



ORGANIZATION MANAGEMENT THEORY AND INNOVATION

**Ram Srinivas
Kunal Saxena**



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CHAPTER 1

EMBEDDING THE CREM IN THE CORPORATE

Mr. Ram Srinivas, Assistant Professor,
Master in Business Administration (General Management), Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-ramsrinivas@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The incorporation of real estate strategies and practises with an organization's overarching corporate strategy and goals is referred to as corporate real estate management, or CREM. This abstract examines the value and advantages of integrating CREM into business environments, demonstrating how CREM supports organisational objectives, improves operational effectiveness, and boosts financial success. It highlights the essential components of embedding CREM, such as how to make real estate choices that support company goals, include real estate into strategic planning, and encourage communication between CREM experts and other functional areas. The abstract also discusses the difficulties and factors to be taken into account while integrating CREM, such as organisational culture, change management, and the need for efficient coordination. In the end, the abstract highlights the significance of seeing CREM as a strategic role that benefits the Organisation and aids in its success. Organisations may optimize their real estate assets, enhance decision-making techniques, and gain a competitive edge in the market by integrating CREM into the corporate environment.

KEYWORDS:

Business, Corporate, Estate, Management, Principal.

INTRODUCTION

A strategic strategy called corporate real estate management (CREM) entails incorporating real estate issues and practises into the larger organisational structure. It acknowledges the enormous influence real estate assets and strategies may have on an organization's success and general performance. Organisations may optimize their real estate assets, improve operational efficiency, and stimulate value creation by integrating real estate choices with business goals and the strategic planning process. Setting the tone for comprehending the significance of seeing real estate as a strategic asset rather than merely a cost center is the introduction of integrating CREM in the business framework. It emphasises the need for businesses to understand how their real estate portfolio can support corporate goals, increase staff productivity, promote customer experience, and provide them a competitive edge in the marketplace [1]–[3].

The introduction also goes through the difficulties and complications of managing real estate in a corporate setting. The need of cross-functional cooperation, clear communication, and alignment with other crucial company areas including finance, operations, and human resources is emphasized. Organisations can develop integrated strategies that support their overarching business goals, gain a comprehensive understanding of their real estate assets, and make knowledgeable decisions about real estate investments, space utilization, workplace design, and sustainability initiatives by integrating CREM into the corporate context. Overall, the introduction emphasises the significance of seeing real estate as a strategic resource and lays the groundwork for addressing the essential elements, advantages, difficulties, and factors to be taken into account when integrating CREM into the corporate setting. Organisations are increasingly realizing the strategic importance of their real estate assets in

the fast-paced business climate of today. Real estate is no longer only considered as a functional requirement, but rather as a priceless asset that can boost brand reputation, generate competitive advantage, and attract and retain talent. As a consequence, business Real Estate Management (CREM) must be more integrated into the business environment[4]–[6].

Organisations may use their real estate assets to further their corporate goals by incorporating CREM into their overall corporate strategy. This entails making sure that real estate tactics are in line with the broader business strategy and that real estate choices are in line with the organization's vision, purpose, and values. To guarantee a unified and integrated strategy, the CREM team must also collaborate and coordinate with other important stakeholders, including senior management, finance, and operations. Consideration of the long-term effects of real estate choices on the organization's financial performance and sustainability is another aspect of integrating CREM into the corporate framework. Considerations for the environment must be made as well as elements like office design, leasing agreements, property management, and space utilization. Organisations may optimize their real estate assets, save expenses, and create a productive and sustainable work environment by include these factors in the strategic planning process[7]–[9].

Additionally, integrating CREM into the corporate environment helps businesses to manage real estate risks including market volatility, legislative changes, and technology improvements. Organisations may reduce risks and embrace opportunities in the dynamic real estate market by being proactive and responsive to these problems, for Organisations looking to maximize the value of their real estate assets, integrating CREM into the business environment is a strategic priority. It necessitates a comprehensive plan that analyses the long-term financial and sustainability consequences, develops cooperation and coordination among stakeholders, and aligns real estate choices with the entire business strategy. Organisations may fulfil their business goals, improve operational effectiveness, and acquire a competitive advantage in the market by doing this[10], [11].

DISCUSSION

The Organisation of all property-related operations of a firm whose primary business is not real estate is the fundamental component of corporate real estate management (CREM). Since the properties support the company's fundamental business operations, CREM is therefore viewed as a collection of several procedures in the framework of the economic acquisition, management, and exploitation of real estate with a focus on the corporate strategy distinguishes between a investor/owner, producer, and user viewpoint in this context. It suggests that striking a balance between user needs and resource availability in order to make a valuable contribution that is in line with corporate strategy can be seen as a major challenge that calls for prioritization and focus. An internal principal-agent relationship may be taken into consideration if the CREM function enters into a legal agreement with the business unit in which services, costs, and qualitative levels such as service level agreements are controlled. According to Reichert, the agency connection between the user and the CREM unit as an organisational unit of a corporation in this instance is largely brought about by the internal division of work and specialization and arises from an exchange contractual relationship rather than through hierarchical dependence; therefore, businesses are essentially a network of contracts. It is CREM's responsibility to maintain this balance while also assuring value addition in this situation. Hence, the companyThe CREM unit will be interested in maximizing its own value contribution to support the organization's corporate plan, and the unit will be interested in maximizing the cost-benefit ratio.

From an economic standpoint, the maximum quantity is always requested if there are no transfer fees for services, space, and hybrid solutions. In this scenario, a business unit would constantly want workspaces in the finest locations, structures, equipment, services, etc. as a

benefit-maximizing actor. In other words, these methods would often quantify a demand that is substantially larger than what is really the case. According to Figure.1, CREM unit's fundamental property is precisely this equilibrium. The CREM unit should be seen in this perspective as a bridge between market circumstances and basic company needs. However, the answer to the issue of who the principle and agent are depends on the context and changes with a movement in viewpoint multilevel principal-agent connection. Intra-organizational principal-agent interactions, such as those between CREM and a mandated business for the provision of planning services throughout the process of altering workplace arrangements, are still exposed to different difficulties than inter-organizational ones. See, for instance, Gibler and Black (2004) for the functional outsourcing of service components between CREM and the market.

Systems of division of labour in the past were often focused on gathering comparable work into departments or roles in businesses. This in turn called for certain IT systems, workflows, qualification profiles, etc. In order to execute and fulfil the needs of the business, CREM procedures must be used to manage the resources applications and IT, data, infrastructure, and people. In this regard, grouping related chores in one location is often a good idea. It is also possible to think of the combination of technological and content-related duties as an efficient means of avoiding high transaction costs. These arise, for instance, when projects are assigned to owners who lack or have little technical expertise, forcing them to repeatedly get acquainted with the subject at hand. In this situation, the CREM unit serves as a middleman for all responsibilities associated with the business' real estate-related operations while upholding and adhering to the goals of the Organisation. However, this principal-agent relationship inside an Organisation is distinct from that with outside market partners such as businesses outside the company's borders or outsourced services.

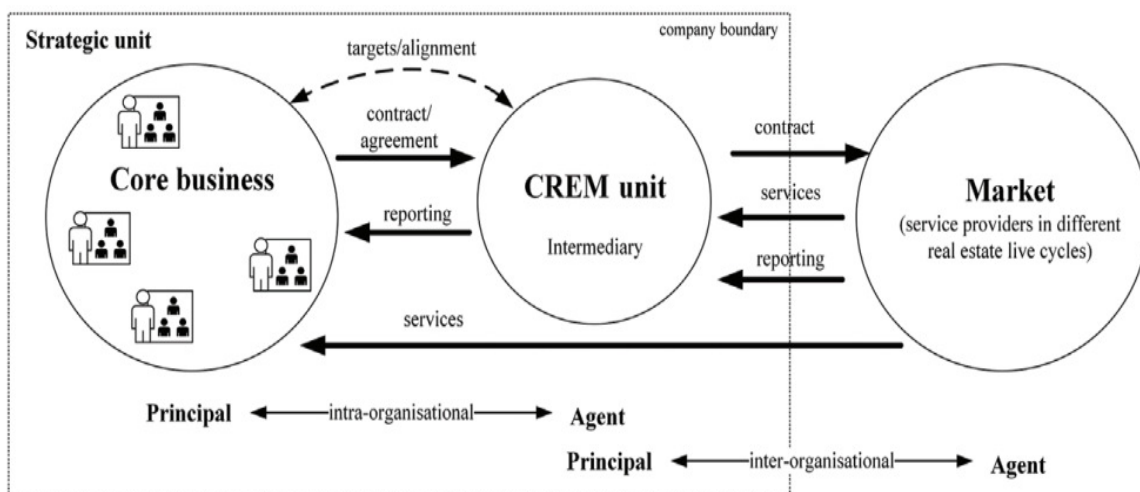


Figure 1: Representing the Multi-level principal-agent relationship [Library Open].

The significance of managing the transactional connection via contractual arrangements is made obvious within the context of this internal unit example. And the bigger the gap between the first-best and second-best solution, and therefore the associated agency costs, the more the actors use their already available range of behaviour in the design and management of workplaces. The question is how this information can be used strategically and, therefore, contractually shaped within a company with a view to ensuring a value contribution in the understanding of a possible first-best solution. There is always an unequal distribution of information between principal and agent. Due to the knowledge asymmetries that exist, judgements are sometimes taken that do not maximize value but instead best match the expectations of the actor. To obtain the lowest agency costs feasible, the issue of what contractual instruments may be utilised in the internal exchange of services emerges.

Descriptive Structuring of Intra-Organizational Relationships

A descriptive examination of the internal intra-organizational region of the business is now required, taking into account a multi-level principal-agent relationship.

In theory, these components and interactions shouldn't be seen as independent from one another and connected to outside businesses; but, for the sake of this research, a model-like breakdown is required.

At this phase, it is addressed how the principal's potential information issues function/core business can affect the agent's potential discretionary authority (CREM). Intra-organizational ties, in contrast to inter-organizational interactions, do not let the transaction partners to choose one another. To put it another way, the CREM unit cannot be freely chosen by the core business unit with its functions as an internal service provider among other potential service partners.

This holds true both ways and results in an internal contracting requirement and a quasi-monopoly position to support the system of division of labour. Due to the presence of a central CREM-department, choosing an appropriate contractual partner in the area of workplace solutions is thus unnecessary from the perspective of the business unit.

The agency issue may get worse if this agent pick is left out. In the classic case, as was previously demonstrated, the principal is in possession of information about his potential contractual partners despite the asymmetry that exists, and he has dealt with the situation of contracting - to some extent, he has built up specific know-how that he can draw on in the context of his decision - which is now completely omitted here.

The business unit lacks knowledge about the performance and appropriateness of the internal CREM unit as a contractual partner as a consequence of the deletion of the selection procedure.

A maximum quality uncertainty may be expected since the principal cannot directly view the agent's real quality attributes, particularly in contrast to potential market partners. For instance, the business unit is unable to determine whether there would have been other, better solutions with a higher surface density, better support for productivity, a better office layout, and support for activity-based working environments than the agent's suggested solution due to a lack of market comparisons.

The CREM's exposed quasi-monopoly status strengthens this impact even more.

The creation of workplace solutions, as well as any other property-related operations, might be maintained by CREM at a reasonable level without being sanctioned, to put it another way.

There are instances when the principal's perception of the relevant uncertainty is reduced by the installation and execution of proper monitoring and control mechanisms and acceptable performance incentive systems (see Table.1), but these actions also result in organisational expenses.

At this point, it should not be forgotten that the creation of a multi-level principal-agent relationship and the creation of a CREM unit are primarily organisational in nature and that the internal contractual partners have already worked together in the past, both favorably and unfavorably.

In this regard, the shadow of the past might also lead to concerns now about the systematic deployment of new working environments for the user, which internal contracting cannot effectively address.

It may be anticipated that the information sharing and collaboration between the internal contract partners will be more reliable and effective the longer and more favorable the experiences of earlier cooperation have been.

It is now possible to use and mutually signalize the good experiences of internal contract partners (see Table .1).

Table 1: Table summarized the Options for problem limitation (hidden characteristics).

<i>Removal of information asymmetry</i>		<i>Alignment of interests</i>
<i>Signaling/screening</i>	<i>Self-selection</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Description of the value contribution of the CREM • Publication of success stories about positive workplace concepts and solutions • Using the “shadow of the past” • Company-wide description of the degree of maturity (also in comparison to the market) • Integration of further, independent industry experts as neutral partners • Introduction of project advisory boards to support the change process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formulation of different possibilities of performance implementation by the principal and self-selection to identify the best solutions by the agent (measured by the achieved value contribution for the company) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Description of internal, market-based clearing systems • Formulation of joint target agreements on the basis of the corporate goals • Development of incentive systems, which are linked to the success of the measures

If the creation of new work environments also falls under the category of object-related complexity, where the principal is required to provide specific details about the required solution such as the type and manner of cooperation, processes and activities, communication relationships, etc. so that the agent can implement these in solutions, then this complexity is frequently viewed as the root of the misunderstanding. Only when this data about the key business processes has been gathered and integrated will the agent (CREM) be in a position to generate sound solutions that can then be modified. According to Barshefsky and Glock, this intricacy may serve as the foundation for misunderstandings, transmission, and translation mistakes, all of which have a major negative influence on the success of the proposed workplace solution.

On the other hand, with these expert services of applying cutting-edge workplace ideas, the agent is also subject to the principal's directions. The principle should be able to accurately explain his wants and be able to quantify them according to the goals of the business. As long as the product doesn't have a real price, integrated systems tend to demand the highest performance in the absence of market-based fees. As a result, there will be inefficiencies in the interchange of services since often more room, functional connections, office layouts, work processes, and equipment features are required than are really necessary. Internal, collaborative target agreements with an integrated incentive system might be reached in order to avoid these maximization impulses from encouraging an inadequate business solution and instead position the project objectives in the perspective of the entire company goals. As a result, it is feasible to comprehend *ex Nunc* or *ex post* why certain objectives have not been met and how the accompanying obligations might be explained.

However, from the standpoint of the agent, the non-disclosure of information in the instance of Only in cases when the agent wouldn't hurt himself would the principle be presumed. However, it appears more often than not that the principal unintentionally communicates his needs insufficiently. This is especially likely to be the case in pilot projects for the implementation of novel workplace concepts, as there is frequently no established procedure with checklists, key figures, experience reports, etc. in these situations. A project advisory board might be formed to help the transformation process, for example, or it would make sense to include more external firms to specify needs from a more objective and unbiased

perspective (see Table.1).However, it seems that with respect to the concealed features, the first internal doubts have already been discovered, which must be resolved by certain intraorganizational countermeasures; Table.1 summarizes potential solution methods.

The intended separation of duties and task specialization between the implementation of real estate management and core business requirements, however, inevitably creates a situation where the principal is able to monitor the performance of the CREM but ultimately cannot evaluate it technically. As a result, only thorough analysis, extra information, external reports, etc., and therefore thorough information supplied by the principal, can be used to assess the real performance of the CREM unit. Specifically, a core business unit would need to understand which market solutions are available for which activities, with which structural and technical solutions and at what cost, how functional units can be best assembled following internal communication relationships, how basic space requirements and occupancy rates, etc., are described, and so on. The topic of what internal principal-introduced control and monitoring mechanisms should be used, as well as the associated organisational expenditures, would come next. For example, joint CREM workshops on the extensive integration of the user co-producer in the new working environment, the integration of real and implemented project examples, etc. are just a few of these solutions. (See also Table .2.) An external advisory board with expertise could be established to help solve the corresponding challenges. The user has to grasp what it means to be a respected partner in eye contact.

Table 2: Table summarized the removal of information asymmetry.

<i>Removal of information asymmetry</i>		<i>Alignment of interests</i>
<i>Monitoring</i>	<i>Proactive approach</i>	<i>Monitoring</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal control • Use of normative control and an organisational 'WE' feeling (emotional attachment of employees) • Common values (workplace as an identity and image-forming characteristic) • Establishment of an externally staffed project advisory board for project implementation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integration and creation of confidence-building measures • Joint workshops for planning and implementation • Extensive integration of the user including early involvement (co-producer) • Technical support (e.g. Building Information Modelling visuals for the design of the workspace, surfaces, colours, functional relationships, etc.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Description of the objectives and measurement of the CREM value contribution (incentive-compatible reward) • Joint project reports on project progress to the management

Level and be given the impression that his needs, as well as those of others, are first taken into consideration. The assessment of project success in the form of the degree of goal attainment, however, is also becoming more and more crucial, so that investment costs are placed in relation to the benefit contribution, as projects involving innovative or even transformed working environments proceed. In light of the associated investment costs, measuring and evaluating the benefit contribution of new workplace solutions within a company appears anything but simple, which would have to exacerbate the measurement issues of the principal. It becomes apparent that the agent (CREM) may utilise discretion and knowledge advantages to forego doing agreed-upon acts or to carry out operations that should be skipped, which would be against the interests of the principal. This specific illustration highlights the significance of unidirectional advantages.

It may be predicted that when complexity rises, measurement and evaluation issues increase as well. Making a clear evaluation and measurement is likely to grow more challenging the more the current working environments are tampered with or altered in this context e.g.,

activity-oriented working environments, non-territorial workplaces, etc. Essentially, this will cause the principle to believe that although he may be able to see the agent's performance, it will be challenging for him to evaluate it properly. It may also cause the principal to feel that the observation and control procedure can only be done at high organisational and control costs.

The advantages of the workplace solution may be clearly outlined in mutually designed target agreements, project commitments, and target and performance evaluation systems. Control may be obtained in a number of ways. Between formal control which affects the members from the outside and normative control makes a clear distinction.

The hidden intentions of the transaction partners and, more importantly, the fact that one partner has brought in significantly more specific investments than the other are the root causes of another type of information that is distributed asymmetrically between the functional areas. Due to this dependence, there is a chance that opportunistic behaviour may result in a hold-up.

CREM units accumulate specialized knowledge over time, even only in the context of the previously described labour division; this is true for both the implementation of workplace structures in particular and real estate sector difficulties in general.

This information is based on suppliers, technologically feasible solutions, sensor usage, particular surface requirements, room temperatures, etc. According to Williamson, this specialized knowledge may be thought of as human asset specificity.

The fact that some investments cannot be employed outside the transactional connection that was originally designed with equivalent value generation or without changes is what they all have in common. Mutual reliance may be established in this context if it is considered that the demand side and CREM share an internal contract, however it need not be to the same degree. Furthermore, it should be noted that the main and agent (CREM) functional areas addressed here often answer to distinct upper echelons of management for instance, Production answers to the Chief Production Officer and CREM answers to the Chief Financial Officer. In this case, the evaluation and assessment of the solution achieved in the form of user satisfaction, along with the financial framework data such as investment costs, budget compliance, adherence to schedules, etc, is integrated into the evaluation of the CREM unit's performance. It would advantage the principal and change the reliance ratio. In turn, this would provide the principal more leeway at the cost of the agent.

However, it must be noted that there can and will also be conflicting goals at the functional area level and that there is occasionally an accountability problem - both positive and negative. When considering corporate practises, it is already clear that all functional goals can be derived from the overarching corporate goals

The functional sections may potentially perform more broad opportunistic actions, based on the internal billing model for the service. In this instance, for instance, it is assumed that the principle and the CREM unit have largely reached an understanding about the solution to be put into place for the new working environment, as well as the related investment volume and rental payments (for example, cost rent).

The CREM unit then creates specific investments in the form of detailed plans, management concepts, invitations to tender, relocation plans, etc. because these solutions are only useful for their intended use and may need to be modified, which would incur additional costs. The principle foresees this and modifies the terms of the underlying contract, such as the requirement that rent be paid at cost. Given the many reporting structures inside the Organisation, this situation of a hold-up may theoretically occur.

The principal could use changing external circumstances and environmental changes as evidence to support this opportunistic activity internally.

CONCLUSION

In order to maximize the value of their real estate assets and connect them with their overall company strategy, organisations must first integrate Corporate Real Estate Management (CREM) into the corporate framework. Organisations may successfully use their real estate portfolio to accomplish a variety of strategic goals, improve operational effectiveness, and gain a competitive edge by incorporating CREM into the corporate structure. Organisations may make sure that real estate choices are made in accordance with their vision, purpose, and values by incorporating CREM. By aligning real estate plans with the larger business strategy, this offers a more comprehensive and integrated approach that fosters synergy and maximizes value development. Additionally, integrating CREM within the Organisation involves coordination and communication across various organisational tasks. In order to guarantee that real estate choices are influenced by their individual skills and viewpoints, it entails including stakeholders such as senior management, finance, operations, and human resources.

This cooperative strategy makes it easier to incorporate real estate issues into crucial business processes, leading to more strategic and informed decision-making. Organisations may efficiently manage real estate risk when CREM is integrated into the business framework. Organisations may proactively identify and handle possible risks, minimizing their effect and maximizing possibilities, by taking into account elements including market volatility, regulatory changes, and sustainability. Additionally, integrating CREM encourages real estate management that is long-term and sustainable. It promotes businesses to include environmental, social, and governance (ESG) considerations into their real estate strategy, fostering ethical and sustainable behaviour that is advantageous to both the business and the larger community. For Organisations to maximize their real estate assets and synchronize them with their overarching business plan, CREM must be integrated into the corporate environment. In order to make informed choices, manage risks, and establish a competitive and sustainable working environment, teamwork, integration, and a long-term view are necessary. By adopting this strategy, businesses may use real estate as a strategic asset and promote long-term success.

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CHAPTER 2

REAL ESTATE MANAGEMENT: CONTRIBUTIONS OF BRANDING THEORY

Dr. Srinivasan Palamalai, Associate Professor,
Master in Business Administration (General Management), Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-srinivasanp@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

It is acknowledged that branding theory has made contributions to corporate real estate management (CREM), which is a useful strategy for strategically using and controlling real estate assets inside organisations. The main contributions of branding theory to CREM are summarised. The brand identity of an organizations real estate assets may be developed and maintained using a framework provided by branding theory. It emphasises how crucial it is to match the organizations brand image, values, and culture with the physical environment, design, and facilities. Organisations may have a distinct and recognisable brand presence in the market by integrating branding components into the real estate strategy. The effect of branding theory on attracting and keeping tenants is one important contribution it makes to CREM. A real estate asset with a strong brand may attract more renters and foster a sense of loyalty among current ones. Organisations may improve perceptions of their real estate products and cultivate enduring connections with tenants by creating a consistent brand experience across the tenant journey. Furthermore, real estate is acknowledged by branding theory as playing a part in building the total business brand. The actual workplace acts as a visible reflection of the culture and principles of the company. Organisations may strengthen their brand message, build their image, and provide workers, customers, and other stakeholders a consistent brand experience by coordinating their real estate assets with their corporate brand. Additionally, branding theory emphasises the financial benefits of successful brand management in CREM. Greater rental prices, greater occupancy rates, and superior financial performance of real estate assets may all be attributed to a strong brand identity. A real estate portfolio with a strong brand may also draw in quality investors and renters, increasing market value and the possibility for better returns on investment.

KEYWORDS:

Brand, Corporate, Estate, Theory, Workplace.

INTRODUCTION

One means of distinguishing a product or a service is by its brand. A successful brand is a name, symbol, design, or some combination, which identifies the product or service of a particular Organisation as having sustainable differential advantage, provided a fuller definition of a brand, proposing that it is a distinctive mix of qualities and added values, both functional and nonfunctional, that have acquired a significant significance associated with the brand. According to Appel-Meulenbroek et al, a brand can be seen as a cluster of physical, functional, and socio-psychological attributes, beliefs, and values associated with a specific product or service. Clearly, developing and communicating a brand to all pertinent stakeholders of a business requires more than just visuals. Branding has its roots in the marketing sector but swiftly gained the benefit of several psychological theories. Some claim

that the word brand first appeared in the marketing. However, according to Bastos and Levy, there are some investigations that date back to a few years before then. The topic was first studied in 1922. However, it didn't truly start to acquire popularity until the 1950s, and the most of the study is even from this century [1]–[3].

Branding is now a topic of study in the social sciences and humanities, according to the theory put forward by Holt. Numerous studies on place branding and city marketing have been conducted in the tourist industry. In order to get more insight into employer branding, the human resources (HR) industry is also adopting marketing theories. Four distinct historical periods of branding theory development, each with a distinct emphasis, were identified by Roper and Parker. In the beginning, the price was the primary emphasis of branding theory, but subsequently, the name, the service, and finally, seeing the brand as a firm asset, were also included. Identification, distinctiveness, personification, and asset were the names they gave to these four branding phases. When customers link a product or service to its creator or owner, they are identifying the brand. This kind of product branding accentuates originality to make sure that customers can identify the brand. The necessity for a brand, however, grew significantly during the industrial revolution, when improvements in manufacturing methods made it possible to produce goods in large quantities at cheap costs with consistent quality [4]–[6].

Due to the rising market rivalry, goods had to be differentiated from those of competitors. Since that time, mass communication has urged buyers to recognise a product by name in order to cement the brand in their minds and promote repeat business with the same business. Innovation may assist a dominating position be maintained for a longer time by creating distinct brand difference among rival brands in the market. Differentiation typically happened logically or functionally via factors like size, packing, quality, and price, for example. Services began to be seen as a component of the brand beginning in the 1990s, increasing so-called personification. In order to emotionally connect with customers, this transforms a brand from an object into a product with meaning. For instance, a celebrity's endorsement of a product will give it more charisma, and customers like goods, businesses, or services that reflect their ideal selves. Customers build the meaning through identifying with the brand, which is determined by the brand's attributes. After all, despite a company's best efforts, the brand meaning is ultimately created by the customers. The worth of a brand became just as significant a value as other firm assets with the turn of the century as it began to be recognised as an asset for the company [7], [8].

DISCUSSION

Today, branding theory makes distinctions across a wide range of terminology and ideas, as well as in terms of who is engaged in conveying the brand and its intended audience. Regarding the latter, product branding serves as the foundation for selling items to clients, but it is insufficient for businesses to concentrate simply on building a reputation via the quality of their products (due to the standardisation and uniformity of modern manufacturing methods). Therefore, the goal of so-called corporate branding is to communicate the values and feelings represented by the organisation. According to Orozco-Toro and Ferre-Pavia, it considers how various key stakeholders view the business reputation. Through employer branding, which targeted this broadcast of firm values towards prospective future workers rather than consumers, the battle for talent introduced another stakeholder. According to Edwards, Employer branding considers current and potential employees as branding targets, whereas product branding considers how a product is represented to customers and corporate branding considers how an organisation is represented to a variety of external audiences [9]–[11].

Thus, successful firms must tackle corporate branding holistically, consistently, and cohesively. To establish true coherence between the promise the brand makes and the

performance the company provides, all organisational members should contribute to the development of the corporate brand. After then, the corporate brand expands into many forms of communication, such as employee conduct, beyond the visible components of the brand, such as the logo and building. In order to achieve this, firms must develop a synergy between the brand and the organisational culture, which is ingrained in organisational conduct. Employee conduct and consumer perception and retention are related, according to Kaplan and Norton. They claim that a fascinating place to work leads to a compelling place to purchase, using the retail industry as an example. They are attempting to convey the truth that employee-centered services may be just as significant to external consumers as the overused claim. However, going against the grain and fostering a connection between the brand and its challenging to change the corporate culture. Customer services whether they serve as a business primary source of revenue or are connected to physical goods also contribute to the brand's overall experience. A strong brand has to be supported by the customer being aware of significant distinctions between the provider's goods. Due to this, several researchers have shifted their focus from input and outcomes/sales to the internal building of a strategic function. In order to create a dynamic corporate branding that promotes stakeholder buy-in and branding results, firms must first integrate functional silos.

