadequate management	Neglects the importance of good practice for the core processes	Adopt audits for technical innovation management
23	Nutt_2004	2004	Decision-maker as organizational leaders	Strategy to innovate, strategic decisions on innovation	Unawareness of how to conduct an innovative search	Limit the search for alternatives and concentrate on a single search	Limitation of the search for alternatives	Focus your attention on a clearly delimited field of action	Insufficient readiness to invest in information gathering	Eliminate the need to invest in information gathering	Insufficient search for alternative solutions to problems	Concentrates on a single search	Open the search for alternative solutions
25	El-lis_Men-del_Nir_2006	2006	Manager in key positions: decision-maker	Task performance, market share	Decreased need to elaborate on their knowledge cause of success	Protect existing knowledge after experience of success	Lack of investigation in past experience to better understand	Focus only on failure review for better understanding of the situation	Organisational learning from experience	Save yourself the risk of having to revise your existing knowledge	Weaker performance improvement by external and general attributions, Inability to influence change by learning from experience	Prevents the company from learning from experience	Improve performance with After Event Reviews

ID	Authors	Year	Actor	Action Object	Level of Analysis People	People Imperative	Level of Analysis Process	Process Imperative	Level of Analysis Structure	Structure Imperative	Level of Analysis Outcome	Behaviour Indicative	Approach to Overcome Failure
29	Schein_Jackson_Frasca_Gre_y_2019	2019	Decision-maker	Apportionment of responsibility to members of groups: retention of the group members, continuous improvement of the group	Feelings of unjustified assessment through blaming	Try to gain power through blame.	Inadequate allocation of responsibility for success or failure	Look for people to blame for failure and use praise sparingly	Failed apportionment strategy of responsibility	Stick to the blame strategy for assigning responsibility	Decreased commitment and group performance, Strategically insensitive distribution of praise and blame	Assigns praise and blame without a sense for possible misinterpretations	Distribute less blame and praise many
30	Taylor_Jungert_Mageau_Schattke_Dedic_Rosenfield_Koestner_2014	2014	Teacher promoting school achievement by igniting students, Parents, High school and college students	Prediction of academic achievement as a response to the role of intrinsic motivation	Amotivation induced by feelings of alienation and incompetence	Focus on achieving set performance goals in the short term	Prior achievements negatively influencing subsequent motivation	Emphasise external regulation of behaviour through contingent feedback	No statement	No statement	Amotivation, Absence of identification or autonomy	Is convinced that extrinsic motivation creates the foundation for success	Care for involvement in activities based on interest and pleasure

Schlussbetrachtung

Die Schlussbetrachtung erfolgt wiederum in deutscher Sprache und schliesst damit den Rahmen der Dissertation. Vertrauensbeziehungen bilden den Zusammenhalt, der zu Qualität, Kreativität und Innovation im Unternehmen beiträgt. Mit anderen Worten: Mangelndes Vertrauen, und damit einhergehend mangelnde Risikobereitschaft, kann Kreativität und innovatives Wachstum eines Unternehmens behindern. Mit diesem Forschungsprojekt wurde ein zweifaches Ziel verfolgt. Im Mittelpunkt standen zunächst die theoretischen Grundlagen, die die Auswirkungen kritischer Situationen auf die Mitarbeitenden im Tagesgeschäft beleuchteten. Zweitens wurde das Verhältnis zwischen Vertrauen, Risikobereitschaft und Innovation durch eine systematisch angelegte Analyse der Erkenntnisse aus der wissenschaftlichen Forschungspraxis zum Thema Misserfolg untersucht. Darauf aufbauend erfolgte die Entwicklung einer prototypischen Planstruktur für Führungskräfte in kritischen Arbeitssituationen mittels des Ansatzes der Plananalyse (Caspar, 2018a).

