CHAPTER IV : KEY AREAS OF STUDY

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the key areas of the study i.e Job Satisfaction, Motivation and Communication Profile. Numerous literature and research on Job Satisfaction, Motivation and Communication Profile points out the existence and non-existence of significant relationship between all those contructs. However, very few articles are available on the comparison of Job Satisfaction, Motivation and Communication Profile between a group of people who have undergone an organizational development programme (like the TBC) and those who have not attended such a programme. Further, most of the Job Satisfaction and Motivation studies only report the findings of a particular group of people in an organization. For example Fein's (1983) research showed that workers' pay is related to their motivation, satisfaction to work and perfomance. Buchanan (1974) found a relationhip between longevity and satisfaction with the organization. Form and Gechwender (1962) found that older people are generally more satisfied with their jobs. In this regard, the present study attempts to provide a focused yet comparitive information on Job Satisfaction, Motivation and Communication Profile of a group of employees (TBC employees) against

another group of employees (Non-TBC employees) from a particular organization. It is hoped that, such a comparitive findings on Job Satisfaction, Motivation and Communication Profile would be of great significance to the SDG in particular and other organizations in general.

2. KEY AREAS OF STUDY

2.1 Motivation

Motivation is concerned with the strength and direction of behaviour in pursuit of organizational goal (Michael, A., 1993). Managers do not actually motivate employees, because motivation is internal of each individual. Motivation cannot be viewed directly but only the results are observable. Today's managers' major motivational task is to develop and maintain an environment in which employees will want to be productive and contributing members of the organization (Wayne, R. M and Robert, M. N., 1993).

Motivation is inferred from or defined by goal-directed behaviour. It is anchored in two basic concepts:-

a. the needs that operate within the individual

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b. the goals in the environment toward or away from which the individual moves.

In its simplest form, the process of motivation is initiated by the conscious or unconscious recognition of an unsatisfied need. A goal is then established, which, it is thought, will satisfy that need and a course of action is determined that will lead towards the attainment of the goal. But, as goals are satisfied, new needs emerge and the cycle continues.

Unlike Job Satisfaction, Motivation has a number of models and theories which will be discused at length in the subsequent sections. In order to review, the Job Satisfaction in relation to Motivation, a brief examination of methods of studying human behaviour and work motivation becomes highly essential too. Hence the study of Job Satisfaction and Motivation are often inter related.

In the following sections a number of motivation theories will be discussed. Generally motivation theories can be classified under two main headings which provide complementary approaches to understanding the process:-

i.   NEEDS THEORY - it is sometimes referred to as content theory because it focuses explicitly on the content of motivation in the form of the fundamental human needs. These needs create wants (generalized desires to achieve or obtain something) and goals (specific and defined requirements) which shape behaviour.

ii. PROCESS THEORY - it attempts to develop understanding of the psychological processes involved in motivation.

2.2 Job Satisfaction

Employee Job Satisfaction had always been an area of concern for employees and employers. This construct has been given various definition by different researchers. Vroom (1964) defined Job Satisfaction as the effective orientation of individuals towards work roles that they are presently occupying. Locke (1969) defined overall Job Satisfaction as "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating one's values". Hoy and Miskel (1982) defined Job Satisfaction as a present and post-oriented effective state of mind that results when the person evaluates his work role. James et. al (1986) have

conceptualised Job Satisfaction as an effective response of individuals which reflected in the evaluation that employees make all the individually salient aspects of their job and the organization for which they work.

Since the widely renowned Hawthorne studies of 1920s and 1930s, the working hypothesis of human relations movement in management has consistently proposed that the satisfied worker is productive worker too. Hence, a great deal of research has been done in the area of job satisfaction and factors influence/increase this satifaction. Further details on Job Satisfaction will be dicussed in the ensuing sections.

2.3   Communication

Communication has an important role in today's management system. It involves the sharing or exchanging of information or ideas between two or more individual verbally or non-verbally, (Asma Abdullah et al, 1992). The communication process is a glue that holds the management system and its components together and helps achieve a balance, (Brian, M. K., 1993). At times, communication is overlooked and underrated in terms of its impact and importance in organizations. Barnard (1989) instructed that "providing" a system of

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communication is one of three executive functions essential to the survival of an organization". Bennis and Nannus (1990) stated "providing meaning through communication is one of four key leadership strategies".