A second set of dimensions relates to the ideas and vocabulary around branding. According to Markwick and Fill, branding is the act of communicating who the company is, what it does, and how it does it via a visual representation known as the corporate identity. Image is another term that appears often in branding literature. Identity originates from the company, i.e. a company is responsible for creating a differentiated product with unique features, according to customer perceptions are referred to as brand image, which includes a variety of customer beliefs about the product. Or, to put it another way, brand identity represents how firms aspire to be perceived, whereas brand image refers to how they are perceived, as stated by Sääksjärvi and Samiee. Both ideas are crucial components of powerful brands. Despite being the foundation of their concept, Melewar and Karaosmanoglu assert that corporate culture does not alone define corporate communication and, therefore, corporate identity.

Furthermore, it is important to consider how corporate culture affects corporate behaviour and strategy since each of these three factors also has an impact on how successfully a company communicates its identity. Another curved path in their model connects corporate strategy, corporate structure, corporate design, corporate communication, and corporate identity. Since it is the most overt and clear type of communication, this indirect line of branding may be the most evident and its oldest form; yet, as was already said, conduct is equally important. The physical workplace design, in particular, has an impact on how successfully people can execute their jobs, which Melewar and Karosmanoglus model neglects to take into account. The three different types of stakeholders who came forward to benefit from branding efforts—consumers of the companies' products/services, potential future employees, and current employees—are distinguished in more detail in the following section on the application of branding theory to workplaces.

Branding Dimensions

Today, branding theory makes distinctions across a wide range of terminology and ideas, as well as in terms of who is engaged in conveying the brand and its intended audience. Regarding the latter, product branding serves as the foundation for selling items to clients, but it is insufficient for businesses to concentrate simply on building a reputation via the quality of their products due to the standardisation and uniformity of modern manufacturing methods. Therefore, the goal of so-called corporate branding is to communicate the values and feelings represented by the organisation. According to Orozco-Toro and Ferre-Pavia, it considers how various key stakeholders view the business reputation. Through employer branding, which targeted this broadcast of firm values towards prospective future workers

rather than consumers, the battle for talent introduced another stakeholder. According to Edwards, Employer branding considers current and potential employees as branding targets, whereas product branding considers how a product is represented to customers and corporate branding considers how an organisation is represented to a variety of external audiences. Thus, successful firms must tackle corporate branding holistically, consistently, and cohesively. To establish true coherence between the promise the brand makes and the performance the company provides, all organisational members should contribute to the development of the corporate brand .

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Applicability to Workplace Studies

Workplace design elements are seen to be important for conveying business identity. Therefore, corporate real estate (CRE) and facilities management may enhance or detract from the business brands ability to be communicated. To far, branding models have focused primarily on the visual design elements of the workplace, such as the buildings architecture and office arrangement, as having a direct impact on the way businesses communicate with customers who pass by or visit the facility. They ignore the possibility for a substantial correlation between the physical workplace and employee conduct, which might have an indirect impact on corporate communication due to CRE. Additionally, an increasing number of businesses are exploiting the architectural layout of their offices to promote their employer brands for example, Googles circular structure, which emphasises fun by employing slides in place of stairs. Branding theory may be applicable for CREM internal branding in addition to assisting the company in expressing its corporate identity to clients and employees who are internal clients, in order to demonstrate its extra strategic value for the company more precisely. Following are three ways that a branding theory may be used to improve corporate real estate management, as explained in this section:

1. Direct and indirect physical communication of corporate identity to consumers.
2. Employer branding.
3. CREM internal service branding.

Direct and Indirect Physical Communication

By assisting in the communication of corporate identity in the direction of a better corporate image, CREM may be able to provide strategic value to enhancing firm marketing and sales, according to Lindholm and Leväinen. They said that CREM ought to:

1. Provide space that attracts customers.
2. Make a symbolic statement through design and location.
3. Create a workplace that supports the corporate brand.
4. Provide the environment that supports the sale.
5. Select locations that capture customers.

According to interviews with CRE managers, the values of sustainability, dependability, transparency, innovation, and being people-oriented are the ones they most often aim to establish a brand image. These should, however, also align with the core principles of the businesses. There arent many actual research on how workplace factors affect a companys branding performance and how its consumers perceive its image, both directly and indirectly. Bitner investigated the impacts of ambience conditions such as temperature, sound, light, and scent, space and function, as well as signs, symbols, and artefacts on consumers in relation to possible direct consequences of the workplace. The link between CRE and company perceptions was explicitly examined by Hatch and Cunliffe and Strati , who identified location, layout, and design as key elements. The workplace managers of various (service) organisations were questioned by Appel-Meulenbroek et al. about how they believed a list of specific physical workplace characteristics would support corporate branding.

The location type and reputation, landscaping, the façade, the main entrance, the architectural style, visibility, the floor plan, accessibility and indoor environmental quality (IEQ), nearby amenities, accessibility by car, bicycle, or public transportation, and restaurant amenities were all factors that they tested for a direct or indirect influence. The locations accessibility and typology, the buildings level of finishing and recognizability, as well as the main entrance, were thought to be the most crucial branding elements. Organisations communicate with their clients and staff via the lobby of their buildings, their main entrance, their amenities, and signs. The concepts brand and landscaping have somewhat merged to form the term brandscaping. In terms of collateral consequences, contented workers are better able to contribute to the business and are more eager to go above and beyond to please their external

clients. Quality workers who got internal service quality from corporate business units like CREM led to loyal and happy external clients. It is a chain reaction of internal quality that benefits both internal and external consumers. IEQ, furnishings and equipment, sufficient variety of functional areas, and supported facility services are crucial for ensuring employee satisfaction. Soft factors as seclusion and décor.

Employer Branding

Employer branding suggests differentiation of a firm's characteristics as an employer from those of its competitors, the employment brand highlights the distinctive aspects of the firm's employment offerings or environment, according to Backhaus and Tikoo. In a more recent paper, Backhaus noted that there is disagreement about which characteristics are most crucial, despite the fact that there have been hundreds of publications published on the subject. However, due to the talent shortage in many knowledge-based industries, employer branding is now increasingly focusing on the workplace. To persuade young people that working for them would provide them a desirable employment environment, businesses build stylish, contemporary workplaces. There isn't much data to show whether deciding between occupations is genuinely influenced by the physical workplace.

Themans et al.'s research on employer branding seemed to be the only one that particularly discussed real estate. Only above organisational image and below incentives, social environment, growth chances, and working hours, real estate ranked second lowest when knowledge workers were asked to assign points to factors impacting an organization's desirability as an employer. Real estate is undoubtedly also an important factor, despite the fact that the changes were, as they claimed in their research, quite little. Location was deemed to be the most significant study factor in the real estate category, followed by individual workplace, services, and amenities, and finally the building itself. The property's geographic location and accessibility particularly contributed to the establishment of an appealing employer.

CREM Internal Service Branding

CREM may significantly improve the fundamental operations of a client company in a number of ways, on the Value Adding Management model. Nevertheless, CREM and general management continue to place a lot of emphasis on how much it costs to house guests. The reason CREM struggles to get strategic attention is because of this narrow emphasis on unit costs and building condition as opposed to total costs and business results impacted by workplace design. However, there is more focus on demonstrating the entire worth and significance of CREM. Perhaps the CREM/FM departments' internal branding might benefit from improvement. CREM needs to better frame itself in terms of supporting business as that is what their customers saw as CREM's core competence, said Omar and Heywood. Through the use of both real and intangible assets, as well as a company's vision and dedication to satisfying its most important customer's employees, CREM internal service branding creates a service brand from the inside out. Since it also represents psychological demands like territoriality, privacy, autonomy, and social connection with others, an employee's workplace serves as more than simply a resource for business.

In addition, physical working environments affect people's emotions and bodies via connection, familiarity, and identification. Ignoring the emotional consequences may have negative socio-psychological repercussions on people's wellbeing and may also affect how they interact with consumers. Internal service branding may be the toughest branding problem for CREM out of the three branding applications covered in this chapter for a number of reasons. The best workplace assistance is complicated since functional, physical, and psychological factors may all be involved. Appel-Ellenbrook et al. conducted a structured literature review that resulted in the identification of 134 studies. From these studies, they extracted 10 employee outcomes that had been demonstrated to be impacted by

the physical work environment, as well as 8 categories of workplace design variables that could be used to affect these outcomes.

As a result, there are several product and service attributes that might be internally branded in order to appeal to general management and staff. For the best possible working experience, various internal stakeholders prefer different environments. How the office layout and other physical components may boost productivity and competitiveness is likely the main issue senior management would want to have addressed. On the other side, employees can be more concerned with their own safety, privacy, and support of activities. Additionally, due to the wide range of personal preferences, there is no one solution that works for all employee. Thus, it may even qualify as a wicked issue, which are hard to define and affected by a variety of intricate social and political aspects that evolve over time, as described by Kreuter et al. Such a constellation may also affect workplace management.

It might be difficult to separate the influence of physical characteristics from other variables affecting the employee at the same time when attempting to justify actual real estate benefits to employee productivity and behaviour. For instance, there is currently a dearth of empirical research on how the workplace affects employee productivity and organisational value. The service providers actions and communications have a significant impact on the strategic value of internal service branding. In order to increase the confidence of workers and management, CREM, as an internal service function to a company, must demonstrate its knowledge and effectiveness in meeting criteria. However, this is always a team effort with other corporate areas like HR, IT, and finance, therefore cooperation with these divisions is required. Additionally, external service providers are often recruited to carry out a portion of the CREM service delivery, thus they participate in promoting the CREM service.

What matters is how CREM performs its function in the brand-building process to connect the internal organisational values to the outward brand values, or the other way around. Omar and Heywood noted that when CREM is seen as a trustworthy and dependable contact point to provide them the required concrete and intangible circumstances to perform at their best, workplace acceptability among workers rises. In order to adjust to a new scenario without difficulty, employees also need to have a deeper awareness of what the job entails. Employees internal market demands specialized offerings that align with the company's external messaging. Thus, it seems that in order to provide high-quality goods or services to the market, pleasing internal consumers is just as crucial as satisfying external ones. Businesses must strategically include CREM into their marketing plans in order to succeed as they work to strengthen their competitive position in a crowded market. CREM is a shareholder in creating a powerful and enduring corporate brand for businesses even when they do not interact with external clients directly.

CONCLUSION

By offering a framework and tactics for efficiently managing and utilising real estate assets inside an organisation, branding theory significantly contributes to corporate real estate management (CREM). Organisations may accomplish a number of important goals by integrating branding ideas into CREM practises. First of all, using branding theory, real estate assets may develop a distinctive and recognisable brand identity. The physical setting, facilities, and services must be coordinated with the organizations brand positioning, core principles, and culture. Organisations may distinguish themselves in the market, improve their image, and entice new renters, investors, and workers by creating a distinctive brand identity. Additionally, branding theory helps to raise tenant satisfaction. Organisations may create a welcoming and interesting atmosphere for renters by matching the actual workplace with the corporate image. This might include including branding components in the design, offering top-notch facilities and services, and making sure that the tenant has a consistent brand experience all throughout their time in the building. Satisfied renters are more inclined

to extend their leases, recommend the property to others, and promote a favourable reputation. Thirdly, branding theory acknowledges real estate's function in attracting and keeping talent. Organisations may recruit top talent and increase employee engagement by developing a branded working environment that represents the organizations values and culture. A professionally branded workplace boosts employee productivity and well-being, enhances the corporate brand, and develops a feeling of pride and belonging. Finally, branding theory emphasises the monetary gains from CREMs great brand equity. Strongly branded real estate properties may charge higher rents, have lower vacancy rates, and draw in high-calibre tenants. A well-branded real estate portfolio also raises the organizations total market worth and attractiveness, which boosts returns on investment and boosts financial success. Corporate real estate management benefits from the tactics and insights provided by branding theory. Organisations may develop a distinctive brand identity, improve tenant happiness, attract and retain talent, and spur financial success by integrating branding ideas into CREM practises. Organisations must understand the value of branding while managing their real estate assets and take use of these benefits to stand out from the competition.

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CHAPTER 3**MANAGEMENT: BUILDINGS, WORKPLACES,
FACILITIES AND SERVICES**

Dr. Ranganathan Kumar, Associate Professor,
Master in Business Administration (General Management), Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-drsenthilkumar@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

Managing workspaces, facilities, and services is essential for enhancing the value of organizations. The important components and contributions of good management in this situation are outlined in this abstract. Effective administration of structures, workplaces, facilities, and services requires a multifaceted, comprehensive approach. It covers the strategic planning, creation, and use of physical spaces to serve the aims and objectives of the Organisation. To assure their best functioning, it also entails the effective operation and maintenance of infrastructure and services. The formation of a supportive and productive work environment is one of the main contributions of good management. Buildings and workplaces that are well-managed may improve productivity, well-being, and employee happiness. Organisations may design environments that encourage employee engagement and improve overall organisational performance by taking into account elements like layout, ergonomics, lighting, climate control, and amenities. Additionally, efficient administration of buildings and services helps businesses to optimize resource use and save expenses. To reduce resource consumption and waste, it entails the adoption of sustainable practices, energy-efficient technology, and preventive maintenance techniques. Organisations may save costs and contribute to environmental sustainability by making the best use of their available space, resources, and services. The incorporation of technology and innovation is another important managerial contribution in this situation. Businesses may monitor and manage many elements of their buildings and facilities in real-time by using building management systems, smart technology, and data analytics effectively. This integration may increase operational effectiveness, facilitate better decisions, and provide insightful information for raising performance.

KEYWORDS:

Facilities, Management, Performance, Service, Value.

INTRODUCTION

To bring together academics from various research contexts who were involved in or interested in comparing and establishing cooperative research efforts on the added value of facilities management (FM), the second author of this chapter established the EuroFM workgroup in 2009. He had created an FM Value Map at the same time. This model of the input-throughput-output-outcome process was motivated by the cause-and-effect concepts of Strategic Mapping from Kaplan and Norton's Balanced Scorecard technique. It distinguishes between four environmental values, four primary stakeholders' owners, employees, consumers, and society, and six basic business values. This chapter's initial author joined the EuroFM work group and contributed viewpoints from the corporate real estate management (CREM) industry. The work of Nourse and Roulac, who connected corporate strategy with

eight corporate real estate strategies and fourteen real estate operating decisions, and that of Lindholm et al. who connected related real estate strategies to revenue growth, productivity growth, shareholder value, and various PhD projects, provided important ideas[1]–[3].

Concepts, Findings and Perspectives, edited by Jensen et al. contains the conclusions of the EuroFM study group. In this book, scholarly research on added value and value-adding management of buildings, workplaces, facilities, and services is presented by twenty-two co-authors from seven different nationalities. Within research on FM, CREM, and B2B marketing in 2012, Jensen et al. examined pertinent study issues and conclusions on the added value of FM. The decision to engage experts to develop twelve value dimensions involving current knowledge, how to manage and assess these value parameters, and future prospects was made during a brainstorming session with members of the EuroFM work group. A session on managing and measuring various value dimensions was arranged by Jensen, van der Voordt, and Coenen during the 2013 European Facility Management Conference (EFMC). The attendees demonstrated that they had varied interpretations of added value and that it was challenging to operationalize added value in terms of precise criteria, actions, and metrics. Further investigation of conceptual frameworks on the added value of FM, CREM, and associated stakeholders was conducted by Jensen et al [4]–[6].

Interviews with practitioners looked at how and whether they put the added value idea into practise, what values are prioritised, what interventions are used, and how the results are assessed. This demonstrated the need for a cogent definition of added value and suitable instruments for gauging various value indicators. A critique of 21 papers on the added value from the of FM and CREM revealed a lack of comprehensive analysis of the added value, including sacrifices (time, money, risks), and which stakeholders gain most and least from certain initiatives. In 2017, Jensen and van der Voordt published a second book titled *Facilities Management and Corporate Real Estate Management as Value Drivers: How to Manage and Measure Adding Value*. By discussing a taxonomy of six types of interventions, twelve value parameters, state-of-the-art concepts and research findings for each value parameter, and methods to manage and measure added value, this book attempted to break open the opaque world of input, throughput, output, outcome, impact, and added value[7]–[10].

DISCUSSION

Value has been a widely used notion for a very long time. For instance, Rubin is credited with developing the economic theory of exchange value, which tries to explain exchange value, price of value, and price of products and services. The reasons behind why products and services are valued the way they are, the origins of their worth, and - for normative value theories how to determine the proper price of commodities and services are all important considerations. The terms economy, efficiency, and effectiveness may be used to help determine the value for money offered by a project, transaction, or activity. Spending less means reducing the cost of the resources utilised or needed. Spending effectively refers to the link between the production of products or services and the resources used to generate them. The link between the expected and actual outcomes of public expenditure is referred to as effectiveness. According to the subjective theory of value, a good's worth is determined by the requirements and desires of the customer. Michael Porter presented the idea of value chains in relation to supported activities like FM and CREM and illustrated how primary and supportive business activities might result in more consumers, financial profit, and a competitive advantage.

From an economic perspective, additional value is produced when financial value is added, i.e., the Organisation experiences fewer expenses and/or greater income. Coenen et al. contend, however, that value should be seen as the cornerstone of FM because its activities are used as inputs into the client's resource-integrating and value-creating activities as described in Porter's value chain, where FM is a component of the organizations'

infrastructure. They argue for the inclusion of both the supply-side and demand-side perspectives as well as the identification of a broader range of value creation and exchange from the perspectives of many stakeholders. Accordingly, added value may be outlined as the trade-off between the advantages of one decision over another or an intervention in the present situation and the sacrifices made in terms of costs and risks to achieve these advantages found fifty distinct meanings of in the book chapters written by writers from various nations, fields, and industries offices, universities, health care, and industry.extra benefit. They grouped them into six major categories of additional value:

Use value: quality in relation to the needs and preferences of the end users;

Customer Value: trade-off between benefits and costs for the customers or consumers;

Economic, Financial:the economic trade-off between costs and benefits; 4 Social value: connecting people by supporting social interaction, identity and civic pride;

Environmental Value: environmental impact of FM, Green FM;

Relationship Value: for example, getting high-quality services or experiencing a special treatment.

Other studies have also grouped other forms of value, such as productivity, profitability, and competitive advantage and sustainability plus the aforementioned factors. Divided the twelve value parameters into four groups:

1. Societal.
2. Process and product.
3. Economy.
4. people-related values.

Interviews with practitioners revealed that the values incorporated into VAM practises depend on the vision, mission, and goals of the Organisation, as well as the company's life cycle, organisational culture e.g., hierarchical versus network Organisation, commercial versus not-for-profit, branch offices, healthcare, learning environments, retail, and leisure, and contextual factors like the labour market and economy.

Value Adding Management (VAM)

In business and management literature, the phrases value adding management and associated concepts are often employed. Lean management and value-adding management are often used interchangeably in the literature on manufacturing, with an emphasis on minimising non-value-adding or waste operations. The advantages are often highlighted in publications on FM and CREM. Hoendervanger et al. created a Value Adding Management process model with four phases see Figure .1. This model was created to assist decision makers in value adding FM and CREM. The famed Deming cycle's phases are followed by this model, which is action-oriented. The PDCA cycle, which is well-known to many practitioners, is often used to enhance comprehensive quality management. The Benefits Realisation Management (BRM) framework, which consists of a collection of organisational change procedures designed to bridge the gap between strategy development and execution by guaranteeing the adoption of the most beneficial initiatives, is consistent with the ideas of the VAM model.The so-called Logic Model, created in the early 1970s as a tool to assess a program's efficacy, also fits with this theory. Common elements include:

1. Resources such as money, staff, and equipment.
2. Throughput/activities, e.g. The development of procedures or training programs.
3. What is produced, for instance, documents or the number of people that were trained.
4. The changes or benefits that result from the intervention or program, e.g. Increased skills of knowledge.

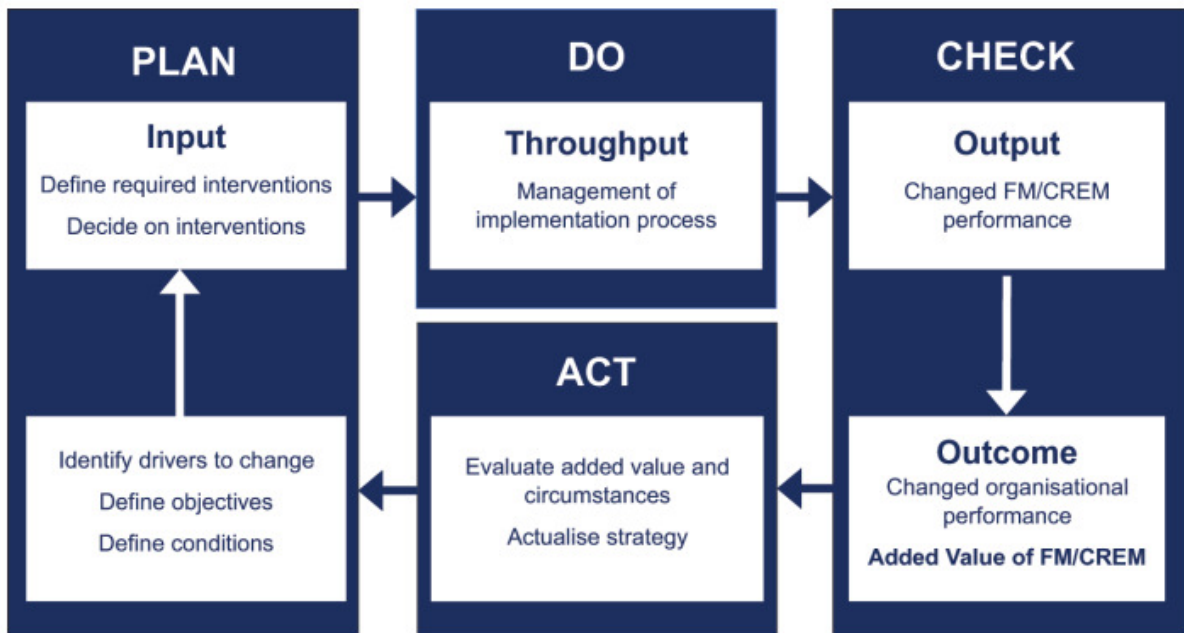


Figure 1: Representing the value Adding Management model [Library Open].

The input-throughput-output-outcome-added-value principles relate to what to accomplish and why, how to do it, and how to assess the results. A strong connection between FM and CREM, which is essential in the VAM model shown in Figure .1, is, however, what is lacking in the majority of organisational change frameworks. The key tasks of the Plan phase are to identify the change-drivers, to determine if there is a performance gap between the organization's intended and actual performance and its accommodations, facilities, and services, and to specify which interventions could lead to better performance. Clear choices regarding which interventions should be undertaken and how to execute them mark the conclusion of the plan phase. Jensen and van der Voordt created a typology of Value Adding FM/CREM therapies to assist with this first phase. Stakeholder analysis may be used to explore the various roles, interests, and power of the stakeholders engaged in the context of Value Adding Management. A SWOT analysis may assist in determining the need and course of change for the company as well as the FM/CREM processes and products.

The planned interventions' execution and the process' management are both included in the Do phase. There are many decisions to be taken, including who should be engaged in the process and how, timetables, how to handle change opposition, and how to handle the various stakeholder demands. Maintaining focus on the original objectives of adding certain qualities is a significant problem. Implementation procedures have a tendency to take on a life of their own, which makes it simple to shift the emphasis from participants' short-term tactical and operational aims to long-term strategic organisational goals. The features of the intervention complexity, budget, risks, timescale, the objectives, and the social/organizational environment should all be taken into account while designing a custom strategy. The costs and advantages of the intervention and their influence on the operation of the organisation and its facilities must be assessed throughout the transition as well as ex-post, once the intervention have been put into practise. A baseline assessment, or an ex-ante measurement taken before the intervention is put into place, is also required to be able to gauge if performance has improved. In order to determine if the altered performance provides value to the organisation and is consistent with its strategy, purpose, and other goals, it is also required to assess whether it does so.

The input-throughput-output-outcome-added-value principles relate to what to accomplish and why, how to do it, and how to assess the results. But what is lacking in The VAM model shown in Figure 1 relies heavily on the FM and CREM relationships that are present in the

majority of organisational transformation frameworks. The key tasks of the Plan phase are to identify the change-drivers, i.e., to determine if there is a performance gap between the organization's intended and actual performance and its accommodations, facilities, and services, and to specify which interventions could lead to better performance. Clear choices regarding which interventions should be undertaken and how to execute them mark the conclusion of the plan phase. Jensen and van der Voordt created a typology of Value Adding FM/CREM therapies to assist with this first phase. Stakeholder analysis may be used to explore the various roles, interests, and power of the stakeholders engaged in the context of Value Adding Management. A SWOT analysis may assist in determining the need and course of change for the company as well as the FM/CREM processes and products. The planned interventions' execution and the process' management are both included in the Do phase. There are many decisions to be taken, including who should be engaged in the process and how, timetables, how to handle change opposition, and how to handle the various stakeholder demands.

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Limitations

Numerous concerns remain unanswered despite the VAM theory's use in workplace research employing diverse study designs and methodologies. It is particularly difficult and requires additional consideration in relation to decision-making theory how to balance the many values, requirements, preferences, and effects of numerous stakeholders. The majority of values are difficult to quantify, which restricts their use in benchmarking studies. To connect VAM to preference-based design and management of workplaces, buildings, and CRE portfolios, validated measurement scales are required.

Theory Relevance to Practice

In two offices in Thailand and one office in the Netherlands, Riratanaphong and van der Voordt evaluated the aims and objectives of workplace change in practise as well as how various added values have been quantified. Numerous performance standards and KPIs from the literature were discovered to be used in practise. However, no performance measuring approach from literature is really used outside of the Balanced Scorecard. None of the companies compared how their real estate affected organisational performance before and after the adjustment for the majority of the challenges. Ex-ante and ex-post data were only gathered once about the evaluation of change by the end users, with an emphasis on employee happiness and perceived work environment support for productivity. The VAM theory, which includes all twelve value factors and all four stages, has not yet been widely utilised in practise, according to further study. Typically, just a few values are included in VAM. Productivity and cost cutting are often given top priority in workplace management, with user happiness being a specific focus.

Van der Zwart et al. evaluated the frequency and mode of use of Value Adding Management by FM/CREM in hospitals. Interviews with CEOs, building project leaders, and FM/CREM

managers began with an open inquiry on whether creating value was utilised as a strategic strategy, drawing on organisational papers. The value parameters were then listed on little cards, and participants were asked to rate them in order of significance and explain which values were given priority. In contrast to sustainability, which was primarily considered when payback durations were restricted to less than three years, staff and patient happiness, productivity, and cost effectiveness often featured in the top three values. A feeling of urgency, significance depending on the context, economic conditions, interested players, and opportunities or risks of existing structures, and a desire to achieve the greatest feasible ratio between high benefits and cheap costs were some of the reasons for prioritising.

Beckers et al. contrasted the advocated CRE approach found in documents with the in-use strategy measured by observations and interviews and applied the VAM theory to learning spaces at thirteen Dutch institutions of applied sciences. Additionally, they evaluated the connection of CRE operational choices with CRE strategy as well as alignment of CRE strategy with corporate strategy. The study's results demonstrate multiple levels of how CRE managers try to match CRE with business objectives in order to benefit the firm. The CRE strategies in use seem to be more closely connected with the business strategies than the CRE strategies that were first proposed. In order to align CREM/FM interventions with the organisational context and organisational objectives, it is anticipated that Value Adding Management of buildings, workplaces, facilities, and services will become more and more connected to general business management as a result of the VAM theory's widespread adoption.