Die drei Schwerpunkte, welche aus der Forschungsliteratur über die Disziplinen Vertrauen, Emotionen und Führung identifiziert werden konnten, geben einen Hinweis darauf, worauf es im Umgang mit Veränderungsanforderungen und in der Umsetzung von Veränderungsstrategien im Unternehmen ankommt: Lernende Unternehmenskultur, Vertrauensbeziehungen und verantwortungsvolle Führungsleistung. Die Untersuchung der theoretischen Grundlagen zeigte, dass kritische Arbeitssituationen das Potenzial haben, eine ungünstige Neubewertung der zwischenmenschlichen Beziehungen innerhalb des Unternehmens zu bewirken und damit die Risikobereitschaft des Einzelnen, sich in emotional geladenen Situationen zu exponieren, zu untergraben. Diese Wechselbeziehung mit ihren Auswirkungen auf das kreative Verhalten des Mitarbeitenden, aber auch auf die Innovationskraft des Unternehmens,

wurde bisher in ihrer Dynamik nicht gezielt untersucht. Aufgrund der dynamisch angelegten adaptiven Weiterentwicklung der mentalen deskriptiven und motivationalen Schemata (Grawe, 2004) kann die Risikobereitschaft des Mitarbeitenden so stark eingedämmt werden, dass die Intentionalität zur Einflussnahme und Veränderung des Bestehenden beeinträchtigt wird. In Ergänzung zur theoretischen Auslegung und meiner mehr als 30 jährigen Führungserfahrung in nationalen Grossunternehmen wurden mit dem aus der klinischen Psychologie übernommenen therapieschulunabhängigen Ansatz der Planaanalyse (Caspar, 2018a) die Möglichkeiten eines vertrauensbildenden, lernorientierten Führungsstils zur Bewältigung kritischer Arbeitssituationen analysiert. Aus klinischer, sozialpsychologischer sowie betriebswirtschaftlicher Sicht lässt sich aufbauend auf der Analyse der theoretischen Grundlagen, in Kombination mit den Erkenntnissen aus der Forschungspraxis zum Thema Misserfolg, zusammenfassend ableiten, dass Misserfolg nicht als negative Begleiterscheinung der Realität ignoriert werden sollte. Durch vertrauensbildendes Führungsverhalten können alarmierende Arbeitssituationen zum Ausgangspunkt für innovatives Verhalten werden und zum individuellen und unternehmerischen Wachstum beitragen.

Misserfolg und Erfolg werden in der Forschungsliteratur als zwei konkurrierende Aspekte der Realität verstanden, die Anreiz zu innovativer Gestaltung der in einem System vorliegenden Strukturen geben. Die mit den gewählten Suchbegriffen gefundenen Forschungsbeiträge geben einen Einblick in die Vielfalt, mit welcher das Thema Misserfolg untersucht wurde. Prozesse wie auch Strukturen, Menschen und ihre Beziehungen, wie auch angestrebte oder zu vermeidende Ergebnisse, zeugen von der Verflechtung des Phänomens mit wirtschaftlichem Erfolg. Mit der Durchführung eines SLR mit klaren Regeln zur systematischen Erhebung des zu untersuchenden Datenmaterials (Denyer & Tranfield, 2009; Tranfield et al., 2003) konnte eine Sammlung bestehender Forschungsdokumente sichergestellt werden (Döring & Bortz, 2016). Die anschliessende induktiv geführte Inhaltsanalyse lieferte annä-

hernd vergleichbare Ergebnisse über die 43 untersuchten Forschungsartikel hinweg (Mayring, 2010). In diesem Sinne wurde mit diesem Forschungsprojekt der Versuch unternommen, mit wissenschaftlichen Methoden der qualitativen Forschung die Aussagen der Forschenden aus sechs Jahrzehnten zu einer Gesamtsicht in Form einer Planstruktur für Führungskräfte in kritischen Arbeitssituationen (Caspar, 2018a) zu generieren und damit das Risiko zu vermeiden, selbstverstecke Ostereier zu suchen.

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