Nevertheless, we generally approach communication passively and reactively; we assume by lines in the organizational charts and by the arrows on our flow diagrams, that communication is truly linking the organization and our processes. We are often surprised when breakdown in communication occur. In many organisations, communication problems have become a cliche. It is often cited as the root cause of a problem with no effort directed at correcting the problem. What we need is a systematic way to understand communication in the management system, a way to assess its effectiveness and methods for continuous performance improvement.

Basically, communication start with the communicator wanting to express something; the person then decides how it is to be transmitted; the communication reaches recipients who form an impression of what they have

received and interpret it against their own background of attitudes and experiences. It is this type of communication (verbal) that will be explored in the present study.

A basic problem in communication is that the meaning which is actually received by one person may not be what the other intended to send. The communicator and the receiver are two people living in different worlds; any number of things can happen to distort the messages that pass between them. People's needs and experiences tend to colour what they see and hear. Messages they do not want to hear are repressed. Others are magnified, created out of their air or distorted. With effective communication among employees, those problems mentioned above, can be controlled and reduced at various levels of organizations (Michael, A., 1993).

3. LITERATURE REVIEW ON MOTIVATION

3.1 Maslow's Needs Hierarchy

Abraham Maslow (1943) was among the first to point out that people have various levels of needs which they seek to satisfy. The drive to satisfy their needs is what

motivates them and keeps them going. In this regard, Maslow outlined five levels of human needs as follows:-

Level I - Physical Needs

It includes basic bodily needs such as food, water, clothes, shelter, etc.

Level II - Security Needs

This need comprises protection from danger, accident, fire security, law and order.

Level III - Social Needs

It includes the need to associate, to belong, acceptance from fellows, love and affection.

Level IV - Self Esteem Needs

It involves status, recognition, appreciation, self-confidence, competence, skill, ability and productivity.

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Level V   - Self Realization

This need comprises realization of life goals, self-development, being creative and being a star.

Further, Levels I, II and III are grouped as Hygienic Factors and Levels IV and V are grouped as Motivator Factors.

Based on the above, Maslow argued that it is only when our basic needs are satisfied, we seek other levels of needs. Therefore, what motivates people depends on which station of life they are in. When an employee is comfortably fed and clothed, he ascends to the other levels of needs and searches for job satisfaction, social interaction, promotion and titles. The highly motivated employee would have his basic needs met and he is driven to attain objectives and accomplish things. A need which has been satisfied is no longer a source of motivation. Therefore, accoding to Maslow, only unsatisfied needs are prime sources of motivation. However, Maslow does not suggest that any need ever receives complete satisfaction but he suggests that there is some minimal degree of satisfaction required for lower level need before ascending to a higher level

need. Since, it is the unsatisfied needs which make their presence felt, it will be these which determine the goals with which an inividual is likely to be preoccupied and the goal-serving behaviors which he will employ. The significance of unsatisfied needs in the work context, therefore lies in the type of goal and goal-related behaviors which the need evokes and the relevance of these, in turn, for the organization's program. A reciprocity is implied individuals with certain needs make more effective workers than others for the organization, while the organization may take an active role in eliciting the behaviors it needs by providing opportunities for the expression of those need-based behaviors, which individuals would like to employ in their search for need satisfaction. Maslow's need hierarchy has an intuitive appeal and has been very influential. However, it has not been verified by empirical research and it has been critized for its apparent rigidity - different people may have different priorities and it is difficult to accept that people's need progress steadily up the hierarchy. In fact, Maslow himself expressed doubts about the validity of a strictly ordered hierarchy.

3.2 Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

Herzberg et al., (1959) is best known in behavioral science circles for his "motivation-hygiene theory. Businessmen usually associate his name with the "satisfiers and dissatisfiers" concepts, which are components of the motivation-hygiene theory.