CONCLUSION

The management of facilities, offices, workspaces, and services is essential to enhancing the value of organisations. Organisations may gain a variety of advantages and results by using excellent management practises in this area. First off, efficient management helps to create welcoming and successful work environments. Increased productivity, engagement, and overall organisational success may result from thoughtfully designed workplaces and amenities that put a priority on employee well-being and pleasure. Organisations may tailor the work environment to their workers' requirements by taking into account elements like layout, ergonomics, and amenities. Second, efficient management helps businesses to optimise resource use and save expenses. Organisations may reduce resource consumption, waste, and related expenses by using sustainable practises, energy-efficient technology, and proactive maintenance initiatives.

This benefits the organization's financial health while simultaneously promoting environmental sustainability. Innovation and technological integration are necessary for good management. Businesses may monitor and manage many elements of their buildings and facilities in real-time by using building management systems, smart technology, and data analytics.

This integration improves operational effectiveness, encourages wise decision-making, and offers insightful information for ongoing development. Effective management also takes stakeholders' changing requirements and expectations into account. Organisations may maintain their competitiveness and responsiveness to shifting market trends, technology breakthroughs, and employee preferences by routinely evaluating and adjusting their structures, workspaces, and services. The organisation can satisfy the demands of its stakeholders and retain a favourable image thanks to its agility. By fostering productive work environments, maximising resource utilisation, integrating technology and innovation, and coordinating with stakeholder demands, efficient management of buildings, workspaces, facilities, and services offers value to organisations overall. Organisations may improve operational performance, recruit and retain people, and experience sustainable development and success by prioritising and investing in good management practises in this area.

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CHAPTER 4**TOYOTA PRODUCTION: USING THE WASTE NOTION IN
PROPERTY MANAGEMENT**

Dr. Muralidhar Sunil, Assistant Professor,
Master in Business Administration (General Management), Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-sunilrashinkar@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The automobile industry has undergone a transformation because to the Toyota Production System (TPS), a famous production approach. It is distinguished by its emphasis on reducing waste, boosting effectiveness, and raising general quality. Although the TPS has historically been linked to manufacturing processes, property management may also benefit from its ideas and principles to increase operational effectiveness and reduce waste.

The Toyota Production System's waste reduction concepts are explored in this abstract as they relate to property management.

Property managers may streamline their processes and increase value by recognising and getting rid of waste in numerous forms, such as excess inventory, wasteful transportation, overproduction, and flaws. Property management practises may be modified and incorporated into the fundamental tenets of the Toyota Production System, including just-in-time (JIT) production, continuous improvement (Kaizen), and respect for people.

Property managers may reduce waste caused by overstocking or underutilization by using JIT concepts to guarantee that resources and services are provided precisely when and where they are required. Property managers are urged to regularly evaluate their procedures, identify areas for improvement, and make small adjustments using continuous improvement approaches like Kaizen. With the help of this strategy, property managers may gradually find and get rid of waste by fostering a culture of innovation and constant learning.

The Toyota Production System also stresses the value of treating others with respect. This translates in property management into motivating and empowering staff members, including them in decision-making procedures, and enticing them to take part in waste-reduction programmes. The knowledge and skills of their staff may be used by property managers to discover and correct wasteful practises by fostering a culture of cooperation and shared accountability.

KEYWORDS:

Alignment, Property, Recourse, Toyota Production System, Waste.

INTRODUCTION

One of the biggest problems with sustainable development is resource use. Overall, energy use, emissions, and trash production are greatly influenced by the built environment. A structure uses up resources throughout both its construction and usage phases, which also produce pollutants. For instance, according to Sharma et al., a real estate uses between 80 and 85 percent of its total energy throughout its usage phase, which results in up to 90 percent of all of its life-cycle emissions. The usage phase needs a lot of intangible human capital in addition to natural and technological resources for instance, in managing, planning, acquiring, and controlling. This human capital is squandered to a large extent. The World Economic Forum said that over 40% of human capital is squandered, which led to the same general findings. Resource efficiency and effectiveness are the goals of the circular economy

(CE). According to Geissdoerfer et al., the concept of circularity is based on the reduction of resource input into the system and the elimination of system leakages[1]–[3].

Some people have criticised the built environment's one-sided focus on eliminating leakages out of the system, such as by looping and re-looping. Resource conservation in the built environment becomes very important when you consider the lengthy life cycles of structures, the sluggish regeneration of the building stock, and the volume of resources used throughout a facility's usage phase. Here, the emphasis is on conserving resources throughout a real estate's usage phase. Real estate and workspace management (REM and WM) has adopted an expanded notion of waste from the Toyota Production System in order to save resources and manage for long-term circularity.

The Toyota Production System (TPS) and the related lean management movement are often linked to the idea of waste since they have made it more well known in the management sector since the 1980s. Krafcik and others popularised the word lean. Later used in the mainstream literature, for instance by Womack et al. Womack and Jones, and Liker. Even if the idea of waste has offered a long-term competitive advantage to Toyota's favour, Koskela et al. claim that the history of the idea began towards the end of the 18th century. They claimed that the heyday of resource waste occurred between 1880 and 1930. For instance, Taylor advocated for greater national efficiency in reference to the efficacy and efficiency of both physical and intangible resources[4]–[6].

The waste created by material items is visible and tangible. However, the awkward, ineffective, or misguided actions of men leave nothing behind them that can be seen or touched. Even if we lose more from this source every day than we do from the items we throw away, the former has aroused us far more than the latter. Up until around 1930, overuse of labour and resources was a major factor in manufacturing.

The notion of waste was utilised to minimise waste in non-material domains, such as governments, services, and engineering, during the time of rapid growth of waste thinking. When interest in the Toyota Production System (TPS) began to grow around 1930 and the environmental movement highlighted the environmental side of waste, such as undesirable by-products and pollutions, the notion of waste gradually came back into focus. According to Bolviken et al. the extended waste idea in this context refers to the use of more than necessary and unwanted output.

The founder of TPS, Taiichi Ohno, said that we have to start producing only the things we need while using the least amount of natural and human resources possible. Lean thinking has been acknowledged as an approach to resource efficiency that may be used in a variety of businesses. The idea of waste is utilised in this chapter to develop new resources and release existing ones in order to prevent resource overconsumption and resource losses, including both physical and intangible losses like lost time and human resources. The expanded waste concept also recognises value that is not required as trash[7]–[10].

DISCUSSION

Work and waste are recognised by the TPS. Work in the TPS refers to a sequence of actions and procedures where value is created or transformed. For instance, a feature may be added to the product, or necessary information may be subtracted and reported. Either the work done throughout the phases and procedures provides value or it doesn't. The (over)consumption of resources without creating customer value is referred to as waste in the TPS and is divided into seven forms

1. Waste of overproduction, which refers to producing more than is necessary.
2. Waste of time on hand.
3. Waste of transportation.
4. Waste of processing itself.
5. Waste of excess inventory.

6. Waste of motion.
7. Waste of producing defective products, which typically refers to the unnecessary movement of parts and materials.

Waste reduction is the foundational concept behind the TPS's goal of achieving efficient and effective resource usage. Continuous improvement in the workplace (gemba), where value is created, is how waste is reduced. Two more waste elements are required to execute kaizen in the gemba (see Figure .1). The presentation of the seven waste kinds is in Japanese.

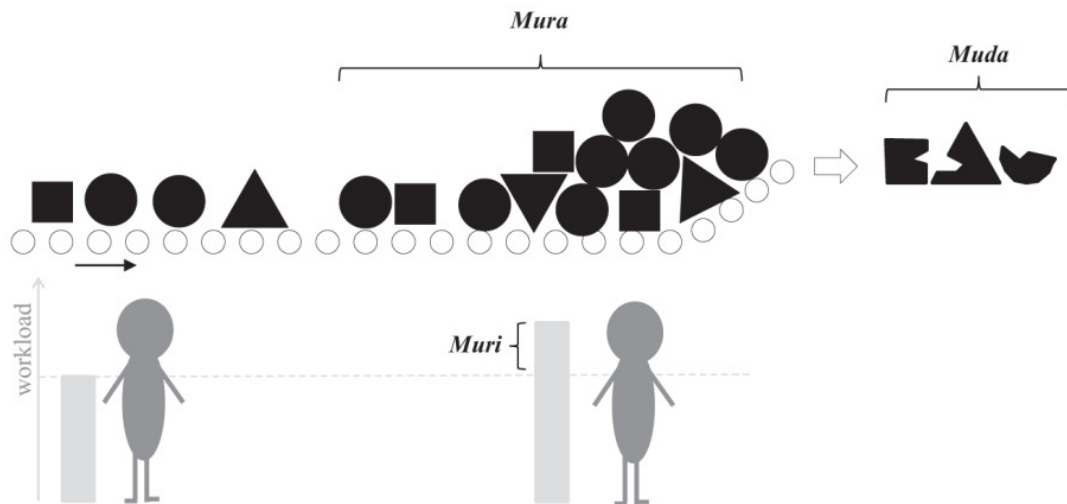


Figure 1: Illustration of muda, mura, and muri [libraryoapen].

known as muda. Muda is made up of mura and muri. Mura describes the errors or inconsistencies that obstruct, delay, or halt the process. For instance, personnel who are involved in the subsequent phases of the process lose time while a document is waiting to be accepted. Muri is used to describe excessive demands or unrealistic work hours. For instance, inadequate time, incorrect equipment, or poor training might result in subpar goods and services. Imai asserts that eliminating muda is as easy as ceasing to do anything. This entails comprehensive reconfiguration at the level of the gemba, or the whole process, which may include several gembas both inside and across companies, particularly in knowledge-intensive sectors.

Making-do as Waste

Making do has been included as the eighth category of muda by Koskela. Making do, according to the Cambridge Dictionary of 2020, refers to doing anything with less-than-ideal input or without all required input. Making do is a common strategy in the lean construction industry. Making due is a concept that originated in operations management. The concept of a full kit, or the practice of doing it right the first time and on time, was used by Ronen to describe it. The phrase complete kit in operations management refers to an input that is ready for assembly, subassembly, or process including all necessary documentation, information, and assembly pieces or components. The assembly procedure can only begin after the kit is finished. Waste is produced both inside that subprocess and across the whole process if this concept is not adhered to. According to Ronen waste is a result of an incomplete kit and is a bad thing. Because of the incomplete equipment, the task cannot be completed. Instead, while waiting for the missing component, piece of information, or document, the task at hand continues. There is more work-in-process because fewer tasks are completed and more jobs are released as a result of an unfinished kit. When looking at a single work, this results in longer lead times: processing an incomplete kit requires more time since certain arrangements, procedures, or set-ups need repeated execution. This lengthens the assembly's overall lead time. Longer lead times are accompanied with a rise in lead time variance. High

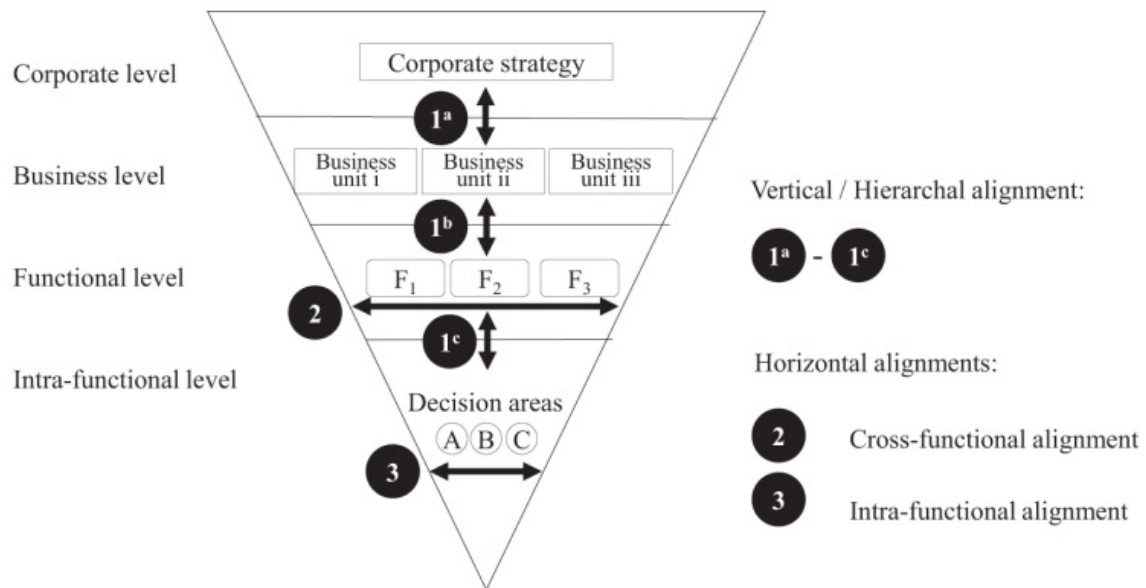
variance is one of the primary reasons of quality issues in manufacturing. By definition, it is impossible to forecast when a piece or piece of information will be absent. Additionally, when the final product's quality is compromised,

Without the best feasible storage options or the required maintenance, an incomplete task waits for the missing data or component. Simply said, doing this degrades the quality and necessitates additional rework. The manufacturing process views more work-in-progress as producing greater waste. It decreases throughput when the incomplete task stands in the path of other jobs rather of moving through the process as it should, causing delays and longer lead times. When extra resources are used for handling and management as a result of duplicate setups and operations where there is overlap between the tasks completed before and after waiting it reduces overall productivity. Additionally, having more work in progress makes the process harder to oversee. Unfinished tasks do not align with or adhere to the process controls' guiding principles. In order to handle and control the unfinished work, additional resources are needed.

Additionally, due to inadequate controls and a reduction in the process's manageability, the missing elements are often delivered with additional delay. This runs counter to the myth that working with a partially assembled kit can speed up the process. Finally, having more work in progress raises operational costs since it requires employing more resources particularly human resources than necessary. A few examples are double handling, double management, rework, inferior quality, and broken components. Finally, from the viewpoint of the employees, motivation, diminishes. The waste produced by the system failures such as duplicate effort, rework, and inferior quality is seen to and felt by the workers. When the logic of the system runs counter to the motivation of the employees, that motivation is undermined. In conclusion, the inflow of resources is used for labour and waste. By removing waste, or muda, mura, and muri, lean thinking advocates for the efficient and effective use of resources. This removal is consistent with the circularity principle of lowering resource input to the system and preventing resource losses in the system.

Current Alignment in CRE

According to Kathuria et al. alignment entails a number of integrations both inside and across organisations. Corporation's alignment involves both vertical and horizontal alignment (as seen in Figure 2). The plans, activities, and choices made at various organisational levels are coordinated under vertical alignment, which is also known as strategic alignment. Since this form of alignment has been extensively researched in the contemporary literature on CREM, CREM may support strategic company goals. Cross-functional and intra-functional alignment are two categories of horizontal alignment. Although recognised, horizontal alignment is often understudied in both general management. As well as in the CREM literature. The term cross-functional alignment refers to how well various company functions including HR, ICT, operations, and CRE fit together while making choices, planning, and carrying out operations. The fit between different decision regions inside that function is identified by the intra-functional alignment, for instance, within the CREM function. Intra-functional alignment in CREM, for instance, refers to the alignment of decision-making processes across the financial, construction, and user-focused decision-making domains. According to Alagaraja et al. horizontal alignment also includes corporate integration, a topic often covered in supply chain and value chain management. Although supply chains and the network of external service providers are essential to the delivery of value in the area of CREM, this sort of alignment has gotten less attention.



**Figure 2: Represting the Summary of the current alignment in CRE [library oapen].
Alignment to Reduce Waste in CRE**

The horizontal alignment of waste reduction is particularly strong. From the standpoint of circularity, horizontal alignment reduces the system's resource input and resource losses. Horizontal CRE alignment may decrease waste on three levels by adhering to the muda, mura, and muri concepts on the work level (muda), on the system level (mura), and on the personnel level (muri). Work stages that don't create value are referred to as waste at the work level (muda). Overproduction of information, goods, or services waste includes things like extraneous data, unoccupied space, and excessive usage of user or maintenance services. Time is wasted while looking for things, doing the same thing again, or thinking about the same thing twice during decision-making, planning, negotiating, or coordination since the kit isn't complete. When, for instance, extra RE information is supplied to decision-making or maintenance equipment is transferred without a requirement, waste of transferring information, persons, or equipment is produced. Waste of over- and underprocessing occurs, for instance, when repairs are not budgeted for or FM services are purchased without considering the needs of the user. Inventory waste might take the shape of unneeded planning, evaluations, or discussions, for instance.

Motion is wasted, particularly when looking for information that is lacking, such as when looking for a new floor plan, a lease, or a report. Waste of faults and undesired value happens when, for instance, a poor choice is made, a service or product is harmed, or it doesn't meet the demands of the consumer. According to the TPS, waste reduction on a work-level occurs at gembas within and outside the CRE decision-making areas of the organisation. Gemba trash reduction calls for horizontal alignment. Circularity refers to the reduction and release of tangible and intangible resources from individual work stages so that they may be mobilised into value delivery steps within the (CRE) company. Because processes and strategic routines are referred to as dynamic capabilities in management science this suggests that the (CRE) company is re-creating its resource base via these practises. Mura, or waste at the system level, refers to disruptions that produce waste across the whole system, not just in one particular process step. According to the TPS, waste is produced inside and across enterprises, spanning a network of processes, between gembas. Separate sub-processes have been identified by Jylhä as the primary aggravating factor in trash creation. Making-do waste is created by uncoordinated subprocesses, particularly in the downstream. Waste reduction renews the system's resource base by liberating both physical and intangible resources.

The system's long-term horizontal co-creation processes are then mobilised using this resource base. The term waste (*muri*) refers to an excessive amount of labour. On the work and system levels, the overload consists of waste. Due to a lack of defined best practises and logical work stages, the employee utilises resources on tasks that do not add value from a work level viewpoint. Making do wastes resources, particularly human resources, from a system level viewpoint since more work-in-process reduces process responsiveness and manageability. The amount of labour that has to be done is reduced by reducing *muda* and *mura*. This enhances the employees' performance and social participation, which is important for enhancing circularity. Reduction of waste aligns horizontally, in conclusion. Continuous waste reduction may be considered a dynamic organisational capacity. Dynamic capacity refers to the organization's ability to change its resource base via its processes and strategic routines. The procedures and strategic routines that are used when implementing the extended waste concept continuously identify, reduce, and release resources that result in the resource base being recreated. This kind of horizontal alignment might improve long-term circularity from the circularity standpoint.

Learning to recognise waste and minimising it requires managers of commercial real estate and workplaces to act ethically while using the least amount of resources. As a result, resources are used more effectively and efficiently, which results in reduced costs, resource allocation that is future-proof, and support for sustainability objectives, among other benefits. A scenario is briefly described in this section to demonstrate the excessive usage of intangible assets in the context of corporate real estate management. Jylhä et al. initially presented the case. The case organisation was centralising its activities at the time. Restructuring stemmed from the centralization, which was a business-driven demand. ten properties in the same market made up the existing real estate portfolio in Finland's Helsinki Metropolitan Area. The system level of the case study was the main emphasis, along with the stages and procedures for locating a suitable property or properties to enable the centralization of the activities. By adhering to the service agreements, the CRE organisation served as an agent for the case organisation. The enlarged CREM organisation is what Heywood and Kenley referred to as. To provide a solution for its corporate client, the agency formed an intra-functional team. The project began in the fall of 2009 and was completed with a final solution in the early months of 2013.

Making do was the predominant kind of work done in the first 2.5 years, according to value stream visualisation. Due to insufficient information, the process required several rounds of layout design, bidding, property searches, analysis, and negotiations, all of which took a significant amount of time and manpower. More work-in-process led to longer lead times due to waiting for missing information. Variance in lead times because the same steps were repeated after the waiting e.g., scheduling the same meetings twice or reworking the schedule to fix an error. Decrease in quality because the missing information prevented delivering the right quality at the first time, such as in terms of the office layout or location. Decrease in throughput when there was a delay in completing the work. and increase in lead times when there. An increase in operational internal costs the waste of human resources and external costs for example, the final layout drawings were purchased twice, as well as a decrease in the process's manageability, which required more resources to control the inconsistent use of disproportionate information or special arrangements. The case specifically demonstrates the excessive utilisation of time and human resources. The squandered human resources may have been put to use in value-adding tasks.

CONCLUSION

The Toyota Production System (TPS) concepts may be applied to property management with substantial potential for increasing productivity, decreasing waste, and enhancing overall operations. Property managers may detect and get rid of different wastes in their processes,

resources, and services by using the TPS's philosophy of waste reduction. The focus on continually improving operations by minimising waste is the main lesson to be learned from the TPS. Property managers may put this idea into practise by identifying and eliminating wasteful practises such as excess inventory, excessive travel, overproduction, flaws, and underutilization of resources. They may so simplify business processes, save expenses, and boost overall effectiveness. A just-in-time (JIT) strategy, in which resources and services are supplied precisely when and where they are required, is also encouraged by the TPS. This helps to reduce waste brought on by excess inventory or underuse, ensuring that resources are used effectively and efficiently. Property managers are encouraged to regularly evaluate their procedures, identify areas for improvement, and make small modifications under the TPS's key premise of continuous improvement. Property managers may continuously reduce waste and improve their operations over time by using this iterative methodology. The TPS also stresses the significance of treating others with respect. This idea may be put into practise by property managers by enabling staff members to discover waste-producing areas and contribute to process improvements. Employee participation in these initiatives promotes a collaborative, innovative, and shared responsibility culture. Property managers may profit in a number of ways by putting the TPS's waste reduction idea into practise. These include increased customer satisfaction, decreased expenses, better operational efficiency, and a more ecologically responsible approach to property management. Overall, the idea of waste reduction as applied to property management in the Toyota Production System offers a useful foundation for enhancing procedures, maximising resource utilisation, and enhancing organisational value. Property managers may develop a more effective, affordable, and sustainable management system that benefits the company and its stakeholders by adopting the concepts of waste reduction.

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CHAPTER 5

THEORY OF RADICAL INNOVATION: DESIGNING DIGITAL WORKPLACES

Mr. Ashok Bhat, Assistant Professor,
Masters in Business Administration, Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-ashokbhat@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The Theory of Radical Innovation puts forward a novel approach to creating digital workplaces that encourage innovation, teamwork, and productivity. This abstract examines the theory's fundamental ideas while emphasizing its possible applications to workplace management and design. Radical innovation describes the transformational and disruptive developments that challenge conventional wisdom and provide fresh methods for resolving issues and generating value. To promote flexible work processes, digital collaboration, and information sharing in the context of workplace design, radical innovation means redesigning the physical and digital surroundings.

The approach places a strong emphasis on how technology integration might support radical innovation at work. It promotes the use of cutting-edge digital solutions to improve communication, expedite processes, and enable flexible work arrangements, such as cloud computing, artificial intelligence, and virtual reality. The understanding of the dynamic nature of work and the need for flexible environments is essential to the Theory of Radical Innovation. It urges the development of flexible workplaces where staff members may work in a variety of ways, including individually focused work, team cooperation, and casual encounters. The idea also stresses how crucial human-centered design concepts are in creating the digital workplace. It emphasises how important it is to understand user demands, preferences, and behaviour in order to design digital tools and interfaces that are simple and easy to use. This strategy makes sure that technology improves engagement and productivity rather than the opposite.

KEYWORDS:

Digital, Design, Innovation, Technology, Radical.

INTRODUCTION

Since Schumpeter first proposed the idea of creative destruction in Capitalism, Socialism, and Democracy, the academic world has promoted a simple but immensely influential idea that is now more often known as radical innovation or disruption.

The majority of economists and strategic managers who study technological innovation cite Schumpeter's ground-breaking work. The concept of radical innovation has been then the subject of numerous publications covering specific and thematic issues such as uncertainty knowledge and learning, competition and technological race and the degree of substitutability between the existing and the new market. According to Chesbrough, a key figure in open innovation theories, corporations must include competent players both within and outside the company if they want to improve their capacity for radical innovation. Although businesses have gotten more adept at creating incremental breakthroughs, many still struggle to produce radical ideas. Over the last 100 years, radical innovation has contributed to some of society's most significant advancements in industries as varied as transportation, electricity, information technology, and medicine [1]–[3].

One could ask how revolutionary advances will affect workplace management research in the present and the future. Existing businesses prioritize radical breakthroughs, but owing to their agility in implementing them, young businesses are equally intriguing. How did the workplace become more and more digital? It is possible to define invention as the first time a product or a technique is introduced. On the other side, innovation happens when someone enhances or significantly contributes to an already existing product or service. Innovations are under the incremental category appropriate to the changes brought about by the invention, and radical. Innovation and discovery are vital components of human society's growth. Innovation has been defined as the process of seeking out novel ideas, methods of operation. Innovation, however, is more than just altering the status quo; it also refers to the generation and commercialization of fresh insights and discoveries. According to Soken and Barnes, innovation is about generating value, and it calls for both people and Organisations to accept something unique. Samli proposes that creativity can be turned into innovation, and innovation can then be steered towards economic development by fusing ideas from management, economics, policy, and psychology[4]–[6].

Imagine things that don't exist.

That is what imagination is. Applying imagination to a problem is what creativity is all about. Applying imagination to create original solutions is innovation. Entrepreneurship is the use of innovation to realize original ideas and capture the interest of others. It is widely accepted that there is a distinction between the two conceptions of innovation, which have been divided into two categories: radical innovation and incremental innovation. According to Oke et al. incremental innovation is the improvement of something that already exists. Radical innovation is the discovery of something completely new. According to Jiménez-Jiménez and Sanz-Valle, incremental innovations are built on preexisting knowledge and include significant product, service, or process enhancements that, although they do exhibit some novelty, do not fundamentally differ from the current product, service, or process. The majority of innovations are gradual, consisting of feature additions or gradual improvements to already-existing goods, services, procedures, and business models. Incremental innovations are sustainable in nature and enable a company to keep using its present target market strategy. In other words, they don't develop whole new business segments or markets for an already-existing product or service[7]–[10].

Disruptive change, on the other hand, corresponds to radical advances.

The disruptive transformation may be connected to markets, society, technology, or all three. According to Leifer et al. a radical innovation is one that has the potential to result in one or more of the following: a completely new set of performance features, improvements in known performance features of five times or greater; or a sizable cost reduction of at least 30 percent. In contrast to incremental innovation, radical innovation is anticipated to include more fundamental changes to the company's operations and is often associated with greater risks throughout both the research and commercialization phases. Products that have a high impact on existing markets or create wholly new markets by offering totally new benefits, significant improvements in known benefits, or significant cost reductions, according to Gassmann et al. But radical innovation shouldn't only apply to things. By combining Gassmann's definition with the OECD definition, it is possible to state that radical innovation is defined as product-, process-, marketing, or organisational innovation that has a high impact on an organization's existing/new activities or existing/new markets by offering totally new benefits, significant improvements in known benefits, or significant cost reductions[11], [12].

DISCUSSION

Disruptive inventions are radical ones. An innovation leadership idea known as radical innovation seeks to dismantle existing goods, services, and business models in order to build

new markets and displace old ones. While top-down management of incremental innovation is possible, ground-up mentorship, leadership, and facilitation are necessary for radical innovation. In contrast to incremental innovation, which prioritizes the creation and optimization of current goods and services, radical innovation goes beyond. A radical invention fundamentally alters the market's supply and demand dynamics. Radical inventions open up new commercial sectors. Consumer digital photography was first introduced, which was a radical invention that led to significant disruptive technical and societal developments. These significant disruptive changes are uncommon, but smaller-scale disruptive changes that solely impact the operations of one Organisation occur regularly.

Radical improvements need time. A leadership idea called radical innovation aims to achieve long-term development over the next five to 10 years. Radical innovation development initiatives often take a long time to complete. According to O'Connor and Ayers, it often takes several years from the time a new business idea is discovered before it is ramped up or accelerated to the point where it can stand alone.

This procedure doesn't take very long just ten years. Development initiatives for radical breakthroughs are fraught with several uncertainties, in part due to their lengthy duration. Compared to incremental innovations, the life cycles of radical innovations are longer, more unpredictable, have more stops and starts, are more context-dependent in that strategic considerations can speed up, slow down, or stop progress, and more frequently involve cross-functional and/or cross-unit teamwork. Black Swans are occurrences with very low likelihood and huge effect that humans are fundamentally incapable of foreseeing, according to Taleb. He contends that because we are unable to forecast black swans, we should instead design our institutions to be shock-resistant and robust, reducing the incentives to create assets that are difficult to dismantle and to reconstruct.

The components of a radical innovation are often present, but since legacy systems or conventional designs are dominant, there is seldom room for a radical innovation. Radical innovation entails a high level of risk. While the hit rates are low and the costs of failure are often quite high, the profits may be enormous but exceedingly unpredictable. Risk awareness is the capacity of the Organisation to identify risks before they pose a danger, to mitigate them when they do, and to repair whatever harm they may have already done. It is necessary to handle risks proactively. Radical innovations come in many forms.

Technology, market, organisational, and resource uncertainties are the four main elements of uncertainty that Leifer et al. identified as being pertinent for all radical innovation development initiatives

The fact that there are intricate linkages between the uncertainties makes it more difficult for leaders to deal with the numerous aspects of uncertainty.

The lengthy process, during which significant disruptive developments in technology, markets, and competition may occur, adds to the complexity by having a significant impact either good or negative on the commercial viability of the invention. Radical inventions are unexpected pairings that signify serendipity. Radical innovations display novelty and 'architectural' innovation, which is the rearrangement of how design parts are fitted together in a system, and they also spur considerable later technology advancement. A multidisciplinary approach is necessary for this. Radical innovations are said to entail important conceptual discoveries that come about by chance or brilliance. Project aspects that differentiate radical from incremental innovation programmes include. Projects that are incremental are more predictable and linear, have fewer resource uncertainties, and have easier collaborative connections.

Applicability to Workplace Studies

New technical systems, industries, or domains sometimes start out as radical inventions. Radical innovation theory focuses either on typologies of inventions or the process of product

creation. By producing brand-new and cutting-edge products, the design-science paradigm aims to push the limits of organisational and human capacities. The movement towards innovations is described in workplace research by the transition of workplaces into digital and physical entities; nonetheless, disruptive or radical innovations are rare. The change of the workplace has been significantly influenced by technology systems. For a long time, workplace research has concentrated on both physical and digital elements; for example, Joroff said that digital technologies enable humans to fundamentally alter the workplace. These technologies' ability to link people has created new possibilities for where, when, and how individuals might work. According to Levin, even though organisations continue to construct facilities ranging from more recent iterations of their old models to what some might consider radical departures with the aim of fostering innovative working practises, the decision regarding the direction of the planning process is still frequently made using a methodology that is disconnected from the organization's long-term strategic goals. By categorising the public, privileged, and private virtual settings in line with the characteristics of actual working environments, Hardy et al. explore the distributed workplace model.

The holistic orchestration of organisation, architecture, technology, and nature is a key innovation toolbox for facilities management, according to Mobach et al.; the result for companies is in the behaviour, mood, and health of users. A cross-disciplinary design viewpoint is required to promote a holistic approach of infrastructure, space, people, and organisation. Since the goal of this integration is to enhance the activities of the facility manager and the company for which he or she works, it must remain problem-focused and action-focused. The enhanced actions, which will be designed by a group of practitioners and scientists in response to particular practical and/or social issues, should ultimately result in a demonstrably improved organization's performance and benefits for the end user.

Continuous technological progress is changing society, and now ubiquitous computing is changing the workplace. A mix of the other locations are where ubiquitous, mobile employees may be found in addition to one physical workstation such as the main office or with a laptop in the park. This would imply that even if an employee is physically working in his living room at home, the employee may really be at his or her main office at the company's premises in their present state of mind. According to Cassio and Montealegre, ubiquitous workplaces alter the work system, workplace democracy, high-tech applications, workplace borders, workspaces, people practise, workplace experiences, and workplace culture. Technology's importance and potential for even more dramatic innovation are growing. The user-centred or human-centred design (HCD) approach, for example, has been used by several academics to categorise the processes of radical innovation. The behavioural-science paradigm tries to create and validate hypotheses that explain or predict human or organisational behaviour in information systems research. The same emphasis is placed on the usefulness of workplace research. Like functionality, usability is a concept, but it also relies on the user's perspective, context, culture, environment, and experience.

Users should be included in the process of understanding usability. While German research on a variety of service sectors emphasises the need of customising and personalising the experience through forms of co-creation, work by Voss has underlined the relevance of users in the design of 'experience innovation'. An examination of the relationship between companies and the physical environment was done by Blakstad and Knudsen in 2008. They looked at how structures support organisational objectives by utilising the results of descriptive techniques as the basis for participatory procedures. Others, such as anthropology, empathic design, construct elicitation, and others, are concerned with understanding users and incorporating their viewpoint into the articulation. Some design strategies are geared towards shattering frames, such as creative problem solving and imagination. Understanding user behaviour is also a prevalent practise in the history of computer science research, as shown in

the Technology adoption Model (TAM) and people's adoption of information systems. According to TAM, a system's perceived utility and usability will serve as evidence of a person's desire to utilise it.

To distinguish between different inventions, different views have led to the development of innovation typologies. Henderson and Clark's Innovation Model offers four kinds of innovation as one illustration of a product development component, describing whether the innovation applies to a product's architecture, components, or both. When both aspects are impacted, radical innovation occurs. The framework Vergantisuggests links the two facets of innovation technology and meaning. To address the core functions of innovation, this theoretical framework differentiates between incremental and radical innovation processes. The framework offers four distinct innovation clusters using technology, design, and users as its three drivers. Four distinct clusters provide the possibility of four distinct workplace realities (WPR), as shown in Figure .1.

Technology-driven innovation is the result of significant advancements in technology without a corresponding shift in the meaning of the goods. The dynamics of technical research led to technology push innovation. When it comes to workplace transformation, technology's usefulness produces a dramatic improvement without compromising the purpose. Opening a digital link between two sites or using technology to increase a breakout room's size are two examples of this feature. With this innovation, persons who are geographically dispersed but are co-located virtually will work together more often. The overlap between technology push and design-driven innovation demonstrates how significant changes in product meaning are often linked to ground-breaking technical breakthroughs, i.e., how upheavals in technological paradigms are frequently accompanied by adjustments in socio-cultural regimes. When it comes to workplace transformation, it implies that dramatically better technology is introducing sources to the current, connected, and prospective meanings of the new reality and fusing the physical and digital entities. For instance, this may be a personal experience.

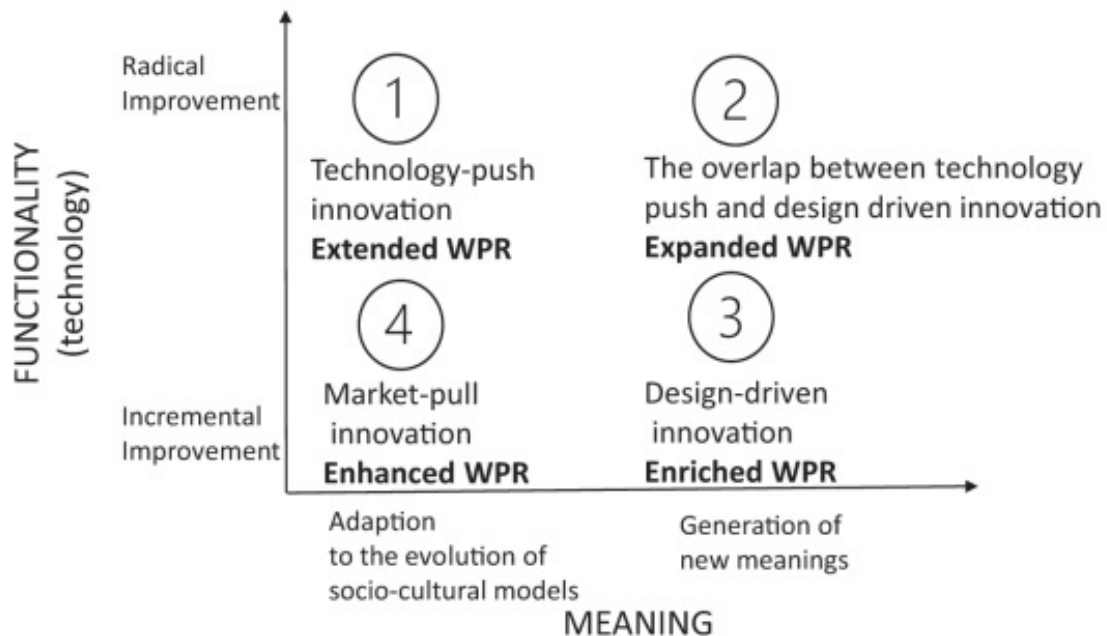


Figure 1: Four different workplace realities (WPR) applied from innovation framework [library oapen].

Three-dimensional virtual presence gives users fresh perspectives. The physical environment is required by new socio-digital functions in order to support the enlarged reality. Technology may help with duties that were previously completed by people, acting as a coworker. Workplaces' physical and digital elements combine to provide a platform for shared reality. Design-driven innovation involves suggesting fundamentally new meanings that often

entail a shift in socio-cultural regimes. It begins with an understanding of the subtle and unspoken processes in socio-cultural models. New meanings are created in the workplace as a result of little technological advancements. In the working-from-home era, which was prompted by social isolation laws and lockdowns in the pandemic year 2020, tools from digital reality which ranged from large digital collaboration platforms to virtual group work spaces and individual workspaces were combined with incremental technology to make it possible to convert living spaces into workspaces.

This gave working from home new significance. The examination of user demands is the starting point for market-pull innovation, which then looks for the technologies and meanings that may meet those needs and suggests either directly or indirectly new possibilities for innovation.

Although the user-centered approach is more complex and sophisticated, compared to conventional market-pull approaches, its techniques help us better grasp why and how individuals give meaning to things that already exist.

It continues to function within the current sociocultural systems. Incremental technology enhances the adaptation to socio-cultural models within the framework of workplace change. In this office setting, technology is integrated to facilitate functions like online meetings. The technology may be clever and simple to use, making adoption simple.

CONCLUSION

The Theory of Radical Innovation offers a creative and persuading method for creating digital workplaces. This idea provides a framework for Organisations to reinvent their workplaces and leverage the potential of digital transformation by placing an emphasis on the integration of technology, the construction of flexible spaces, and human-centered design principles. The Theory of Radical Innovation acknowledges that the typical office setting is changing quickly due to technological breakthroughs and new work practises.

Organisations must embrace radical innovation, use digital tools and platforms to build engaging and collaborative work environments, and satisfy the demands of their workforce in order to remain competitive. Organisations may gain a lot by implementing the ideas in this theory. Greater flexibility, agility, and productivity are made possible by digital workplaces that are built with radical innovation in mind.

Employees may more effectively access information and resources, interact across geographic boundaries, and adjust to shifting job demands. A further point made by the Theory of Radical Innovation is the significance of human-centered design. It acknowledges that user experience and engagement are crucial elements in effective workplace design and that technology should operate as a facilitator rather than a barrier. Organisations may develop simple, engaging, and productive digital workplaces by placing the requirements and preferences of the workforce at the center of the design process. The Theory of Radical Innovation pushes businesses to adopt an experimental mindset and a culture of lifelong learning.

It motivates them to investigate cutting-edge technology, try out novel work procedures, and promote an innovative work environment among staff members. This mentality change may result in ground-breaking concepts, enhanced procedures, and eventually, a competitive edge.

The Theory of Radical Innovation offers Organisations a framework for creating forward-thinking, flexible, and user-centric digital workplaces. Organisations may succeed in the digital age by adopting this notion and creating settings that foster innovation, cooperation, and productivity.

Organisations may position themselves for long-term success in a working environment that is always changing by remaining on the cutting edge of technology developments and embracing a culture of radical innovation.

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CHAPTER 6

USABILITY THEORY: USER-CENTRICITY OF WORKPLACE MANAGEMENT

Ms. AnandasrinivasanDeviprabha, Assistant Professor,
Master in Business Administration, Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-deviprabha@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

Usability theory aims to make workplace administration more user-centric by using usability and user experience design ideas. This abstract provides a summary of the key concepts and contributions of usability theory in the context of workplace management. Usability theory states that it's crucial to design workplaces and facilities that are easy to use, efficient, and accommodating to employees' needs. Organisations that priorities user-centric design may see an increase in employee satisfaction, productivity, and overall welfare. The systematic methodology offered by usability theory facilitates understanding user requirements, conducting usability evaluations, and putting user feedback into action. One of usability theory's greatest achievements is its emphasis on user research and user-centered design. By include them in the design process, Organisations may get insights into the preferences, behaviour, and challenges of end users. This information has an impact on the development of workplace solutions that satisfy user desires and expectations. Iterative design and evaluation are also supported by the usability theory. It underlines the value of iterative user feedback loops, ongoing development, and usability testing for workplace solutions. Businesses may identify usability issues early on and address them thanks to this iterative process, which results in more effective and user-friendly working conditions.

KEYWORDS:

Briefing, Design, Management, Usability, Workplace.

INTRODUCTION

A notion known as usability of the built environment refers to a human-centric approach to the quality in-use of physical settings with the aim of supporting users' activities and user-related outcomes. Usability has been a concept in building for millennia. Vitruvius is often credited with introducing it to the subject of architecture when he argued that structures should be constructed with consideration for their long-term usefulness, aesthetic appeal, and ease of use. However, in contemporary research and development, the foundational work on ergonomics in human-computer interaction (HCI) forms the foundation for workplace usability. Bennett is often cited as the first work with usability in the title. The concepts of early user and task focus, empirical measurement, and iterative design were first articulated in another significant study by Gould and Lewis. Usability was considered as a situational term by Shackle, i.e., tool design as depending on users, tasks, and settings. Furthermore, he defined the usability paradigm in terms of utility, usability, and likeability[1]–[3].

The International Organisation for Standardization (ISO) defines usability as the extent to which a product can be used by specified users to achieve specified goals with effectiveness, efficiency, and satisfaction in a specified context of use. These dimensions have since become the defining characteristics of the modern understanding of usability. The ISO 9241-11

usability guidance is applicable to other situations where users interact with artefacts or objects to achieve certain intended objectives, such as those where people interact with various systems, products, and services. While these aspects of the usability guidance were developed in the context of work with visual display terminals, they are still applicable in other situations where users interact with artefacts or objects to achieve certain intended objectives. Usability, according to ISO 9241, has three components. Effectiveness describes usability from an output point of view. It includes the accuracy and completeness with which users achieve specified goals. Efficiency relates output to resources, describes the resources expended in relation to the accuracy and completeness with which users achieve goals. Satisfaction describes the comfort and acceptability of use [4]–[6].

The three dimensions are output, process, and an individual's subjective evaluation of their interaction with a system, product, or service. Effectiveness and efficiency are terms used to describe how valuable a system is, or how much engagement with a system helps users get results. According to Davis, satisfaction adds a user-friendliness component to a system's utility. Coolness as a characterization of goods or a component of HCI is a recent expansion of the usability notion in the context of user experience that may lead to new research and discoveries in the built environment. Holtzblatt sought to understand what creates a cool experience for users. She discovered that happiness is at the heart of cool, that happiness in life occurs when things provide basic human needs like achievement, connection, identity, and sensation. Additional studies on cool items demonstrate that, in addition to usability, user experience also includes desirability and rebelliousness. See, for example, Bruun et al and Raptis et al [7]–[10].

DISCUSSION

The Hawthorne investigations refuted the mechanistic-deterministic theory of environmental effects and highlighted the significance of environmental perceptions. Therefore, the function of an environmental factor for a person and his or her actions not its physical observable quality is vital for the behavioral significance of a specific environmental exposure. According to other studies, objective metrics that is, measurements that are unrelated to user self-reports are often not connected with subjective or perception-based ratings. Therefore, a strategy for improving the usability of the built environment does not include an abstraction of physical characteristics but rather an expansion of such measurements with words connected to subjects and actions. An worldwide team of academics and practitioners worked on the working commission on usability of workplaces (CIB W111) of the worldwide Council for Research and Innovation in Building and Construction (CIB) to undertake research on the application of usability ideas to the work environment. The network offered fresh perspectives on the usage of usability ideas and a greater understanding of how people interact with various types of contexts, including work situations.

The fundamental philosophical, theoretical, and methodological challenges of workplace usability were to be addressed via conceptual research and case studies. User experience, feed-forward procedures, and investigations of the connections between environmental quality, health, and productivity at work were among the themes covered. Usability assessment findings are fed into management, workplace, and facility improvement processes as feedback. The enhancement of facilities with the potential to benefit their core businesses or user Organisations served as the primary driver for enterprises to engage in usability research. The ISO concept of usability served as the foundation for the working commission on usability of workplaces (CIB W111). Despite the fact that human-computer interaction is where the usability idea originated and where it finds its most significant and widespread applications, the advances of CIB W111 were entirely unrelated to usability in HCI literature and discussions. With the addition of usability, the built environment has moved away from a more technical rationalism-based restricted emphasis on the functioning of buildings and

infrastructure and towards product qualities that are primarily articulated in objectively quantifiable terms. Usability is very situational and context-dependent since it focuses on how people use or interact with buildings and services and the subsequent experience. Therefore, contextual elements such as the environment's purpose, user groups, activities, particular locations, locales, or rooms must be included in usability studies.

Usability Briefing and Design

The CIB W111 work commission, where usability is considered as a core idea for the workplace design and management of facilities, emphasises the significance of briefing to achieve usability. Typically, the briefing stage of a construction project comes before the design operations. It produces briefing materials in practices and uses users as data sources. According to various scholars, briefing should be a dynamic and continuous process when taking into account the conventional method. According to Jensen, briefing in usability studies describes a change from being a single procedure with a clear starting stage leading to a finished document to being a continuous and interactive activity across all development phases. Alexander underlines the need of include information from usability studies in briefings. When usability is seen as a contingent attribute as opposed to the built-in functioning of the physical environment, Jensen et al. point out the possible ramifications for the briefing process. Since usability is seen as a comparable approach to functionality but heavily dependent on the subjective perspectives of users, context, culture, circumstance, and experience, they develop a usability briefing model that incorporates people. The most crucial justifications for include users in the briefing process, according to Jensen, are as follows:

1. Ensure that any construction is planned with the organization's requirements and goals in mind.
2. Take note of both positive and negative experiences with current facilities.
3. Ensure that management and staff embrace and value the new amenities.

According to Jensen et al. more study should address how to manage inclusive and continuous briefing while taking into account the role of users in the briefing process and the implications of user engagement for various kinds of users, procedures, and facilities. These recommendations are addressed in the follow-up study by Fronczek-Munter, who also suggests some additional characteristics for usability briefing, such as consideration of current or future facilities, process continuity throughout all phases with a usability focus, and the significance of co-learning and co-designing. Usability briefing is a continuous briefing process with a focus on usability, in which users are actively involved, not only in evaluations and data gathering but also in decisions of workplace-related processes. This contrasts with the characteristics of traditional briefing. Design, assessments, user interaction, and briefing materials are the four well-known briefing tasks that Fronczek-Munter's usability briefing paradigm combines. It arranges them and gives a visual rundown of the four tasks across all stages of building design. The model is made up of key tasks that must be completed with an emphasis on the phases and procedures where usability issues are formally formalized, discussed in workshops, design meetings, and systematically assessed. The methodology incorporates constant user involvement, co-creation, design, and assessment with a variety of users and stakeholders, as well as the usage of creative boundary objects in workshops (Table .1).

According to researchers, briefing is a crucial step in creating usable and efficient facilities. For instance, the case study at the NCR Discovery Centre in Dundee, Scotland, looked at how to include people in the process to provide value and how to minimize design mistakes by understanding their needs for the workplace. The inclusion of workers in the planning was considered as particularly crucial since stakeholders sought a big change to their working environment, in contrast to a standard top-down strategy where users are often expected to adapt to what is handed to them. A further case study including a brand-new broadcasting

facility for the Danish Broadcasting Corporation in Copenhagen, Denmark, looked at the evidence for relocation procedures and activities that would result in more useable workplaces. The findings demonstrate that user input into briefing and design had a favorable impact on the completed structures and user satisfaction. Other usability studies look at various facets of the usability idea in the workplace. For instance, Rasila et al.'s study asserts that comprehension of the usability factors

Table 1: Comparison of traditional briefing and usability briefing.

<i>Traditional briefing</i>	<i>Usability briefing</i>
Concerns new building/construction	Concerns all client/user needs in existing or future facilities
A definite phase at an initial stage of construction	A continuous process with changing focus in all the phases of building life cycle including occupancy
An expert-based information collection	A co-learning and dialogue process
Users mainly involved as data sources	Users actively involved as co-designers and part of a corporate change process
The result is a brief, i.e. a requirement specification	Continuous collection of visions and specification requirement specs, with changing detail and focus

It is feasible to enhance current environments and develop new settings that better meet end-user demands by using end users' feedback to evaluate created environments. They suggest 12 different criteria that people can use to evaluate how usable built environments are: effectiveness, adaptability, learnability, memorability, amount/tolerance/prevention of errors, accessibility, navigation, functionality, atmosphere, interaction and feedback, services cape, feeling secure, and space networks. According to Lindahl et al., usability assessments should also pay attention to how the building affects value generation in the user Organisation. They advise user Organisations to consider this question What do we want to accomplish? What do we hope the structure will add? How can our facilities provide value for the company? Another usability research conducted by Windlinger et al. used the difference between utility and user-friendliness to attempt to identify the user experience components related to usability. Their results indicate that the primary component of usefulness is perceived workspace support of work activities in connection to work tasks. Control and comfort are the key components of user-friendliness. Low for self-assessed performance, moderate for job satisfaction, and high for work area satisfaction are the connections between usefulness and user-friendliness and results of useable workplace design. Workplaces in the social and medical sectors are the topic of another recent usability study. Functionality, safety/security, healthiness, direction, interaction, and comfort are listed as the study's top usability factors in these settings.

Methodology

The examples examined by CIB W111 used a variety of tools and techniques to provide essential insights on the built environment's usability and how to assess it. Additionally, particular tools were created with the intention of improving office use in a variety of ways, including workplace management and design choices. Traditional approaches to building assessment are often expert-based, focused primarily on the environment's physical features, and exclude human experience. Post-occupancy evaluations (POEs) are one of the enduring customs. A procedure of systematic data collecting once a building is in use that is closely related to performance is known as PO. Data is acquired from specialists and users, however there is often little agreement between users' evaluations and designers' and facilities managers' perspectives. Researchers fault the current evaluation techniques because they place too much emphasis on the structures' technical features. POE initially included the notion of a feed-forward strategy, or using POE data for planning. This strategy is seldom ever used in actual practises, however. Researchers argue that usability evaluations should be

a component of a feed-forward strategy in workplace projects, but POE practises are instead mostly employed as feedback from completed buildings. From the perspective of workplace management, usability assessments result in improvements for both new and old structures.

The techniques and emphasis used to assess the usability of workplaces have moved in favor of a more comprehensive, process-focused, and user-centric strategy. Nenonen et al. looked at the user experience component of evaluating work settings from the viewpoint of the users. They created a technique for managing user-oriented workplaces that combines post-occupancy reviews, usability walk-through audits, and service process reviews with information from customer journeys. After weighing the benefits and drawbacks of various approaches and tools, they conclude that POE emphasises the building as an object rather than a process, whereas usability walkthrough can concentrate on the characteristics of various functions within a building and its attributes, and customer journey offers information on the procedures and user experiences in the workplace. The techniques identified the need for continued development of the theoretical framework, methods, and tools for assessing usability from various users' viewpoints, despite the fact that they may reveal minute aspects that may have an impact on the user experience in workplaces. Another usability research conducted by the Norwegian team looked at the relationship between a building and its users as well as its Organisation.

Given the difficulty in interpreting users' activities and the vast variety of user types, for a better understanding of the relationship between people and buildings, they advise groups not just to concentrate on the individual level but also to consider the influence of the building in the context of the Organisation. Usability is defined as being reliant on the context, connected to user experiences, and influenced by the social interactions between users and facilities. They also stress that the complexity of usability demonstrates the value of using multidisciplinary research teams with diverse backgrounds and expertise to triangulate techniques multi-methods strategies and conduct usability assessments. Future methodologies and studies on workplace usability must concentrate on the complicated problem of facility usage efficiency that is integrated with organisational efficiency. The task of finding and using naturally occurring circumstances for quasi-experimental longitudinal field studies or other opportunities to show the advantages of a usability strategy in the built environment remains for future study. It is also necessary to build a framework that would link the material, ambient, and socio-spatial features of workplaces to productivity, effectiveness, and satisfaction. Furthermore, the content dimensions of usability of the built environment are still in the early stages of development.

Management of Usability of Workplaces

Taking the aforementioned into consideration, a wider view of workplace management with an emphasis on usability has the potential to improve the effectiveness and usability of the workplace process. The strategic, developmental, operational, and evaluative stages of workplace initiatives, as well as workplace-related activities and continuous improvement, may all benefit from the usability viewpoint. The experiences and insights gained from usability studies highlight the fact that, in addition to ongoing user involvement, a deeper comprehension of the idea of usability is crucial for its use in workplace initiatives. As an example, Blakstad and In four Norwegian firms, Hansen investigated how various tools and methodologies for usability assessments were used. They discovered that using usability assessment techniques when key individuals are knowledgeable and skilled, when there are enough resources and suitable incentives, and when these conditions are met, it may be a driver of innovation in enterprises.

Jensen et al. advise taking into account usability as a general strategy, which refers to a continual briefing and commissioning for the development of work environments across all construction processes, for the use of usability in workplace management. The briefing

process, which has its peak at the beginning of the design phase but continues during construction and building occupancy, refers to a continual capture of requirements based on experience and evolving needs with constant user presence. This process is shown in Figure .1. In contrast, the commissioning process refers to continuing optimization of building performance throughout the usage of both new and existing structures. It starts with assuring and confirming the new building's performance, increases throughout design and construction, and peaks when the new building is inhabited. Usability application in workplace management is a complementary strategy that focuses on quality-in-use, taking into account the goals of facilities management, which are to provide a setting and services to support the effectiveness of Organisations and to support user activities and their outcomes. Specifying the procedures and tactics across the whole life cycle of the work environment with a focus on usability issues is a crucial factor in managing the usability of workplaces. These elements link together the efficient use of organisational, environmental, and physical resources to produce beneficial results and provide value for all users and stakeholders. A common usability framework or approach known as the USEtool is a significant result of research and development on usability in the built environment. It has five steps and leads to the creation of an action plan for increased usability for the participating Organisation. They suggest a broad introduction, a description of the objectives at that stage, the approaches used, and the anticipated outcomes, with an emphasis on usability elements connected to efficacy. Later, they released the USEtool guide as a practical resource that building owners may use to create their own plans utilizing their own internal assets. Their goal was to provide a collection of simple tools. As it offers both an overview and more in-depth understanding of the notion of usability, it is easier to use and more manageable for assessment. They concentrate on the who, what, where, and why questions in their tool to have a clear assessment because the perspective can change depending on whether the context is the preferences and satisfaction of individuals or the effectiveness of the Organisation as a whole.

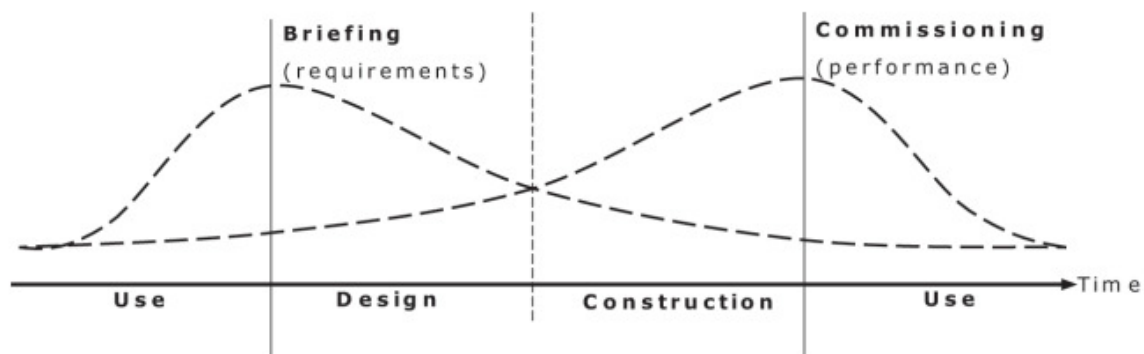


Figure 1. Representing the Continuous briefing and commissioning[Library Open].

CONCLUSION

Usability theory provides insightful and practical methods to improve workplace management's user-centricity. Organisations may design and decide on work environments that are intuitive, effective, and supportive of employee requirements and preferences by putting workers at the centre of the design and decision-making processes. Applying usability concepts to workplace management may have a number of beneficial effects. As they can quickly traverse systems and tools, get information, and interact efficiently, employees will feel more satisfied and engaged. Employees may thus spend more time concentrating on their primary activities and less time solving usability obstacles, which can increase productivity and efficiency. Additionally, usability theory encourages a culture of ongoing review and development. Organisations may discover areas for improvement and implement iterative improvements to increase usability by routinely collecting user input. The workplace

management is kept in line with the changing demands and expectations of the workforce thanks to this iterative process. a user-centric method of managing the workplace promotes a supportive working environment. Organisations may lessen employee stress and annoyance by creating processes that are simple to use and comprehend. As a result, your mental health, work happiness, and general wellbeing may all improve. It's crucial to remember that applying usability theory calls for constant dedication and effort. To support the effective adoption of user-centric workplace management practises, organisations should devote resources for user research, design iterations, and training. Overall, usability theory provides organisations with a useful foundation for improving the usability and user experience of working settings and technologies. Organisations may establish a work environment that fosters employee contentment, productivity, and well-being by putting their workers' needs and preferences first, which will eventually result in better organisational results.

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CHAPTER 7**WORKPLACE MANAGEMENT: USER-CENTERED DESIGN
CONSIDERATIONS**

Dr. Narayana Srikanthreddy, Assistant Professor,
Department of Management, Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id- srikanthreddyn@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The technique known as User-Centered Design (UCD) gives end users' wants, preferences, and capabilities top priority throughout the design and development process. It strives to design user-friendly, intuitive, and pleasant environments, systems, and products. Applying UCD concepts to workplace management may result in better employee experiences, more productivity, and greater overall workplace happiness. examines how UCD concepts may be applied to workplace management and emphasises the crucial factors to take into account when designing, implementing, and assessing workplace systems and procedures. talks about how crucial it is to comprehend the various demands and traits of workers inside an Organisation. It highlights the need of performing user research, including interviews, questionnaires, and observations, to learn about the working habits, preferences, and pain points of workers. Workplace management may be adapted to better meet each user group's distinct demands by being aware of their particular needs. the value of incorporating staff members in the design and decision-making processes. Organisations may tap into employee knowledge and get priceless insights for building a more user-friendly and effective office environment by asking for feedback and including workers as co-designers. Additionally, the abstract emphasises the value of iterative design and continual progress. According to UCD principles, there should be a continuous feedback loop with users so that changes may be made based on their comments. By using an iterative process, workplace management systems are guaranteed to adapt to changing organisational demands as well as user needs.

KEYWORDS:

Designs, Research, Management, UCD, Workplace.

INTRODUCTION

In their definition of User-Centered Design (UCD) from 1986, Norman and Draper. The field of human-computer interaction was where this hypothesis was originally presented. The earliest application in this field was on the usability of computer design, seeking to enable a minimal user learning curve for a highly effective product. The underlying concept of this theory is to achieve optimum performance of the human-machine system, as described by Endsley et al. rather than to advance humanism. The UCD demands evidence that the design choices are important and is opposed to subjective assumptions. Recently, the idea has seen widespread application across several disciplines, including ergonomics and industrial design, where a strong user assessment notion is present. The conventional method of design is based on the concepts and design process of the designer, for instance, reflecting the designer's goals and taking users into account from the designer's perspective. The UCD, on the other hand, puts users at the core of the design and encourages designers to consider

users' wants and interests while creating new designs. As a consequence, UCD increases user acceptability, contentment, safety, and efficacy. A user-centered management approach may be seen as using the UCDDT as its foundation[1]–[3].

There are several instances of it being used in various sectors. Bernsutilised the development of an IT site for the Swedish Net University as an example to describe the applied UCD process. The diverse requests and interests of various user groups were gathered via a pilot research using the UCD technique. A survey asked questions on user satisfaction, user requirements, and user type. The outcomes helped to ensure the portal's usability and quality. Kautonen and Nieminen (2018) used the UCDDT method to manage digital libraries. In terms of public services offered by organisations, the research examined performance management in digital library services. The research sought to provide a paradigm for managing libraries that involves people and many stakeholders. They stressed the advantages of the UCD method, which primarily include capturing stakeholders' differing perspectives on the effectiveness of the designs. The UCD is used to create technological apparatus in various disciplines, including as ergonomics. According to Martin et al., it is crucial to use UCD concepts while designing medical equipment. The research produced ato properly design gadgets, create a prototype that focuses on the device, safety, and efficacy. To gather ideas from many angles, the device development team members from several disciplines participated in a brainstorming session for this research[4]–[6].

The outcomes of the brainstormingPotential user interviews for the prototype devices were conducted during these sessions. User participation is seen as a crucial component of the UCD process. The extent of user interaction, however, varies and is determined by the methodology and study areas. Johnson asserts that understanding users' wants and interests and overcoming product restrictions depend on their active participation throughout the design process.Rekha Devi et al., on the other hand, said that although real user participation in UCD is not required, designers must take user input into account when making decisions. Different interpretations of user engagement in the UCD theory may be attributed, in part, to the definitions of Car. They further explain that there are distinctions between user design and user-centered design. In the former, consumers negotiate with leaders and designers to really develop and build their own systems. In the latter, users are prioritized in the design specification, but design control is still firmly in the hands of professional designers, and leadership continues to have the right to approve designs[3], [7]. Instead, then requiring customers to alter their behaviour in order to utilised a product, the UCD attempts to maximize usability and give positive user experience. The emotions and motivations of users are part of the user experience. UCD examines the following factors:

1. What are the needs of the users?
2. What are the limitations of the design?
3. What are the preferences of the users?
4. What are the expectations of the users?
5. How to create user-centred design solutions?

Designers analyse the final design after taking these factors into account and relying on user input. An international standard known as ISO 13407 offers instructions on human-centred design processes. Before doing the analysis, there are four phases of UCD operations, according to Jokela et al.'s 2003 explanation of ISO 13407. Prior to anything else, researchers must ascertain who the users are, define the context (such as the environment of usage), and comprehend the duties of the users. Identifying user and organisational needs is the second phase. Utilising interface design and usability in design solutions is the third phase.Researchers then compare designs to requirements.Design thinking (DT) is a notion that encompasses more than just UCD. DT is a method for identifying issues and coming up with solutions that focuses on coming up with a workable design. It aims to promote

creativity and ideation to provide fresh concepts to address issues or obstacles. DT is a process that directs ongoing communication between the designer and the intended audience. Figure.1 provides an illustration of the DT process. During the observation phase of this procedure, researchers watch what happens and speak with consumers to learn more. Understanding the demands of the consumers is the goal of this step[8]–[10].

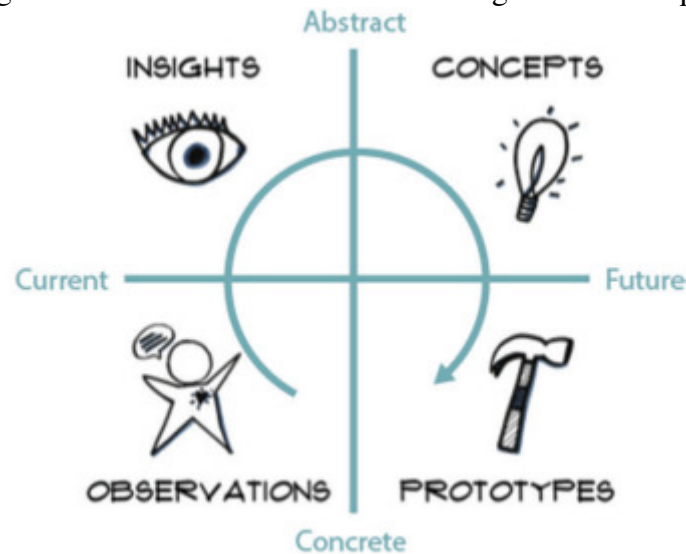


Figure 1: Representing the Design thinking process model[Library Open].

Following the sighting, the scientists assemble information and data, with an emphasis on outlining the issues and coming up with research questions. By connecting the concepts to actual user demands at the concept stage, the insights are utilised to create an abstract notion. Users may respond to prototypes that are made based on the chosen ideas. The biggest challenge at this point is that prototypes need to be swiftly changed for user testing. The combined efforts of DT and UCD are known as user-centered design thinking (UCDT). UCDT was created as a strategy for dealing with problems. In addition to addressing users' physical and psychological requirements, UCDT seeks to establish policies, services, and other things while taking into account users' needs. Getting input from representative users is the first step in doing research. Before the first concept is prototyped, design choices are then made using the input. The design is modified until the final product satisfies the cognitive demands and needs of the consumers[11].

DISCUSSION

The built environment already uses the user-centered methodology. In this area, Jacqueline C. Vischer developed a well-known hypothesis. According to Vischer's definition of user-centered theory in the built environment, users' conduct in a building is impacted by their intents, attitudes, emotions, expectations, and social context in addition to the space they utilised. Her theory's two fundamental ideas user experience and user-building relationships could bridge the conceptual and practical knowledge gaps. According to Vischer, a variety of variables impact user satisfaction; user input about functional comfort is not just based on physical comfort. A methodology for evaluating user experience in the workplace is shown in Figure.2. There are three categories of users in workplace research: people, groups or teams, and organisations. For user assessment of the built environment performance, physical, functional, and psychological comfort should also be taken into account.

In a recent research, Kwon categorized the psychological and physical aspects to be included in workplace studies. Although the categorization was created using Vischer's analytical methodology, it focuses on work-environment elements that affect user satisfaction independently of the user types. It implies that the workers are seen as individuals rather than as members of a team or Organisation. The UCDT was used to look at the requirements of the

workforce. Three steps separate the influences. Physical comfort is the most important kind of comfort in the job, followed by functional comfort and psychological comfort. The basic elements that affect bodily comfort

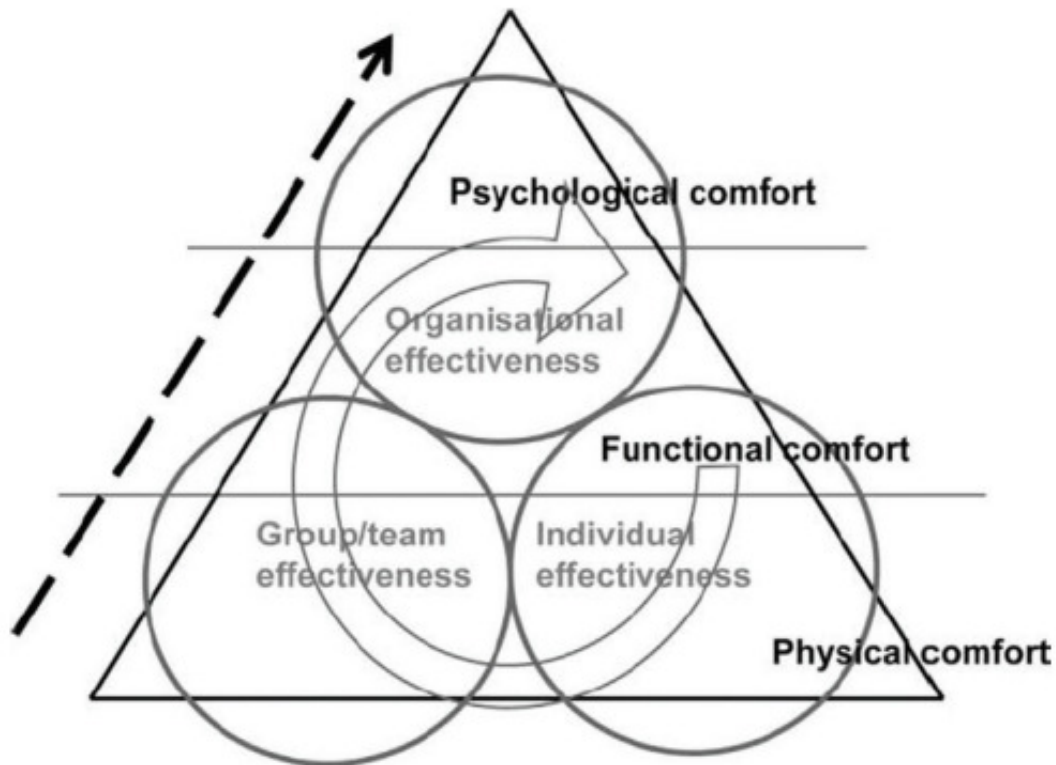


Figure 2: Analytic framework for assessing the user's experience[Library Open].

For individuals to be able to operate in the workplace. In contrast, psychological comfort is not a necessary skill but it may aid in raising employee satisfaction levels. Ten aspects that affect user happiness are broken down into physical, functional, and psychological categories in Figure .3.

The effect of the various aspects was taken into consideration while developing the best office design principles for user comfort and satisfaction in a later stage of Kwon's research, which involved testing these factors via real user surveys and observation techniques. With the aid of this framework, researchers may choose which elements are crucial for office-related user studies and designers can choose how far they should go for user happiness.

Methodology

The UCDT strives to provide workplace management solutions that will enhance the performance of workersoccupants, consequently raising satisfaction, productivity, wellness, etc.

In both empirical and inspection approaches, interactions with users may take many different shapes. Users' real participation in workplace research is not central, as stated by Rekha Devi et al. but researchers still need users' input throughout the study process. To comprehend the trends and connections in user perception, cognitive analysis should be used Some researchers are eager to get as much information as they can on customer satisfaction through a user survey. However, sometimes it takes too long to get user feedback. Evidence-based research, as used in UCDT, avoids constructing arbitrary assumptions or hypotheses about user behaviour in favour of quantitatively demonstrating what really occurs. Problem definitions and solution creation are taken into consideration at the same time in this kind of study. In order to avoid gathering unneeded data and to perform surveys and analyses more effectively, it is crucial to employ the appropriate strategy.

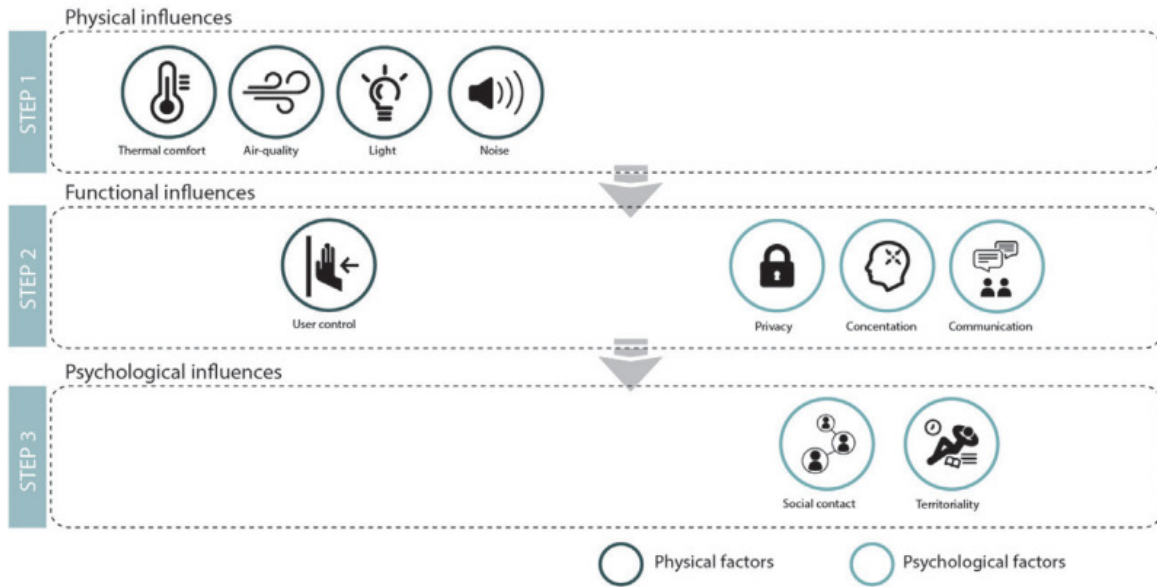


Figure 3: Classification of physical, functional, and psychological factors based on the dimensions of comfort [Library Open].

The cornerstone of UCDDT is the need-finding technique. Finding needs rather than solutions is known as need-finding. This aids in defining latent user demands and enables us to feel abstract relationships and experience patterns. Analysing user experience may help uncover the needs and demands of users. Sanders (1992) outlined the expressing of requirements at many levels: Observable needs can be observed by the researcher. Explicit needs can be expressed verbally by the user. Tacit needs cannot be expressed verbally by the user. Latent needs are subconscious and inexpressible by the user. According to Wallisch et al., conjoint analysis, surveys, and the collecting of statistical data are all appropriate methods for learning about consumers' explicit demands. Diaries and lead-user techniques are suitable for gathering users' latent or implicit demands. To assess user experience satisfaction in workplaces, Kwon employed a user-focused study strategy (see Figure .4). Researchers create a goal and gather data in the first phase depending on what they want to learn from the field study.

The field research may be carried out using inspection techniques such as walkthroughs and heuristic evaluation or empirical methods such as surveys, focus groups, interviews, and contextual inquiry). These techniques aim to learn about user requirements and preferences. This stage serves as the starting point for developing the fundamental criteria for UCDDT research. Understanding users is the second stage. To determine user requirements and engagement, applied ethnography and lead user methodologies are often utilised. The lead user technique gathers direct feedback from lead users by asking them about their requirements for products and services. Applied ethnography is the practise of watching people in the context of usage. Lead users, also referred to as early adopters, experience demands before targeted consumers do. In contrast to other disciplines employing the UCDDT technique, it is exceedingly challenging to define user groups before beginning any research in the workplace. Using user profiles and features, such as those found in research by Mettler and Wulf (2019), Despotic et al., and Matthews et al., it is possible to categorise the different categories of users after data collection. The definition of interaction is the third step. The evaluation/analysis step identifies any shortcomings in the present setup or demands of new users. Workplace management, rules, or services will be created throughout the validation process. Traditional managerial practises have taken people into account without really comprehending the user experience. Although users are not actively involved in the

management or design process in this chapter's UCDT theory, users' experiences and comments are nonetheless taken into consideration by workplace management.

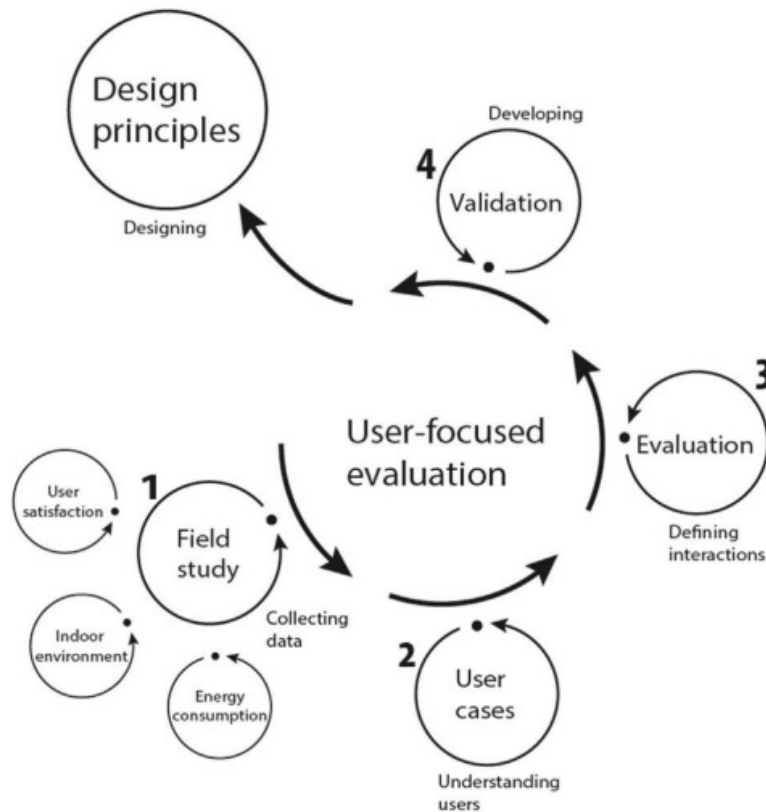


Figure 4: User-focused evaluation research approach [Library Open].

Additionally, the method does assist in identifying consumers' latent requirements in addition to gathering user input. User-centered design thinking (UCDT) was created as a strategy for dealing with problems and including users in the process as a result, it is already extremely practice-oriented. This theory's contribution to workplace management may be to provide guidance to practitioners looking to put user-centered management into practise.

In addition to taking into account and addressing user demands, UCDT also focuses on developing policy solutions. Offerings, etc. In workplace research, the first step is to gather input on the existing workplace, user happiness, and user preferences from representative users. Before creating a prototype of the first concept, practitioners utilised the feedback to inform their selections. Workplace management research covers a wide variety of topics. Practitioners must adopt broad viewpoints; they must take into account the comfort of the surroundings while taking into account physical and functional considerations, which are primarily connected to the quality of the structure. The fundamental indoor environmental quality that practitioners should take into account includes thermal comfort, air quality, noise, and illumination. To boost customer pleasure, individual control over the interior environment is crucial. Additionally, the management of the workplace should take into account psychological variables, such as social interaction and the surrounding environment. The users may be contacted at any stage of design to help it improve. Problems are often caused by the various preferences of various users. The difficulties may be overcome by using UCDT, which employs a cyclical research and design process, as well as by obtaining the opinions and comments of the many users. The design is modified repeatedly in the cyclical process until the final product satisfies the consumers' cognitive demands and specifications. The UCDT method, in conclusion, may assist practitioner readers in better managing workplaces for the users.

CONCLUSION

Effective workplace management must take user-centred design into account. Organisations may build work environments that are more engaging, productive, and helpful by giving workers' needs, preferences, and talents priority. Organisations may develop a better awareness of the working habits, difficulties, and preferences of their workers by incorporating user-centred design ideas into workplace management. This knowledge enables the creation of specialised solutions that cater to particular user requirements, increasing user happiness and enhancing overall employee experiences. It is equally vital to include workers as co-designers and stakeholders in the workplace management process. Organisations may tap into employee knowledge and make sure that the workplace design and technologies meet their expectations and needs by actively engaging workers and seeking out their views and input. This teamwork-based strategy encourages a feeling of ownership and equips staff to contribute to the enhancement of their working environment. Continuous improvement and iterative design are crucial components of user-centred design. Organisations may see opportunities for improvement and make the required modifications by routinely asking for input, doing usability tests, and gauging the success of adopted solutions.

The workplace management methods are kept adaptable to changing user demands and organisational objectives thanks to this iterative process. Additionally, the relevance of usability and accessibility in the office environment is emphasised by user-centred design principles. Organisations may increase productivity, cut down on mistakes, and lessen user annoyance by building user-friendly and intuitive systems, procedures, and tools. This strategy encourages a great customer experience while empowering staff to carry out their duties successfully and efficiently. User-centred design is an effective foundation for enhancing workplace management. Organisations may develop work spaces that are in line with user expectations, boost productivity, and nurture a good and engaging employee experience by placing the requirements of workers at the centre of the design process. Adopting user-centred design principles and combining UCDT concepts may result in more effective work environment management techniques, which will eventually help the organisation as a whole.

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CHAPTER 8**INNOCENCE THEORY: HOSPITALITY IN THE WORKPLACE**

Mr. Kunal Saxena, Assistant Professor,
 Department of Management, Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
 Email Id- drkunal@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The Innocence Theory suggests using hospitality practises and concepts at work to increase employee happiness, engagement, and output. This hypothesis, which takes its cues from the hospitality sector, contends that fostering a friendly and inviting atmosphere may enhance employee satisfaction and contribute to organisational success. The Innocence Theory and its possible effects on workplace management are outlined in this abstract. Customer service, personalization, and attention to detail are some of the major topics covered. It also emphasises how these ideas may be applied to and incorporated into the employment setting. Organisations may establish a work atmosphere that prioritizes employee wellbeing and promotes good relationships by taking a hospitality-focused strategy. This includes features like providing individualized services and facilities, building cozy and visually beautiful workplaces, and fostering an atmosphere of friendliness, respect, and genuine concern for workers. There are several advantages to using the Innocence Theory at business. According to research, workers who feel welcomed at work tend to have greater levels of job satisfaction, engagement, and loyalty. Additionally, they are more likely to make an extra effort, provide superior customer service, and support a healthy organisational culture.

KEYWORDS:

Experiences, Hospitality, Service, Satisfaction, Workplace.

INTRODUCTION

There isn't just one definition for hospitality, and there isn't just one model or theory either. This makes sense given that scholars from a range of academic disciplines have been debating the issue from their respective points of view. For instance, historians emphasize how the idea has evolved over time philosophers and theologians emphasize the ideal hospitable behaviour and sociologists and anthropologists examine the hospitality exchange of peoples, nations, and cultures. Additionally, psychologists research the unique viewpoints of the host or the guest, while researchers in the hospitality business primarily concentrate on knowledge that is immediately useful to the sector. Although the business and management field has historically dominated the literature on hospitality, there is an increasing awareness of the concept's applicability to other service industries. This chapter makes the case that the information already known about hospitality may also be used in the workplace. The chapter will begin by presenting the subject in more detail. Describe hospitality[1]–[3].

A host and a visitor are involved in the trade process that constitutes hospitality. The host provides for the visitor, and the visitor returns the favor by making money in commercial settings or expressing appreciation or promising to do so again in non-commercial settings. Hospitality is not unconditional; both the host and the visitor are subject to unspoken guidelines like the other must not be harmed. It is not a recent occurrence. It has been a part of human cultures as a private, social, and commercial phenomenon ever since the dawn of humanity. Numerous disciplines including anthropology, philosophy, history, and religions well as business, sociology, and environmental psychology have contributed to the study of

hospitality. So where do you begin when defining hospitality? This chapter will take a more practical approach to hospitality since the emphasis of this book is workplace research. Both practical and experiential, hospitality may be provided as a service or experienced.

It might be seen as the provision of specific goods and services that satisfy Maslow's base levels, such as lodging while travelling, by providing for basic physiological requirements like food and water and by staying at home. It might also be interpreted as a far more all-encompassing idea that describes an event that satisfies psychological requirements by enabling individuals flourish, like in Maslow's greatest level, self-fulfillment [4]–[6].

On this experiential level, hospitality entails the experience of receiving personal attention, which can be expressed by feeling warm, caring, and comfortable, heartwarming, heart-soothing, and heart-reassuring or personalized, warmly welcoming, special relationship, straight from the heart, and comfortable.

The physical and social setting, as well as environmental aspects and staff conduct, are all relevant to the idea of hospitality when taking into account both its practical and experience levels. Hospitality is communicated via functional, sensory, and behavioral service signals. In Table .1, definitions of hospitality are frequently given from the perspective of the host, who may offer goods and services delivered by friendly staff in a friendly setting, and, to a lesser extent, from the perspective of the recipient, the guest, who describes the actual experience of hospitality.

The definitions from the viewpoint of the visitor should be the beginning point for being hospitable. When the ideal hospitality experience has been identified, the demands of the visitors may be satisfied by providing the appropriate lodging and services, both on a practical and experiential level [7]–[9].

DISCUSSION

Since many businesses discovered that applying parts of hospitality to commercial success in the experience economy, the hospitality industry has expanded beyond the confines of the conventional hospitality sector during the last ten years. Since a pleasant and comfortable setting helps lower stress and improve patients' well-being, the care and treatment industry was among the first businesses to recognize the relevance of hospitality. Additionally, the quality of medical care and how patients and their families are handled throughout the process by all staff members have an impact on patient satisfaction.

According to studies, being hospitable and creating a welcoming atmosphere boost patient satisfaction, which helps care and treatment facilities compete more effectively in the market. Following the experience economy trend, other businesses began to see the advantages of focusing on hospitality as well. Customer satisfaction and loyalty are increased by staff who treat customers with kindness [10]–[12].

The cause-and-effect link between staff experience, customer experience, profit, and turnover is shown by Heskett's Service Profit Chain. His study revealed a substantial correlation between customer satisfaction, growth, and profit as well as between staff satisfaction and customer satisfaction. In industries where there is a talent battle, showing hospitality to one's own employees has become more important.

It is widely acknowledged that the cornerstone of competitive advantage in the contemporary economy is intellectual and human capital.

The success and performance of an Organisation are directly correlated with its human capital, or highly trained personnel, which is one of its most essential production resources. In this situation, hospitality serves as a tool for corporate branding, employee satisfaction, and productivity. As noted by Knoll, the workplace begins to provide value to consumers via flexibility, community, and shared resources. the year 2015.

Table 1: Table summarized the definitions of hospitality.

<i>Author(s)</i>	<i>Description of hospitality</i>	<i>Offer</i>	<i>Perspective</i>
Cassee and Reuland (1983, p. 144)	“A harmonious mixture of food, beverage, and/or shelter, a physical environment, and behaviour and attitude of people.”	Product/service, behaviour, environment	Provider/host
Reuland et al. (1985, p. 142)	“A process involving a provider (offering hospitality) and receiver (consuming hospitality). This process involves the transfer of three elements: product (meal or bed), behaviour of employees, and environment of the restaurant.”	Product/service, behaviour, environment	Provider/host
King (1995, p. 229)	“Hospitality in a commercial or organizational setting is a specific kind of relationship between individuals – a host and a guest. In this relationship, the host understands what would give pleasure to the guest and enhances his or her comfort and well-being, and delivers it generously and flawlessly in face-to-face interactions, with deference, tactfulness and the process of social ritual.”	Staff behaviour	Provider/host
Brotherton and Wood (2000, p. 142)	“Hospitality is a contemporaneous human exchange, which is voluntarily entered into, and designed to enhance the mutual well-being of the parties concerned through the provision of accommodation, and/or food, and/or drink.”	Product/service, staff behaviour	Provider/host and Receiver/guest
Brotherton (2005, p. 150)	“The notion of hospitality is being viewed as something closely associated with being made to feel ‘welcome’ by ‘warm’ and ‘friendly’ staff within an environment that is ‘comfortable, pleasant and relaxing.’”	Staff behaviour, environment	Receiver/guest
Ariffin and Maghzi (2012, p. 192)	“Commercial hospitality in the context of hotel services, is defined as acts of entertaining the guests to create memorable and friendly staying experiences by meeting their physiological and emotional needs selflessly.”	Product/service, staff behaviour, environment	Provider/host
Blain and Lashley (2014, p. 8)	Hospitableness is “an individual’s concern to offer genuine hospitality which is essentially altruistic.”	Staff behaviour	Provider/host
Tasci and Semrad (2016, p. 32)	“Taking care of needs by serving by hospitableness (heart-warming, heart-assuring, heart-soothing).”	Staff behaviour	Provider/host
Pijls (2020, p. 172)	“Hospitality can be defined as providing an orchestration of environmental, service, social and technological service cues, in such a way that customers experience an optimal mix of inviting, care and comfort.”	Product/service, staff behaviour, environment	Receiver/guest

Marks a paradigm change in workplace management from managing bricks managing buildings to managing people managing users of facilities. Workplace executives zeroed in on a few specific attributes that describe these environments in their effort to deliver a positive workplace experience. creating a warm, welcoming environment. We only want everyone to feel extremely comfortable. The conventional connection between employers and employees is changing. Today's workers are more demanding and more able to choose their employers on their own terms. Due to these forces, workplace management and design are now more heavily weighted towards fulfilling employee expectations. Among other things, workplace management focuses on creating and managing a memorable experience to attract talent. One may categorise the workplace as a service. Despite the fact that a workplace does not suit the conventional definition of a service, which is to be intangible, perishable, indivisible, and diverse, workplace as a service is a novel notion in the FM world. Host and guest, provider and receiver of hospitality in the workplace. During work hours, the employer is in charge of the worker's health and safety and is also in charge of providing a safe and productive workplace. Therefore, the employer is referred to as the host.

Because providing hospitality services and managing workspaces are FM responsibilities, facility management operational employees will often offer hospitality in numerous circumstances. And who is the visitor? FM must cater to several clients. This relates to the top management of an Organisation on a strategic level, department heads on a tactical level, and end users' employees, guests, and external customers on an operational level. These various customer segments are referred to as clients, customers, and consumers, respectively, in the EN 15221 FM model. In the end, the facility manager's clients make up the bulk of those who get hospitality. In terms of their expectations, perceptions, and assessments of the service encounter, Gremler et al. contend that interactions between internal customers and service providers are comparable to those between internal and external consumers. Although the communication with these kinds of users is more implicit, in practise the hospitality relationship is transaction-based, much as in the conventional hotel business. Employees who

feel appreciated by an Organisation will contribute to its productivity and act as devoted members. The desirable results include workplace and job happiness, loyalty, and dedication to productivity for the business since the employee often works for the company for a longer period of time. Thus, there is a definite analogy between the workplace and the hotel business. The visitor or employee stays on the host's property and is exposed to both the physical and emotional environment the host offers. The employee reciprocates by being committed to his or her job and being productive for the company, and the visitor responds by being pleased and loyal.

Separating hospitality offered as a product from hospitality experienced as a result of products offered is also necessary. Catering, reception, and meeting spaces are all included in the facilities product hospitality (EN-15221-4). FM is accountable for both the supply of services and how they are provided. The experience, the sense of welcome parking and reception services, the sensation of care service desk, the consumer's comfort reservation system, cleaning services and convenience food services, furnishings, and amenities. The interaction of accommodations and workplace services, as well as the behaviour of hospitable service staff, leads to an experience of hospitality by the user, regardless of whether it concerns reception services, janitorial services, or service desk, analogous to the hospitality industry. The FM Added Value Map, created by Jensen (2010), is a model that might aid in illuminating this difference. This model articulates the value that FM adds to the overall effectiveness of enterprises. Ensuring that employees are happy is one method to offer value. Additionally, FM promotes organisational culture and adds to an organization's image, which are elements that make an Organisation more appealing to prospective workers. The degree of employee satisfaction is increased by the sense of hospitality. The EN-15221-4 describes the hospitality product as a component of both the space aspect and services such as reception services and food services), even though hospitality isn't specifically included in the model. The significance of hospitality for the workplace is also supported by the Chartered Institute of Building Service Engineers (CIBSE) model.

The CIBSE model makes the assumption that psychological aspects, such as personality, expectations, and experiences, have an impact on contentment and work satisfaction, which in turn has an impact on performance and productivity. As a result, experiences, such as the hospitality experience, are connected to other workspace-related outcome factors. The research on workplace happiness, however, places more of an emphasis on experience than on concrete elements, such as the goods given. A rigorous concentration on tangibles and a strictly functional and technical perspective of the workplace disregards the implications and inferences that people continuously make about the environment around us as well as the possibility that how you give something may be at least as significant as what you offer. How does it make me feel, and what does it mean to me? Other academic fields' literature, like that in marketing, acknowledges both the what and the how of goods and services. By clearly recognizing both physical ambient conditions, layout, equipment, furnishings, signs, symbols, and artefacts and intangible interactions between service providers and consumers, Bitner created the concept of the servicescape. Berry et al. make a similar distinction between mechanical clues sensory awareness of the surroundings, human cues directly referring to other people's actions, and functional clues in services. Furthermore, they claim that only functional indicators can be completely measured objectively all other indications are heavily influenced by the conscious and unconscious experiences of individual users.

Typical workplaces provide some kind of welcoming service, as one example. The greeting and registration of guests are considered functional hints by Berry et al. Berry et al. and Bitner both refer to the receiving area as the service environment, which they see as environmental conditions. The ease of navigation, the visibility of the welcome desk upon entering the facility, the internal temperature, the acoustic quality, the colors, and the

materials used are a few examples of factors that affect the user's perspective. These ambient factors, which elicit reactions from both the host and the visitor, are a moderator for the social interaction in Bitner's services cape model. The actions of the security guards and receptionists, as well as those of other people using the space, are considered humanin cues according to Berry et al. In Bitner's paradigm, social interaction refers to both the behaviour of the host/employee and the customer/visitor. These models demonstrate that both physical and intangible elements contribute to how people see their workplaces as a whole, and that these elements intersect with Pijls's welcoming, caring, and comfortable sensory qualities.

Methodology

Even inside the hospitality business, empirical study on hospitality is scarce despite the abundance of literature on the subject. As a result, it is difficult to find tools for measuring hospitality. A small number of writers have created tools to measure hospitability or hospitality, either from the viewpoint of the giver or the recipient (see Table. 2).Tasci and Semrad use a socio-psychological perspective to hospitality. They distinguish between many degrees of hospitality, starting with fundamental necessities, moving on to sustenance/entertainment, services, and then hospitality, which is defined as taking care of needs by serving with hospitality. Ten constant components make up their hostility scale, which groups them into heart-warming, heart-reassuring, and heart-soothing variables that all correspond to staff members' behavioural traits.

Table 2: Comparison of instrument to measure hospitality.

<i>Paper</i>	<i>Instrument</i>	<i>Focus</i>
Pijls et al. (2017)	Experience of Hospitality (EH) scale	Guest; functional, sensory and humanic aspects of space and services
Pizam and Tasci (2019)	Scale for measuring experienscape	Guest; experienscape
Tasci and Semrad (2016)	Hospitableness Scale	Guest; human interaction
Ariffin and Maghzi (2012)	Dimensions of hospitality in hotels	Guest; mainly hospitable behaviour
Biswas-Diener et al. (2019)	The Brief Hospitality scale	Host; hospitable behaviour
Blain and Lashley (2014)	Scale for measuring hospitableness	Host; hospitable behaviour

Both the measure for hospitableness created by Blain and Lashley (2014) and the Brief Hospitality Scale by Biswas-Diener et al. (2019) focuses on staff conduct, resulting in an instrument that assesses the strength of true hospitality in persons. The three sub-elements Blain and Lashley (2014) identify are desire to put guests before yourself, desire to make guests happy, and desire to make guests feel special. The four items on the Brief Hospitality Scale evaluate a person's overall propensity for being hospitable. Ariffin and Maghzi (2012) created a scale with five sub-elements: personalization, warm welcoming, special relationship, straight from the heart, and comfort to assess commercial hospitality for hotel services. These tools were created specifically for the hospitality sector. Any service environment may use the following instruments. The experience may be measured in three ways by Pizam and Tasci holistically, as one factor, or by distinguishing between sensory, functional, social, natural, cultural, and hospitality culture components. The Experience of Hospitality Scale was created by Pijls et al. (2017) and takes into account the whole range of services/products, environmental variables, and behavioral aspects. This results in an experience that is inviting, care, and comfortable.

This makes the Experience of Hospitality Scale by Pijls et al., which can be used in a wide range of service settings, including virtual reality (VR), the only instrument that expressly focuses on the assessment of hospitality up to this point. Virtual Reality tests have been proven to be useful for assessing reception areas by Pills , and the method is promising. To determine the relationship between the cues provided in the service environment and the

employees' perception of functional, environmental, and social cues, it is advised to measure both the employees' experiences of hospitality for instance, using the EH scale and their perceptions of these cues. Employers will be able to make their workplaces welcoming for their workers in this manner. In order to improve the organization's performance in the area of hospitality, a combination of instruments assessing workers' experiences with hospitality and assessment of how employees feel the functional, environmental, and social cues that the employer provides to their employees would be helpful.

Employees should preferably complete instruments that assess hospitality when interacting with the workplace. It will be necessary to conduct controlled experimental before-and-after measurements in a blank and intervention setup in order to boost productivity and evaluate if productivity gains are indeed brought on by implemented changes. A before-and-after comparison will show how changes in the environment, staff behaviour, or products and services have affected the level of hospitality experienced. However, if the focus is holistic, the results may not directly indicate what steps should be taken. Utilizing the Experience of Hospitality scale, Visitors' perceptions of a theater's friendliness were influenced by whether heated cushions and hot or cold coffee/tea were available. The level of perceived hospitality may well act as a mediator between workplace satisfaction and productivity, or between workplace satisfaction and person-level constructs like commitment, engagement, and job satisfaction. Up to now, there has been no research into the effect of employee productivity/performance, or knowledge exchange, despite the fact that we have argued that hospitality is important for workplaces, not just for the hospitality industry. Qualitative techniques could also aid in our comprehension of workplace hospitality-related service cues. Additionally, it is possible to use service design strategies to foster a welcoming environment in the workplace. Customer journeys, for instance, may be used to map the relevant touchpoints for workers and specify the ideal experience of hospitality and accompanying service hints at these touchpoints [13].

Theory relevance to practice

In their analysis of institutions and associations that are representative of the majority of certified FM professionals in the UK and Ireland, Meng and Minogue identified four leading indicators: customer happiness, cost effectiveness, reaction time and service dependability. Similar to this, Van Sprang and Drion list three primary FM-performance indicators: cost-effectiveness, quality, and satisfaction whether of in-house or outsourced. In addition, the FM-value map includes contentment as one of the additional values. It may be useful to measure the experience of hospitality (EH) to learn how workers feel about their workplace. It is a measure of how individuals feel, regardless of their particular job qualities or workplace features, especially when examined as a holistic construct. Instead, then encouraging complaints about little things or promising prompt service, it defines the culture of the firm. The tools created by Blain and Lashley and Biswas-Diener et al. are appropriate for application processes for front-line workers and provide information on people's abilities to greet guests. The EH scale is appropriate for assessing reception rooms, when both visitors and staff first enter the facility, in order to gauge how welcoming the business seems. The initial impression that a structure or Organisation produces on visitors or new workers may be measured using an instrument. Field research may use tools that assess hospitality.

CONCLUSION

The wellbeing of employees and the ability to combine work and life may both benefit from a welcoming work environment. Employees are more likely to experience reduced stress levels, more work satisfaction, and better overall mental and physical health when they feel appreciated, supported, and cared for. Collaboration between managers, workers, and leaders is necessary to apply the innocence theory. It entails integrating hospitality ideals into organisational procedures, practises, and policies and periodically asking staff members for input to pinpoint areas for development. The implementation of hospitality theory may

improve workplace management, according to the Innocence Theory, which offers a persuasive viewpoint on the subject. Organisations may foster employee happiness, engagement, and productivity by fostering a welcoming work environment. The incorporation of hospitality practises and ideas may promote employee wellbeing, foster a great work environment, and ultimately lead to organisational success.

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CHAPTER 9**SERVICE MANAGEMENT: FOCUS ON
CUSTOMER EXPERIENCE**

Mr. Anil Gowda, Associate Professor,
Master in Business Administration, Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-anilbgowda@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

A strategic approach to service management that emphasises the necessity of providing great customer service is service management with a focus on customer experience. The main ideas and advantages of service management in improving the customer experience are summarized in this summary. An organisational structure that allows Organisations to provide great service, fulfil customer expectations, and forge lasting customer connections is service management with an emphasis on customer experience. Organisations may stand out from the competition and achieve long-term commercial success by putting a high priority on client-centricity.

KEYWORDS:

Customers, Client, Experience, Operations, Quality, Service.

INTRODUCTION

In contrast to scientific management concepts, service management was created as a viewpoint that would be better appropriate for service-based businesses. In the past, there have been conflicts about the location of the genesis of service management due to the concurrent development of two schools in the 1980s. The so-called Nordic School originated in the marketing industry. It looked at customer interactions and found that marketing, as a stand-alone activity, did not allow for adequate organisational adjustments. The area of operation management seen significant advancement in North America in the service management theory. Prior to 1990, service operations management (SOM), a subset of service management, featured the word operations in its name. A study session in France in 1990 that included experts in operations management, marketing, and organisational behaviour led to the shift from SOM to service management. To deliver quality services, such as wholesome and delicious cuisine, a clean and hygienic atmosphere, safe and timely IT services, and adequate ventilation and building maintenance, a substantial amount of skills and expertise is needed [1]–[3].

Other common service vocations including financial advisers, radio hosts, health personnel, event organizers, apparel stylists, and personal trainers exist in addition to those just mentioned. Despite their point of view, many service occupations are often seen as being low-value, low-skilled labour. This perception might result from the word service's original meaning, which refers to servants and slaves as a type of activity that disappears as it is used or consumed because the consumption or use occurs at the same time as it is provided. An OxfordA client is defined as a person who buys goods or services from a shop or business in the dictionary of English, whereas a service is defined as the action of helping or doing work for someone. According to ISO 41001 (2017), a service is a non-primary activity that supports an organization's main operations or principal activities [4], [5]. In terms of

customers, this chapter leans towards the definition given in ISO 41011, which refers to the client, the customer, and the end user as a demand Organisation. According to EN 15221-1, customers are those who request and order the delivery of a service, clients are those who make the service purchase, and end users are those who actually get the service. All three of these stakeholders are referred to as customers [6]–[8].

It's common to think of a service as a non-physical activity that can't be seen or touched. According to some, services are collections of activities that often include interactions between the client and service personnel as well as resources, items, and/or systems. Others define services as economical activities whose output is not a physical product or construction. Still others refer to services and/or activities as acts, processes, and performances. Here, the term service refers to a procedure involving transient actions that almost certainly require communication between a provider and a customer. Aiming to comprehend the service, operations, and management processes associated with them, service research has expanded as a result of the service industry's global expansion over the last 50 years or more. According to Johnsto, a lot of research has been conducted that is grounded on theories and methodologies from several viewpoints, including those from the fields of marketing, operations, organisational behaviour, and human resource management (HRM). The service management theory, its key concepts, and its relevance to workplace management research and practises are covered in this chapter. It is noteworthy in this context that services play a significant role in the facility management (FM) field, which is closely tied to workplace management study. Services within FM may relate to both hard and soft services, taking pieces, nibbles, and behaviour into account[9]–[11].

DISCUSSION

Service management addresses several issues that arise in firms and approaches organisational transformation holistically. A brief literature review focusing several disciplinary approaches to service management is shown in Table. 1. Service research, a subfield of operations management, examines the design, planning, regulating, and administration of services while addressing the Organising conundrum. The main claim is that the caliber of internal processes affects the caliber of external services. The client is acknowledged as a value co-creator. Researchers in the field of marketing examine the interactions between a service provider and a client. The fundamental tenet is that improved value and satisfaction are directly related to service quality interactions between employees and customers. Studies in the field of human resource management (HRM) concentrate on the empowerment of service workers as a source of competitive advantage. Employees are seen as internal clients that need service as well. Instead, then focusing on dyadic interactions, the discipline of organisational management studies networks to better understand how linkages between internal and external processes, consumers, workers, and the market operate. The development of a unique service management philosophy was most heavily inspired by the aforementioned four disciplines. The key findings of research in these fields helped people to comprehend. Table. 1 Emerging service management themes studied in multiple disciplines. According to Grönroos (1994), service management is an all-encompassing organisational strategy that emphasises the following four elements:

1. Creating value for the customer.
2. Minimizing silos by collaborating internally and externally.
3. Focusing on quality.
4. Developing personnel.

According to Grönroos and Gummerus, service management places a strong focus on the customer-centric approach to business and makes use of the value-in-use (UT) knowledge. The focus of service management, according to Grönroos, switches from internal efficiency to the customer and/or market, cultivating long-term client connections, and focusing on the

perceived overall quality of goods or services. The general management concepts, in the authors' opinion, place too much emphasis on economies of scale and cost reduction, while service management assesses the cost of quality. Discussions of costs and risks, however, are not covered in this chapter.

Table .1 Emerging service management themes studied in multiple disciplines.

<i>Discipline</i>	<i>Operations management</i>	<i>Marketing</i>	<i>HRM</i>	<i>Organisational management</i>
<i>Emerging themes</i>				
Service delivery	x			
Internal processes	x			x
Quality of processes	x			x
Service interaction		x		
Service encounters		x		
Service quality	x	x	x	x
Service experience		x	x	
Customer satisfaction		x	x	x
Empowerment			x	
Customer orientation	x	x	x	x
Value creation		x		x
Example articles	Fließ & Kleinaltenkamp, 2004 Johnston, 2008 Gummesson, 1998 Parente et al., 2002 Slack et al., 2004 Heineke & Davis, 2007	Bitner & Wang, 2014 Eyuboglu & Sumrall, 1989 Grönroos, 1984 Gummesson, 1998 Lemon & Verhoef, 2016 Parasuraman et al., 1985 Smith et al., 1999 Voorhees et al., 2017	Berry, 1981 Bowen, 2016 Chand, 2010 Grönroos, 2007 Lashley, 1999	Albrecht, 1988 Barbee & Bott, 1991 Huber et al., 2001 Normann & Ramirez, 1993 Osborne et al., 2013 Storbacka et al., 1994 Vermeeren et al., 2014

Creating Value for the Customer

Understanding the relationships between the players and the process of producing value has been essential. Although value in service management is seen as a particular customer's desire, it also tackles the idea of customer/service experience in addition to focusing on assessing value via customer satisfaction. For instance, Grönroos et al. claim that when consumers have an impact on the outcome of a service, experienced value for the parties is co-created. Thus, value is produced by combining knowledge, technological, human, and organisational resources.

The phrase customer's journey with a firm over time during the purchase cycle across multiple touchpoints may be used to describe the customer/service experience. The encounter itself, the immediate before to the encounter, and the immediate after the encounter are included in it. The focus in this case is on the ongoing nature of the service and the need for network-wide coordination across various actors and diverse processes. According to Voorhees et al., there are three different sorts of service interactions, and they are as follows:

1. The pre-core service encounter, which is the time leading up to the core encounter that encourages consumers to interact with the company.
2. The core service encounter, which is defined as the time period during which the primary service offering is provided to the customer in order to meet the customer's requirement.
3. The post-core service interaction, when the client evaluates his own experience.

These times include several players and are impacted by both physical and intangible service qualities. Service interactions at various touchpoints with staff members, other clients, or other divisions of the business are what shape the entire experience. Therefore, service strategy, organisational design, and procedures must all be in harmony to provide a pleasant experience.

The need for a thorough knowledge of the consumer is a typical problem in building the customer experience. As a result, several techniques for including and involving customers have been created and used in both research and practises, including empathic design, living labs, information acceleration, and free elicitation.

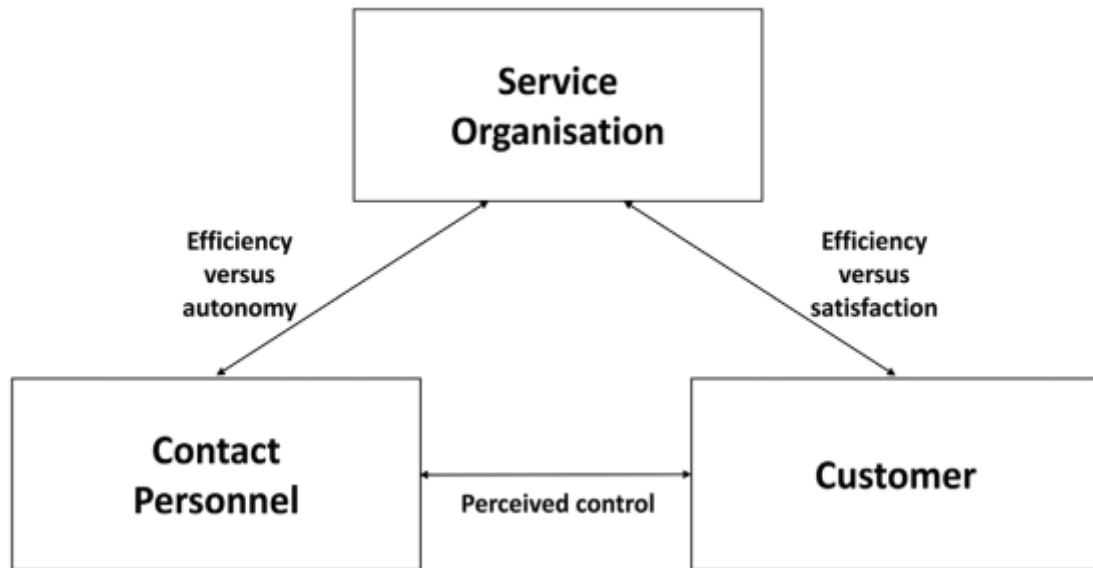


Figure 1: Reprising the Service Encounter Triad[Library Open].

Focus on Quality

To provide value to the consumer, the whole service delivery process from back-office tasks to client interactions must be coordinated. The customer's expectations for the quality of the service must be met during the service engagement. Consequently, one of the key factors influencing customer satisfaction may be regarded to be the quality of a service. The quality component of service management is studied from the viewpoints of internal process quality and external service quality. It outlines the function of operations and the manner in which service is provided and evaluated. So in Figure. 1. In his discussion of the various aspects of service quality, Grönroos distinguished between image factors the way the service process and result are perceived and technical quality the manner in which the service is delivered, such as staff attitudes or staff smoothness.

At the same time, Parasuraman et al. created a SERVQUAL framework that outlined the factors influencing service quality. According to their framework, the quality of a service is based on tangibles, dependability, responsiveness, certainty, and empathy. In addition to these variables, outside variables may influence expectations for service quality and alter how it is perceived. The quality of internal processes has a significant impact on the quality of external services. The operations must be focused on serving the demands of the client rather than just being efficient in manufacturing the product or service in order to provide high-quality service. As a result, blueprinting based on consumer needs is used. A service blueprint enables for the process to be broken down into various components for process efficiency and visualises the service system from the perspective of the client.

Developing Personnel

Employee treatment of the company's clients is influenced by how employers treat their staff. It is crucial how staff handle customers since they often serve as clients' first impressions of the business. Due to the fact that motivated workers will have a good influence on consumers, Bowers and Martin (2007) contend that it makes sense, especially for service businesses, to treat their own employees as customers and perhaps better than customers. Employees are thus referred to as internal customers who must also be catered to. Organising and empowering people is one of the crucial components of internal coordination in service operations. To facilitate employees' success, it is necessary to define their duties, provide them with the necessary tools, and assist them in developing the necessary abilities, empowerment refers to management strategies that emotionally engage workers. Task, task

allocation, power, commitment, and culture are the five characteristics he outlines for empowerment. His approach may be utilised to identify various empowerment strategies and offer workers with a variety of sources of pleasure. Employees who feel empowered are more inclined to take ownership of the customer experience, which improves the perceived quality of the service. The link between the four elements of service management theory and the subjects covered is summarised in Figure. 2. Bottom up, from the input to the output, is how the figure is displayed. To harmonise internal processes, contracts, policies, and management procedures will soon be established. The alignment is also influenced by the cooperation of the parties concerned, employee growth, and the actual technical, functional, and perceived quality of the service.

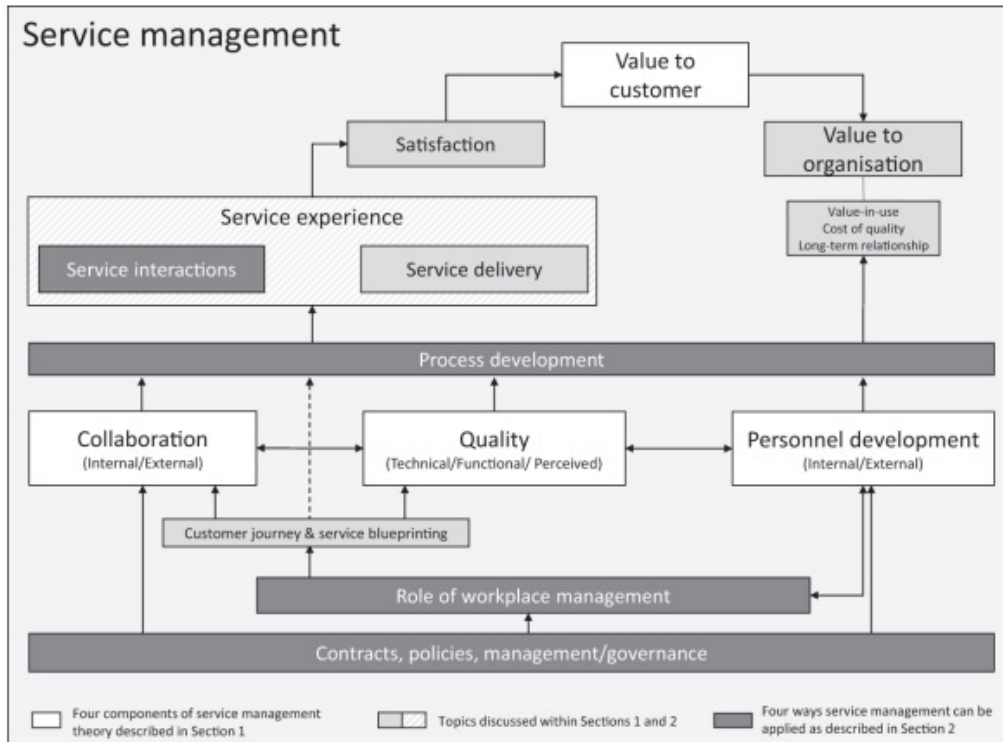


Figure 2: Service management components, topics, and ways of application[Library Open].

Customer journeys and service blueprinting strategies are used to provide the best possible service experience for the customers. A proper combination of resources, technology, people, expertise, and organisations is needed to generate a positive customer experience across the whole service delivery process, particularly during customer-provider interactions. Customer satisfaction, which has value for the customer themselves, is used to gauge service experience. Consequently, by fostering long-lasting connections and focusing on the cost of quality, this attention to customer value adds value to firms.

Applicability to Workplace Studies

The use of service management theory in workplace studies has already benefited facilities management and workplace management and may continue to do so. First, people's perspectives shift to see the workplace and particularly the physical location as a service that workers get and use. As a result, from the standpoint of general management, perceived workplace quality and employee happiness are given more weight. Second, it encourages businesses to become more employee- and customer-driven when service management theory is applied to the management and operations of services. In this sense, firms tend to focus on long-term objectives and pursue quality enhancements.

The remainder of this section describes how service management theory may assist the study of facilities management and workplace management. It also outlines the four main ways the

theory has been put into practise in the real world: by better understanding the role of workplace management, increasing the consistency of practises through contracts, policies, and management/governance, creating processes for managing workplaces and facilities, and understanding customer interactions. These features are shown in Figure .2 and further discussed in this section.

CONCLUSION

For businesses to succeed in today's cutthroat business environment, service management with an emphasis on customer experience is crucial. Organisations may create pleasant and memorable experiences that promote customer satisfaction, loyalty, and advocacy by putting the needs and preferences of their consumers first. Adopting a customer-centric mindset, aligning service design and delivery with customer expectations, and enabling people to provide excellent service are all necessary components of effective service management. Organisations may identify areas for improvement and make data-driven choices to improve the overall customer experience by measuring and tracking customer experience metrics.

There are several advantages to service management that prioritises the client experience. Higher customer satisfaction ratings, enhanced customer loyalty, and a strong brand reputation are enjoyed by businesses that place a high priority on client centricity and service quality. Customers that are happy with the company are more inclined to refer them to others, which promotes organic growth and opens up new business options. A crucial component of service management is continuous improvement.

Organisations need to be flexible and responsive to changing market trends and client requirements. Organisations may remain ahead of the competition and continually provide value-added experiences by asking for consumer input, analysing data, and making changes. Service management with an emphasis on the customer experience is a strategic need for businesses looking for long-term success. Organisations may develop solid customer connections, spur corporate development, and gain a competitive edge in the market by placing the customer at the centre of their operations.

In order to meet and surpass customer expectations in a business environment that is always evolving, service management is a journey that requires continuing dedication, creativity, and adaptability.

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CHAPTER 10

UNDERSTANDING WORKPLACE MANAGEMENT'S ORGANIZATIONAL ROLE

Dr. Ramalingam Mageshkumar, Assistant Professor,
Department of Management, Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-mageshkumar@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

To maximize productivity, employee happiness, and overall company performance, it is essential to have a deeper grasp of the function that workplace management plays within the Organisation. Workplace management includes a number of facets, including building upkeep, technological integration, and worker wellbeing. looks at the importance of workplace management and how it affects the efficiency of organisations. In order to create a positive work environment, it emphasises the need of effective workplace design, employee involvement, and the use of cutting-edge methods. Organisations may improve cooperation, communication, and worker productivity by using a comprehensive approach to workplace management. The physical design of the workplace must be optimized, ergonomic workplaces must be provided, and technology must be used to increase productivity and expedite procedures. Additionally, effective workplace management is crucial for promoting the happiness and well-being of employees. It comprises fostering a good work environment, encouraging work-life balance, and offering facilities and services that improve the general working environment.

KEYWORDS:

Customers, Management, Research, Service, Workplace.

INTRODUCTION

Management of the workplace is essential to the overall efficiency and success of an Organisation. It includes a range of tactics, procedures, and methods for establishing the ideal working conditions that foster efficiency, teamwork, and worker wellbeing. Organisations are realizing the significance of efficient workplace management in enhancing organisational success given the changing nature of work and the growing focus on the employee experience. This topic's introduction tries to provide a general overview of the function that workplace management plays inside the company. It emphasises the important factors and matters to be taken into account while managing the workplace, such as facility management, technology integration, and employee engagement. It also emphasises how important it is for businesses to adapt to new workplace trends, such remote work and flexible scheduling, and include them into their workplace management practises. Encouraging a healthy workplace culture, encouraging alignment between the physical workspace and the organization's goals and objectives, and giving workers the skills and resources, they need to succeed are all components of effective workplace management [1]–[3].

A multidisciplinary strategy that incorporates aspects of design, human resources, technology, and organisational psychology is necessary. The introduction also emphasises the potential advantages of good workplace management, including increased worker output, satisfaction, and retention. Additionally, it understands how the physical workplace

environment affects the physical and emotional health of employees. Leaders and managers may adopt strategies that improve the working environment and raise overall organisational performance by having a clear awareness of the function workplace management plays in the Organisation. The introduction prepares the ground for investigating the numerous facets of workplace management and its importance within the company. It sets the scene and emphasises the significance of building a supportive workplace environment that promotes the productivity and well-being of the organization's workers and is in line with its aims[4]–[6].

According to service management philosophy, clients are the main focus of organisational activity. Customers are often understood in various dimensions customer, client, end user in the FM and CREM industries. Due to this complexity, end users those who utilised the building sometimes find themselves in circumstances where their relevance in FM/CREM practises is diminished. However, if end users are considered the primary clients of the workplace management unit, then the procedures for providing services are created with their needs in mind. In order to give the most beneficial results and increase customer satisfaction, workplace managers must first understand the demands and preferences of their consumers. Customer satisfaction is made up of a variety of elements, such as physical and intangible service/product features and an overall assessment of the service quality, as was stated in the preceding portion of this chapter. Physical space may be seen of as having tangible features, such construction quality, interior environment quality, building design, and building look, and intangible attributes, including effective FM processes that support the physical space. The workplace should also be seen as a collection of different features and services that together make up the entire working experience[7]–[9].

For instance, Perillartine et al.'s analysis of office offerings illustrated the evolution of provider knowledge of the office. Office solutions evolved from straightforward square-meter offers to serviced office offers to an integrated working experience. The research demonstrated that coworking spaces provide their customers with an entire experience by hosting a variety of events and community-building activities in addition to the essential services required for company operation.

The attitude, attentiveness, and empathy of the service professionals, in addition to the physical and intangible aspects of service, have a big impact on how customers view their whole experience. For instance, Pijls et al. investigated the skills and personality features of service workers in delivering a hospitality experience based on the notion of the human touch.

The effectiveness of the space utilised, the cost per square meter, and other comparable metrics connected to real estate performance might then be highlighted while evaluating workplace management practises. The effectiveness of workplace management practises may be determined by looking at employee happiness, net promoter score, customer effort score, service tickets, response and resolution times, and other comparable service quality indicators[10], [11].

DISCUSSION

The service management theory places a strong emphasis on internal and external cooperation and communication as factors that influence the management process and service delivery quality. Processes and several participants must be included into the network for cooperation. Some of the services in facilities and workplace management are often outsourced. As a result, the organisation has a difficult challenge in assuring the quality of offered services, their content, and their consistency. Service level agreements (SLAs) are therefore used to outline the relationship between outsourcing and organisational governance. The connection between the parties involved and the calibre of service delivery, service process, and service objects may be significantly impacted by well-designed SLAs. The

customer's demands should be taken into consideration while defining and developing the service qualities that are part of SLAs. For instance, research by Petrulaitiene et al. highlighted service features for workplace service development, such as the need to construct service packages, level services in accordance with client expectations, and focus on specific services on the employee, the final user. SLAs, however, are not given adequate consideration in academic studies, particularly in the subject of FM/workplace management.

Better analysis and development of workplace and FM service processes. By offering insights into service development processes and guaranteeing the quality of service and customer satisfaction, service management theory may aid in the creation of internal workplace management procedures. Service management research has focused on identifying the variables that affect service quality. One must evaluate the process from the perspective of the customer in order to generate a positive working experience.

The customer journey is used in service management to pinpoint the touchpoints of service interactions. Customer happiness is determined by the quality of service interactions. Service quality is influenced by a variety of external and internal, physical and intangible aspects, as was previously established. Processes and various players must be integrated for this, and their objectives must be in line. Applying service blueprinting approaches may be used to study the efficacy and quality of workplace and FM services. According to Von Felten et al., FM service blueprinting may enhance the interactions between primary processes and FM processes, increasing the transparency of the FM value.

FM service blueprinting aids in identifying interfaces between core activities, support processes, and clients, according to Coenen et al. On this basis, it is possible to address both the efficacy and the efficiency of organizational processes. Additionally, the service blueprinting approach aids in defining the customer's role and the relationships between other players. Service blueprinting enables proactive issue resolution and management by allowing the discovery of failure sites.

The knowledge of the relationship between the function of the customer and organisational processes has been represented in several model advances in CREM and FM. The most recent addition, the Value Adding Management (VAM) model, illustrates how real estate management practises are used to provide value to consumers for more information on the VAM model. A strong alignment between basic organisational objectives, real estate and service development, and activities may also be supported by the service blueprinting process and service management theory.

Issues in achieving organisational objectives and customer satisfaction will emerge if real estate and facilities services are not appropriate and aligned. Developing a deeper understanding of varied service management interactions. Analysis of interactions between different services and players in the workplace environment is aided by the service management theory. Service interactions may be used to investigate how clients see the workplace ecosystem, which consists of services, physical space, and external environment. The distribution of services, including on-demand services and the arguments over daylight vs nighttime service delivery, must also be taken into account when examining the full ecosystem of services. When a service is provided, it interacts with a variety of factors, including the effect it has on society.

Service

Although the majority of service management theory was created to explain extra organizational interactions and service production, it may also be used to analyse relationships inside organisations. Examples of more recent research that integrate the logic of service encounters with the logic of service experiences to explore service-service assessment are Groen and Van Sprang. Customers' perceptions of hospitality at a building's

reception area as well as the overlap between services provided by receptionists and security personnel at building entrances were investigated by Groen and van Sprang.

Service-Building

It is possible to think about structures and physical workplaces as a form of service. It is important to distinguish this sort of service from service-service interactions since it is a more static form of service. Such a perspective on structures and workspaces is quite valuable, especially in terms of facility management. The design of the reception-entrance area was a crucial factor in the research stated earlier by Groen and van Sprang when considering both service delivery. The physical arrangement facilitated communication and engagement between the two departments and with building visitors. Due to its impact on the resources required and the turnaround time, a building's layout may also have an impact on the price of services. Building type may also affect how a service is arranged, for example, whether outsourcing or in-house manufacturing is the primary supply model and/or to what extent it is a supporting supply model. A core supply model may be internal service provision, but the business might also include outsourcing as a supporting service provision to provide the delivery of services additional flexibility. In addition to internal and external supplies, the organisation may connect with society more broadly by enabling volunteer groups like neighbourhood handball teams to provide ad hoc tasks like painting walls or moving furniture after an event.

Service-Stakeholder

The interaction of services with stakeholders has an influence on society at large. Services may engage with a variety of stakeholders, ranging from customers and business partners to the relatives of service staff who visit a company's main location. For instance, regardless of their parents' profession or level of education, children's chances for education and a healthy upbringing are impacted by when their parents work. Consider the contrast between daylight and nighttime cleaning. Norway switched from night to day cleaning in the late 1980s and early 1990s. It was made possible for both parents to be at home after working hours rather than taking turns choosing when to be at home and at work because of two major factors a focus on enabling a good family life for all levels of society and an increase in public creche options that allowed both parents to work during the day.

Norwegian end users are encouraged to co-create a clean atmosphere at work, which has changed the way end users collaborate there as well. Here, it may be helpful to note that these conditions are governed by the service contracts, policies, and management/governance; it is in these documents and on these occasions that the working conditions of the employees are determined, as well as where the wider impact on society is decided and/or created. The ability to relate human conduct to organisation practises is the most important lesson learned from service management theory. The strength of this link has also been shown in workplace management. The workplace followed the same reasoning. In all companies, management may encourage its function to play a far more strategic role.

Methodology

Due to its interdisciplinary character, service management research uses both qualitative and quantitative research approaches. Causal analyses are often employed in analysing linkages and interactions. The Critical Incident Technique (CIT), for instance, is a popular technique for examining customer service interactions. Using CIT, it is possible to directly observe human conduct and pinpoint the times of pleasure and unhappiness in these interactions. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) or other multi-level analyses are possible additional techniques for causal analysis (Parente et al., 2002; Chand, 2010; Smith et al., 1999). Customer surveys or satisfaction surveys are popular data sources for these kinds of methodologies. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) research was utilised, for instance, by

Vermeeren et al. to demonstrate links between customer happiness and a company's profitability. These approaches use a logical approach and look for general rules.

Another section of the research is more process-focused and deals with organised patterns that have their roots in qualitative methodologies. It often relies on inductive or deductive reasoning as well as action research. In-depth case studies are a frequent foundation for qualitative research. Different techniques, such as the Resource Allocation Model (RAM) or service blueprinting, may be used to analyse the processes inside the company. For instance, many techniques for integrating customers into service development have been developed based on observations or interviews.

Literature reviews, content analysis, and conceptual analysis, which is based on dissecting ideas and analysing them, are other research approaches that are often used. The study on workplace management has shown similar results. Case studies are a popular study tool for dealing with complicated management practice problems. Understanding social systems in the workplace, such as altering behaviour, enhancing health and safety at work, and other related topics, often involves action-based research. Studies by Coenen et al. and Von Felten et al. both employed service blueprinting. To the authors' knowledge, the number of broad quantitative studies in workplace research is still rather small. The most well-known examples of applying causal analysis methods such as factor analysis and principal component analysis to relate human behaviour to architectural aspects are probably Haynes and Price and Hayne. Additionally, there is a shortage of longitudinal research in both service management and workplace management studies for tracking system-level changes.

Theory Relevance to Practice

First, organisations might assure employee pleasure and productivity by comprehending the foundational ideas of the service management theory and putting them into practice. This strategy aids organisations and management in shifting their perception of real estate from a financial burden to an asset, one that may provide the company with benefits beyond simple cost-savings on real estate. It is simple to put several service management components into practice. Starting with bettering interactions between contact personnel and clients' employees at the office, moving on to bettering the overall process and experience of service delivery, and finally up to the creation and regulation of contract and governance structures, including the effects they have on larger society. Understanding how customer perception affects their pleasure with and the success of services may be done by using lessons learned from ideas relating to service quality, such as SERVQUAL.

Planning services may be aided by the highlighted importance of behaviour and staff motivation in service interactions and delivery of both in-house and outsourced services. Additionally, service development techniques and tools for service process design, such as service blueprinting, may provide a robust toolset for service innovation and enhanced organisational performance.

Additionally, customer-focused planning and techniques for customer integration would be advantageous for both the delivery of FM services and the overall working environment, fostering greater coordination across HRM, IT, and FM departments. Communication between enterprises and service providers may be enhanced by a shared understanding of value creation, which will enhance the customer experience. Customer satisfaction and the overall working experience are both impacted by the customer experience of any service, combination of services, and the full service ecosystem provided at the workplace. This result holds true for a variety of services, including human-to-human and human-to-machine interactions.

CONCLUSION

Employers may increase staff retention rates, draw in top talent, and improve organisational performance by putting effective workplace management ideas into practice. Additionally, it

helps businesses to match workplace policies with their corporate aims and objectives, enhancing organisational agility and boosting worker morale. Organisations looking to establish the best work environment must have a thorough awareness of the function of workplace management. Organisations may boost productivity, encourage creativity, and achieve sustainable development by placing a high priority on workplace design, employee engagement, and well-being. Organisations will be able to maximise their potential and keep a competitive advantage in today's dynamic business environment by adopting creative strategies and adjusting to changing workplace dynamics on a constant basis.

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CHAPTER 11

THEORY OF ORGANISATIONAL SOCIALIZATIONINTEGRATING FM STAFF

Ms. Pramodahegde, Assistant Professor,
Master in Business Administration, Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-pramodah@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

The integration of external Facility Management (FM) workers into businesses is examined under the Theory of Organisational Socialization. Organisations often struggle to integrate external FM workers and harmonies them with the company's culture, values, and goals as outsourcing becomes more prevalent. The main ideas of this theory are outlined in this abstract. it is acknowledged that outsourcing is common in the FM sector and that it is important to integrate hired contractors well. It emphasises that a thorough approach to socialization is necessary for effective integration, which goes beyond the simple transfer of tasks. The Theory of Organisational Socialization emphasises the need of offering an organized onboarding procedure for FM workers who are hired outside of the company. Their grasp of the company's culture, regulations, and procedures will be facilitated by this process, which also includes orientation meetings, training courses, and mentoring opportunities. These activities might help outsourced employees feel more a part of and committed to the company.

KEYWORDS:

Culture, Employers, Facility, Socialization, Worker.

INTRODUCTION

Socialization is the process of a person being trained and indoctrinated by an Organisation via a set of beliefs, standards, and actions that are seen to be desirable or acceptable. When a person moves from one group to another within a social structure, it is the active production of a new identity via a personal understanding of a circumstance. This refers to assimilating into the dominant culture of a place. Due to the broad applicability of its premise our need to comprehend and find a place for ourselves within every new environment it has its roots in sociology and is widely used in other fields outside of management, such as health, education, and a host of others. Organisations officially welcome newcomers to a post by using the socialization process. Informally, one might learn about socialization by observing the actions of others who are already used to the environment they seek to comprehend. The process through which newly hired employees socialize with their coworkers and establish a professional identity is known as induction or the Socialization of new employees. The process through which new recruits learn the attitudes, habits, and knowledge necessary to engage and function successfully as a member of an Organisation is known as organisational Socialization. To help new hires integrate into the firm, this organisational Socialization gives them a predetermined pattern of conduct to imitate [1]–[3]. Fundamentally, maintaining a smooth introduction of newly hired workers requires organisational Socialization. Employees are more likely to love their work more, understand it

better, and perform better when they have a fluid Socialization process, which may enhance customer experience. The Ashforth et al. model makes the effects of high performance, organisational identification, and job satisfaction clear, showing that organisations that go through the Newcomer learning process have better performance, strong organisational identification, increased job satisfaction, a decreased intention to quit, and better role satisfaction. innovation Socialization does not take place in isolation. It is a collection of components that firms utilised as machinery to socialize new hires. The gradual integration of new ideas and behaviour process that takes place in an organisational environment that includes the brain as well as several facets of social conduct. The purpose of assimilating the pervasive organisational culture that exists in a workplace. Therefore, its elements are drawn from organisational culture itself, which is Socialization. Figure .1 illustrates how these elements interact with one another, using organisational culture as an anchor. The many means through which a new culture is transmitted to the newest members of the community are together referred to as Socialization components.

The new employee may either learn the procedures, customs, and traditions, tales and symbols, rules, and organisational structure officially via a Socialization process or informally. Punishment and incentives are used by firms to assist eliminate previously ingrained culture that employees have acquired from prior employers or to reinforce the information they want the employee to retain [4]–[6].

The processes people take when they initially join an Organisation are shown in Figure .1. They enter the Organisation with no prior exposure to its norms and procedures, but they start to get socialized via a combination of immersion in its structure and procedures, tales and symbols, conventions, rituals, and routines, as well as knowledge of its punishment and reward systems. Making through to the other side and becoming a team member is an even more crucial step for workers to take.

This allows people to contribute to the organization's culture, both now and in the future. The present corporate culture, which serves as the cornerstone of how most firms are operated, must be preserved via this process. It is often necessary to impart this culture to newcomers since it is what has distinguished them from competing businesses in the past and functioned well. Simple conventions like using a colour code to indicate homogeneity in speech patterns may be used as artefacts to determine an employee's company culture. Far while it's crucial to pay attention to what new hires are taught, how they are taught is far more crucial. Employees may either be guided through a process or let to navigate it independently based on their inherent initiative [7]–[10].

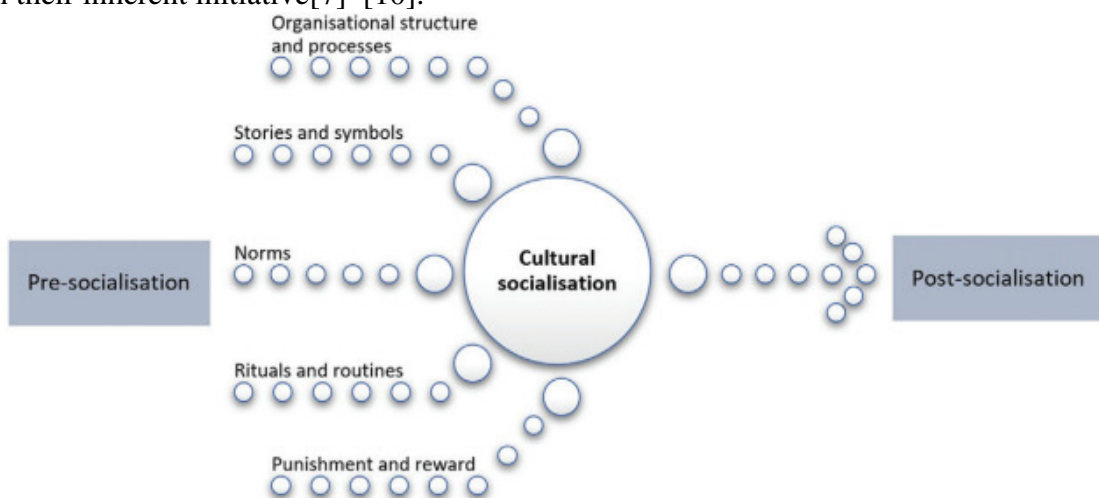


Figure 1: Representing the main Components of Socialization [Library Open].

According to Ashforth et al., the process a new hire goes through has a significant influence on the level of fit they ultimately attain inside the firm. The use of investiture, as shown in Figure .1, to reinforce the qualities the Organisation wants, along with a tried-and-true way of integrating new hires into the workforce, will improve the simplicity of their adjustments. Finally, they increase the workers' self-assurance and motivate them to take initiative, which can only be good because any instances of uncertainty and self-doubt may be eliminated. It is possible to feel the effects of excellent performance, organisational identity, and work happiness. Where employees feel at ease in their jobs and the company, there will be a decrease in intentions to leave[11].

DISCUSSION

Socialization follows a pattern and often starts before the employee reports to his job location, in some instances even before the appointment is announced. With a thorough awareness of the work they would be expected to complete, some workers often look for the glamour or rewards attached to holding a certain position. When this happens, the workplace may either make the sense of inadequacy worse or make it go away. Even when there is a bad side, making someone feel welcome in a new place will allow them time to get used to it. The newly hired personnel also assesses if it was all worthwhile. Their degree of work satisfaction will be able to attest to this. The process of socialization's several phases is described following.

Anticipatory Socialization

As people age, they gain the ability to think, comprehend, and predict. Starting anything new seldom results in complete ignorance, particularly when there has been some kind of warning. According to Feldman, the employee develops ideas about the organisation at this point based on conversations with potential employers and the choice made about employment.

He proposes realism and congruence as two components of anticipatory Socialization. The degree to which the employee was accurate about the new position is known as realism. Congruence is the relationship between an employee's degree of work satisfaction and his or her capacity to perform the duties of the position satisfactorily. When a new employee's expectations are not fulfilled, it often results in poor work satisfaction and a higher likelihood that they will leave.

Accommodation

The encounter stage is when the employee has a broad grasp of what really occurs in the business, how it is managed, and who is in charge. Here is where the real process of joining the Organisation starts. They begin the gradual transformation that makes them an instantly recognized employee of the firm. Even though they have performed such jobs in a prior employment, new employees adopt a new method of doing things. By doing their fair part of the job, they develop into effective team members. Additionally, they get to know their brand-new coworkers and start to develop relationships with them. Subordinates, bosses, and level-colleagues are courted or made aware of their superiority.

The dynamics are established for future contacts, so if a poor impression is produced now, it could be difficult, if not impossible, to reverse.

This may take longer in firms with tight-knit teams, and the employee must carefully abide by the regulations to maintain their nascent trust.

Role Management

The fight for balance that the new employee faces is the third stage of this process. Better management of all the responsibilities we take on at work and at home is necessary. The management of one's family and obligations outside of the home and job is also necessary. Even at work, where demands on one's time may be greater, priorities must be established. Originate from several sources at the workplace.

There is a need for flexible timetables, the delegation of tasks, and the settlement of both opposing priorities when obligations outside of the office are added. Demands and disagreements brought on their personal problems. Over time, this process of balancing evens out, but it starts during Socialization, when new hires start to comprehend the demands of their work. The next section reviews several models that corporations might employ to achieve this fit.

Applicability to Workplace Studies

Although many various industries and types of workers may benefit from the Socialization models described in the preceding section, the outsourced facilities management workforce is the focus of this chapter. Employing outsourced personnel is prevalent since it gives the company access to specialised outside expertise and enables it to concentrate on its primary business. The decision to outsource certain functions, particularly non-core ones, to outside service providers may thus be made as a deliberate move to support key organisational objectives. For businesses looking for the most output from the least amount of internal resources, outsourcing is often the best option. Cleaning up the offices and premises was one of the very first non-core tasks that was outsourced. Other divisions including administration, infrastructure, communications, marketing, and IT progressively started to get involved. Today, businesses even outsource parts of their essential operations, such as their strategy for achieving the objectives, and some more audacious ones even outsource disaster recovery. The seven most outsourced services, according to RICS study from 2012, are janitorial and cleaning services, landscaping, food services, architectural design, travel services, building engineering, and construction and renovation.

When all of these services are outsourced, they might make up a significant portion of the organization's offerings, demonstrating the necessity for effective integration of the outsourced staff into the client organisation. This implies that a significant portion of workers at companies may not be employed by them directly. They must go through the Socialization process in order to prevent the internal FM organization's culture and citizenship from being compromised and to promote greater staff integration. When applying for jobs, job seekers take into account factors other than the pay and status that come with the position. Additionally, they want to feel satisfied in their work and that they belong in the company, and this is true even with outsourced workers. Due to the time, effort, and money invested in recruiting and training, organisations often worry about the appropriateness of outsourced employees and how they are adjusting to the workplace. By attempting to choose personnel who are qualified for the position, they hope to lower high turnover rates and poor motivation difficulties.

Due to this, there has been an increase in person profiling to determine if incoming applicants are qualified for the jobs they want. While this may not be achievable for outsourced personnel, a Socialization process will lessen any natural friction and increase compatibility. According to Hesketh and Myers, Socialization and adaption are greatly influenced by both the job seeker and the company they want to work for. Congruence between them results in a greater degree of enjoyment, where congruence is the better the match is between a person and their employment, according to Feldman. It is known as person-organization fit when there is this degree of congruence. Personal and organisational compatibility and organisations happen. When an employee's or jobseeker's behaviour, vision, and personality traits align with those of the company they work for or want to join, the person-organization fit is most likely to be successful. Every service provider and client company should strive to achieve this fit when it comes to the Socialization of outsourced staff. The ease of integrating outsourced workers into their assigned organisations and the hassles related to non-congruence will result from ensuring both the pleasure of the outsourced employee and the business. Additionally, since workers are happier, turnover rates decrease. A good person-

organization fit also results in a rise in customer satisfaction. Employees who successfully fit in and adopt the organization's ideals are also better equipped to represent it.

Understanding the unique characteristics of facility management outsourcing may help one comprehend the particular needs of a Socialization model that can be used to outsourced workers. First, it must be acknowledged that Socialization for outsourced workers requires three separate stages that are not adequately reflected in any of the Socialization models in the preceding section. Pre-socialization, In-socialization, and Post-socialization are these.

The Pre-socialization stage, which happens before an employee starts working, consists of what they expect the workplace and their tasks to include; it is closely related to the Anticipatory stage, which was mentioned previously and in which the employee is unclear of what is in store for them in the position. After Socialization has started and continues during the time the new employee is incorporated into the company, which was covered in the previous stage of accommodations, is known as the In-socialization stage. Here, the company sets up a training programme for the incoming employee, and the induction takes place. When the employee has embraced their place within the organization's culture, the process is complete. The third stage of role management, known as post-socialization, occurs after the employee has been completely assimilated into the company.

To sustain staff happiness and the productivity that goes along with it, a high degree of integration must be maintained. All of the Socialization models previously discussed provide various approaches to carrying out the Socialization process, but they all have a critical flaw: they do not include a stage that maintains and enhances the employee's person-organization fit once the first process is complete.

This phase is crucial, particularly for outsourced staff who must preserve the cultures of both their business and the customer. Without continuous training to keep the outsourced employee current on customer expectations and company culture, a decrease over time is likely and may result in a decline in service quality and delivery.

The suggested framework must be adaptive to the FM sector and flexible enough to function for businesses of any size or industry with fluctuating finances. Its primary benefit will be the proper Socialization of outsourced personnel, but it will also include measures to maintain the level of person-organization fit in order to guarantee high standards of service quality and delivery. Additionally, it is essential for enhancing both internal and external personnel' knowledge and comprehension of ongoing professional and industry developments. Whether just one of the organization's non-core operations is leased out or all of them are, the structure should still operate. Outsourced workers may be brought on board and guided via the suggested framework shown in Figure. 2.

Clarity, enculturation, and improvement are the three stages of Socialization that correlate to the pre-socialization, in-socialization, and post-socialization phases. This paradigm, which was created as a result of earlier study, acknowledges the significance of each of the three Socialization phases. Clarity describes the first phase of integration. It relates to what the company ought to accomplish even before hiring staff members. No framework that has been previously evaluated fully captures the preparatory tools managers or Organisations must use when hiring new personnel.

This should be applied to both internal and external workers, but external employees are much more important since they do not work directly for the company. Before a contract or partnership is formalized, this stage represents the information sharing that should take place between the client Organisation and the service provider. Clarity in this sense refers to the information exchange and the agreed-upon norms or judgements that follow. Before entering into a contract, each party should have a clear grasp of their duties from this point.

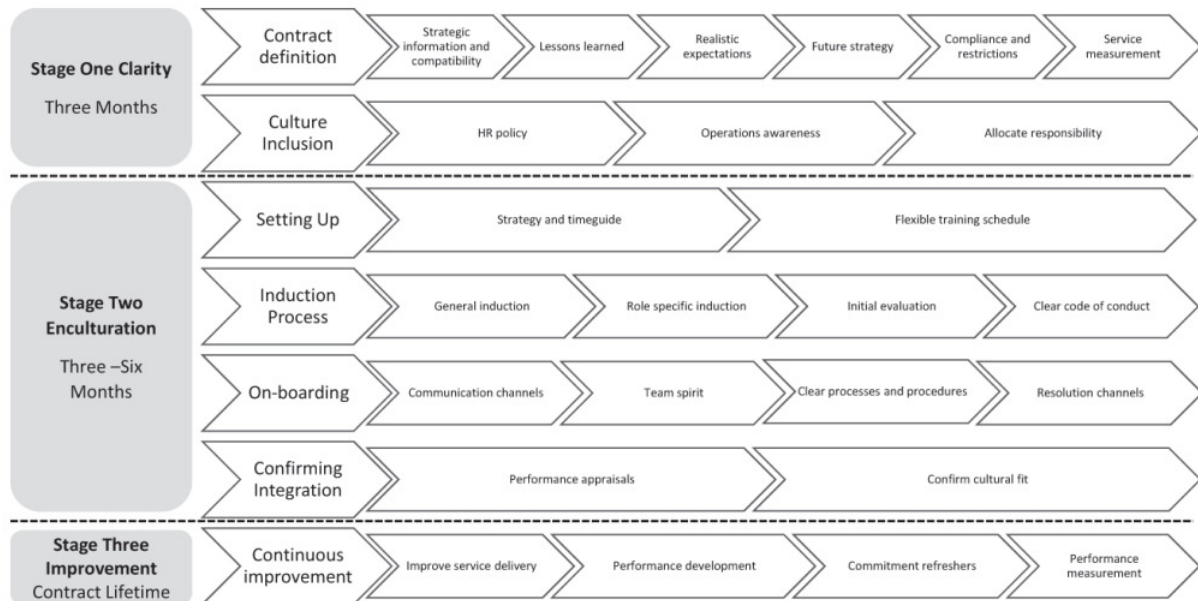


Figure 2: Reprising the FM cultural fit framework [Library Open].

Enculturation is the process through which a person absorbs a culture's traditional knowledge as well as its customs and values. This approach makes use of it to help the outsourced employee get familiar with the client organization's culture. It goes through what has to be done and how to execute it effectively. When discussing integration, companies often refer to this stage.

This framework describes how the process is set up, how it begins, how it is completed, and how an Organisation may verify success.

Depending on how much time the parties involved give it, it may be the longest step in the integration process. However, the advantages outweigh the disadvantages since outsourced workers are more likely to grow a strong feeling of responsibility for the company and its clients as they progressively become aware of their role in the process.

This step should result in the outsourced workers completely assimilating into the organisational culture. To maintain integration, the framework's enhancement step should be completed frequently. It is absent from the Socialization models covered in the preceding section and only appears in the framework that is being suggested.

The stage's purpose is to avoid a decline in service quality by periodically informing workers internal and external of the organization's objectives and client needs.

The stage's anticipated result is the outsourced staff's enhancement of the newly ingrained culture. Through the purposeful application of a framework like the one previously described, organisational Socialization may greatly enhance person-organization fit and result in workers that more suited to the organisational culture. Employers must be mindful of the kind of employee when applying Socialization theory to the workplace since various employee types outsourced, TUPE, zero-contract, full-time, part-time may need different Socialization procedures. It is critical to understand that socializing certain staff types may provide a number of obstacles, and that the framework will need to be adjusted appropriately. A smooth fit between workers and organisations is the main gap that the use of organisational Socialization may close. Employee happiness, productivity, and customer satisfaction all rise in workplaces where people may find a natural match. These outcomes may improve employee wellbeing at a time when employee wellness is becoming more widely recognized and can result in both concrete and intangible favorable emotions towards the company.

CONCLUSION

For organisations looking to integrate outsourced Facility Management (FM) workers, the Theory of Organisational Socialization provides insightful advice. The process of integrating outsourced personnel entails more than just handing over duties; rather, it requires a thorough Socialization strategy. Companies may guarantee a seamless transition for outsourced FM workers and promote their integration into the organisational culture by adhering to the theory's guiding principles.

Outsourced employees may better comprehend the company's principles, regulations, and procedures with the aid of structured onboarding procedures including orientation meetings, training programmes, and mentoring opportunities.

In addition to improving their knowledge and abilities, this promotes a feeling of loyalty and devotion to the company. Integrating outsourced FM employees requires effective communication and teamwork. Knowledge exchange, collaboration, and the development of connections between internal and external teams are made possible via open and transparent communication channels. Organisations may bridge the gap between internal and external workers by developing good communication, resulting in a united and cohesive workforce. It's crucial to understand, nevertheless, that there can be difficulties with the integration process. The need for continual assistance and advice, cultural differences, and resistance to change are a few of the problems that organisations may encounter. Organisations may reduce possible barriers and guarantee a successful integration by proactively addressing these issues, offering ongoing assistance, and building a positive and inclusive work atmosphere.

The Theory of Organisational Socialization, in general, offers a framework for integrating outsourced FM personnel into businesses. Organisations may maximise the value and potential of their outsourced employees by putting the theory's concepts into practise, which will encourage their effective integration and benefit the organisation as a whole.

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CHAPTER 12**INTERDISCIPLINARY FRAMEWORK: BUILDING FOR
WORKPLACE MANAGEMENT**

Dr. Yagnamurthy Raja, Assistant Professor,
Master in Business Administration, Presidency University, Bangalore, India,
Email Id-narasimharaja@presidencyuniversity.in

ABSTRACT:

Examining the numerous components that contribute to successful and efficient management of the workplace is necessary to determine the key components of an interdisciplinary framework for workplace management. The purpose of this abstract is to highlight the salient features of this multidisciplinary framework. The multidisciplinary framework for workplace management acknowledges the need for a multifaceted, comprehensive approach to managing the workplace. It considers a number of disciplines, including sustainability, design, technology, human resources, and facility management. Organisations may develop a complete framework that meets the many demands and difficulties of the workplace by incorporating these various viewpoints. An interdisciplinary approach to workplace management acknowledges the variety of elements that go into successful leadership. Facilities management, human resources, technology, design, sustainability, collaboration, communication, and change management may all be integrated into an organization's strategy to improve the working environment and enhance organisational success.

KEYWORDS:

Framework, Organisations, Management, Mapping, Workplace.

INTRODUCTION

Various workplace management difficulties have been handled by the 18 ideas described in this book. Some concentrated on elucidating the overall organisational systems, connections among system elements, and role of workplace management within such systems for example, the St. Gallen Management Model, Others have described the essential workplace management procedures and how they affect both the individuals working there and the business as a whole. However, despite the fact that they each have a different focus, all of these theories stress the importance of workplace management and organisational alignment in generating strategic value for the many stakeholders.

Several studies identify the stakeholders that are important to workplace management. Executives, staff members, collaborators, visitors, owners, and those in charge of building operations are the main stakeholder groups, according to Tagliaro. Aligning the workplace with the Organisation is necessary to meet the various interests that each of them has. In the context of organisational management, the subject of alignment is nothing new. For instance, it has been shown in organisational research that strategy, structure, incentives, procedures, and surroundings must all be in sync [1]–[3].

In the context of workplace management, alignment has also been researched from the perspectives of the corporate real estate portfolio and human resource management strategies and activities. Although this has so far seemed to be the main focus of such research, workplace alignment encompasses more than just matching the corporate real estate plan to

the company strategy at the strategic level. According to Becke, Organisations are intricate systems made up of relationships between the social and physical worlds. Steele used the phrase organisational space in 1973 to describe this theory and the idea that the physical surroundings have an impact on individuals within and outside of an Organisation. Organisational space was most recently described by Luhman and Cunliffe as constructed settings, as well as the items and social customs that occupy them. Some even contend that organisational space should be regarded as including more than just physical, mental, and social space. limitations inside Organisations.

The idea of organisational space, however, is seldom the main topic of built environment studies, and organisational space research to date often treats physical space as a supplemental aspect without assessing its consequences [4]–[6].

Similar to this, many corporate real estate and facilities managers still see the workplace in practise as nothing more than a physical location, without often paying enough attention to the social or mental components. Numerous elements that must be considered in workplace alignment are related to organisational systems and their components. These topics were covered in the earlier chapters of this book. Workplace management methods. Thus, a lot of theoretical information has been explored in order to promote the creation of organisational management procedures that are goal- and stakeholder-oriented and lead to better, more integrated, and aligned workplace management.

Workplaces, or organisational spaces, obviously need a comprehensive approach to all aspects. Therefore, it is necessary to compile scientific data on workplace administration from many ideas and domains. In an effort to bring some of these ideas and insights together, this book has been written. This chapter is the first step in putting those theories and insights together into a larger framework. Hopefully, this framework will serve as the foundation for the eventual development of a comprehensive workplace management theory [7], [8].

DISCUSSION

A similar definition of theory is given which states that it is a statement of concepts and their interrelationships that shows how/ or why a phenomenon occurs. The workplace naturally calls for an interdisciplinary approach to the identification of such notions since the workplace necessitates interdisciplinary knowledge on its own.

This method must be followed by a transdisciplinary strategy to verify interrelationships under various circumstances. By identifying the essential ideas in all of the theories discussed in this book, we are able to take the first step towards the creation of a new, expansive workplace management theory (see Table .1). Since these theories come from many academic fields, an interdisciplinary framework is inherently the outcome.

The book was originally intended to feature a different philosophy on performance-based structures that was more concerned with what a building must do than with how it should be built.

The theory was nevertheless included in the analysis for this framework even if the chapter was subsequently dropped. This is because the theory had previously been tested and is just as applicable to the field as the other theories in the book. To capture the core of each theory, the most significant tacit information from the theories has been made explicit to form the framework.

Following this, communalities between theories were found, and focal constructs were then developed and utilised to link the theories to the framework.

The results, a discussion of the significance of the findings for workplace research and practise, and the next steps required to completely build a comprehensive Workplace Management theory will be covered in the following part, which will also provide a more detailed explanation of the empirical technique [9], [10].

Table 1: Theories in the book presented in alphabetical order.

Alignment theory
Branding theory
CREM maturity model
Decision-making theories
Hospitality theory
Principal-agent theory
Radical innovation theory
Resilience theory
Service management theory
Socialization theory
Socio-technical transitions
St. Gallen Management Model
Strategy-as-Practice theory
Systems thinking
Toyota Production System
Usability theory
User-centred design thinking
Value Adding Management model

Concept Mapping Approach

Concept mapping, also known as group concept mapping to separate it from mind mapping approaches like Novakian idea mapping, was used to uncover the hidden pattern underlying the 19 hypotheses. In the first book in this series, a framework for employee-workplace alignment was developed using the idea mapping method. Both the aforementioned framework and the framework discussed in this chapter underwent the same development process. A machine-driven content analysis technique called concept mapping gathers and combines information to produce a framework of ideas, values, or views. After growing from planning and evaluating educational programmes, it is today used globally in a wide range of fields for tasks including text analysis, establishing priorities, and creating theoretical frameworks. A mixed-method technique called group idea mapping may be used to draw forth the collective wisdom of a group of people.

Statistical analysis, data visualization, card sorting, and brainstorming are all technically components of the idea mapping process (Figure .1). Rosas and Kane demonstrated that the technique produces good estimates of sorting reliability and internal representational validity. The data gathering had to be done online since the writers of the book chapters who wrote the queried group knowledge lived all over the globe. The research team, which was composed of the writers of this framework chapter, oversaw the idea mapping procedure. The process of idea mapping began with the establishment of units that might be used to refer to potential commonalities and discrepancies across the theories. According to Kane and Rosas, the goal was a maximum of around 100 units to maintain a balance between the method's dependability and the sorters' workload.

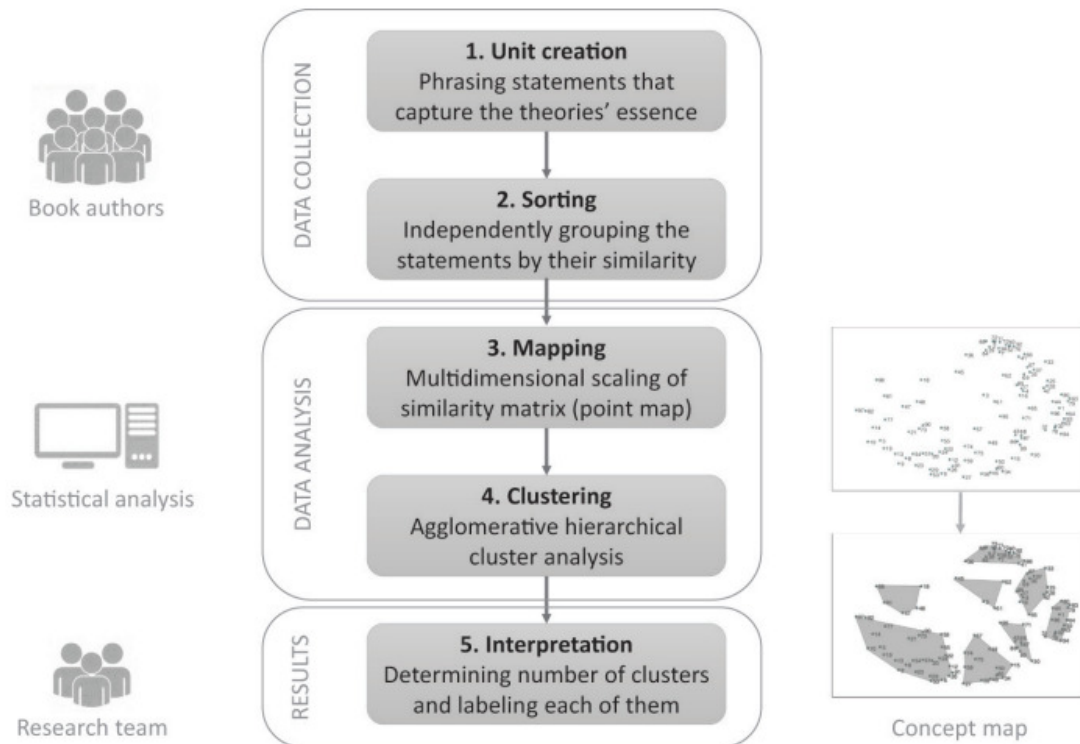


Figure 1: Representing the applied concept mapping procedure taking five steps, involving human judgement and computer analysis [Library Open].

Students to distil the core of their chapter's thesis into three to five assertions that satisfy the requirements listed below:

1. Outlining the fundamental assumptions or traits of the theory, encapsulating its fundamental phenomena.
2. Establishing theoretical claims rather than expressing conclusions drawn from the theory or from actual findings.
3. Being no longer than 15 words apiece.
4. Simple for writers from different fields to comprehend.
5. Understandable on its own, especially when sandwiched between assertions regarding other ideas.
6. Omitting the theory's name wherever feasible to lessen the likelihood that the statement sets will be recognized.

The major premises, assumptions, or values associated with the theory, or anything else crucial for the theory, might all be included in the statements, according to the authors' instructions for further clarification of the criteria.

The original assertions for each theory were made by the chapter writers. The claims were then clarified via discussion between the three researchers from the idea mapping research team and the writers of the chapter. Individual members of the study team evaluated the gathered statements for compliance with the aforementioned standards, then shared their findings. If necessary, sentences were rewritten to make them more understandable, and identical phrases within a theory were eliminated. Since one theory can naturally contain more facets than the other, there was no attempt to have an equal number of statements for each theory. The writers of the chapters were asked to approve any modifications to the original remarks. In the end, 88 units were produced and recorded in an Excel file, with each theory having between three and seven (average = 4.6) assertions.

Grouping the Statements

To provide the capacity to link the statements to their theory after the sorting, the statements were first randomly ordered by being sorted alphabetically. The numbered statements were

placed into UsabiliTEST's remote card sort tool, which is utilised by businesses and academic institutions all around the globe to assess usability and enhance information architecture. UsabiliTEST is a Texas-based corporation. An open-ended card sorting user test was developed using this online software, enabling participants to form their own groups based on their own rationale as opposed to being given categories in advance as in a closed sort. An open sort is the best method for gathering suggestions from users for logical content groups. By sending them an email with a link to the card sort test, which they were not allowed to share with anyone else, the writers were encouraged to take part in sorting the statements. They were told to categorise the cards according to what made the most sense to them, and that they could form as many groups as they wanted as long as they avoided creating a miscellaneous group like the category other or mixed. Before uploading their input to the database, they had the option to halt the sorting and resume it later. A reminder was given to anyone who had not yet submitted a contribution two weeks before the test closed. The method distributed the cards at random to each participant. While writers may still identify their own remarks and group them together, the other sorters' grouping lessened this impact. For accurate findings, at least 11 sorters are needed, and although more sorters are better, their additional value starts to decline beyond 20 (Rosas & Kane, 2012). Eight weeks after the invitation was extended, the card sort test was concluded, and 19 writers had taken part, with an average completion percentage of between 90% and 100% of the statements. In order to preserve the discriminant validity of the idea mapping, sorters would not have been included in the data analysis if their completion rate was lower than 20% or if they had made fewer than three groups. A poor completion rate led to the exclusion of one contribution. The included sorters produced 10.5 content groups on average, with an average of 8 statements per group.

Statistical Analysis and Concept Map Generation

First, an Excel file comprising all groups that the included sorters had generated, together with the names they had given them, was exported from the UsabiliTEST system. Three erroneous groups marked, for example, temporary group or cannot place these were removed from these data because they were not sorted according to statements' similarity in substance, and their inclusion would have tainted the study. R-CMap, a piece of open-source software written in the R programming language, was run on this cleaned file. The multidimensional data were transformed into a two-dimensional representation of the relative distances between the assertions in the first phase of the analysis, which required maps. A point map was created as a consequence, with each point standing in for a statement and their distance between them indicating how similar or dissimilar their contents were.

Agglomerative hierarchical clustering was used as the second step (Figure .1 step 4), which was followed by merging the two clusters at their smallest distance, as indicated by the nearest pair of points. The dendrogram was considered as indicating the appropriate range of cluster quantities to take into consideration as there was no target number of clusters to strive for. The length of the stems in this tree-like depiction of the Ward clustering process stood in for the separation between two merged clusters and corresponded to the within-cluster variation. Each member of the study team carefully examined the cluster analysis iterations, which ranged from 4 to 11 clusters, based on the dendrogram to determine whether the next merger was illogical or did not advance the themes' clarity. Nine clusters were preferred as a consequence of this.

Closing Words

The operational management of physical space was the sole aspect of managing office buildings at first. Then, offices were managed as a financial asset, and lastly, offices are now seen as having an impact on user behaviour. As a result, the workplace is now considered a valuable asset of an enterprise rather than just a cost center. However, many organisations are

still unaware of how workplace management should actually be carried out and undervalue the necessity of collaborating with other support functions (FM, HR, IT), of aligning with organisational strategies, and of recognizing the full potential of workplaces for organisations and their stakeholders. More benefits than only cost savings on energy or square meters might result from assisting workers and encouraging proper work practises. Behavioral and psychosocial outcomes are frequently overlooked in workplace management performance ratings, which ignores the fact that people's perceptions of their surroundings and the impressions they form of their workplaces and organisations have a significant impact on how well they perform at work for both 'regular' employees and those in executive positions).the organization's executive team. Therefore, maybe we should shift our conversation away from corporate real estate and facilities management and towards issues that are more human-centered.phrase for workplace management. It is hoped that the Transdisciplinary Workplace Research and Management book series will continue, and that subsequent publications will provide even more ideas that are used to enhance the subject of workplace management.

CONCLUSION

Organisations seeking to establish successful and efficient work environments must identify the key components of an interdisciplinary framework for workplace management. Organisations may create a comprehensive strategy that covers the different demands and problems of the workplace by acknowledging the multidimensional nature of workplace management and embracing multiple disciplines.The fundamental building blocks include human resources, design and ergonomics, technology and innovation, sustainability and environmental management, cooperation and communication, and change management. Each of these elements is essential to maintaining a smooth workplace operation and productivity.Organisations may develop a comprehensive framework that takes into account the technical, social, and physical components of the workplace by combining these building pieces. Organisations are able to optimise space utilisation, improve employee wellbeing, foster collaboration and creativity, and align workplace policies with organisational objectives thanks to this all-encompassing strategy.Additionally, an interdisciplinary framework promotes a culture of adaptation and ongoing progress. It enables organisations to keep up to date on new trends, technology, and workplace management best practises. Organisations may use the knowledge from diverse sectors to improve workplace results by adopting interdisciplinary cooperation and information sharing.The fundamental components of an interdisciplinary framework for workplace management have been identified, and this has given organisations the ability to design work environments that promote employee productivity, contentment, and overall organisational success. It provides organisations with a road map for navigating the intricacies of workplace management and helping them make choices that lead to successful workplace outcomes.

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