The motivation-hygiene theory grew out of research on the job attitudes (or job opinions) of 200 accountants and engineers, who were interviewed individually by Herzberg and his colleagues.

Analysis of the responses showed that the subjects most often mentioned job experiences or factors related to a good feeling about the job in terms of the job content. These were catergorized as content factors. Factors or experiences mentioned in connection with a bad feeling about the job were most often related to the surrounding or peripheral aspects of the job, and they were categorized as context factors.

Herzberg classified the job content factors as satisfiers, or those factors giving personal satisfaction. The context factors were called dissatisfiers.

The most significant finding was that rarely were the
same kinds of factors named in connection with both good
and bad work experiences; in fact, they appeared to be
separate and distinct kinds of experiences. Herzberg
found, for example, that the opposite of satisfaction on
the job is not dissatisfaction; instead it is no
satisfaction. Conversely,the opposite of dissatisfaction
is no dissatisfaction, rather it is satisfaction.
Because something doesn't cause dissatisfaction, it
doesn't follow that it causes satisfaction.
Satisfaction and dissatisfaction are discrete feelings,
not polar extremes on a continum. Because his model
postulates two separate kinds of variables - one set of
factors that satisfy, and a second set of factors that
dissatisfy-it is often called the "Herzberg Two-Factor"
Theory.

Satisfiers and Dissatisfiers

Herzberg analyzed and classified the job content factors
or satisfying experiences as follows:

Satisfiers

- o Achievement
- o Recognition
- o Work itself
- o Responsibility
- o Advancement
- o Growth

He categorized the context or environmental factors causing dissatisfaction to include:

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Dissatisfiers

- o Company policy and administration
- o Supervision
- o Working conditions
- o Interpersonal relations (with superiors, subordinates and peers)
- o Salary
- o Status
- o Job security
- o Personal life

Herzberg called the dissatisfiers hygiene factors, borrowing the medical and paramedical definition of hygiene as "preventive and environmental." They are also sometimes called as "maintenance" factors.

The satisfiers, which are all related to the job itself, were called motivators, since other findings in the studies suggest that they are effective in motivating the employee to greater performance and productivity. Even more significant in Herzberg's model of worker motivation is the contention that the satisfiers and dissatisfiers are separate, distinct, discrete factors, rather than opposite poles of the same factor. As he expresses it, the fact that something doesn't dissatisfy doesn't mean that it satisfies.

He says that most of industry's attempts to motivate workers or to establish a climate in which workers will be self-motivated, have taken the form of stressing hygiene factors while ignoring the motivators. As an example, he cites so-called fringe benefits. People are dissatisfied if fringe benefits are missing or inadequate, says Herzberg, but their existence is worth nothing in terms of getting real motivation from people. So, fringe benefits are relegated to the status of dissatisfiers, since their importance is felt only in their absence.

Herzberg's research given rise to his contention that the focus of motivational attempts should now be on the self-fulfiling, achievement-motivated self-actualizing needs of employees. The continuing theme of his prescription for a motivated work force is job enrichment. He is careful to point out that job enrichment means actually increasing the challenging content of the job that will cause the employee to grow both in skill and in his feeling of accomplishment.

Consequently, it is evident that motivators combine to contribute more to job satisfaction than to job dissatisfaction. Hygienes combine to contribute more to the elimination of job dissatisfaction than to job satisfaction.

3.3 Locke and Latham's Goal Theory

Goal theory, as developed by Locke and Latham (1960s) states that motivation and performance are higher when individuals are set specific goals, when goals are difficult but accepted and when there is feedback on performance. The basic fundamental of the theory is that achievement of a goal by an organization constitutes the primary motivation forces behind work

behaviour. According to them, there are two types of goals ie. general goals and spesific goals. Spesific goals are superior to general goals. Difficult goals, when accepted (as stated above) lead to greater effort than general goals. The participation of employees in goal setting as opposed to goal setting by the superiors alone, leads to employee satisfaction, although it may not increase employee performance. The above theory also proposes that, a goal compare their present capacity to perform with that required to succeed at the goal.

3.4 Vroom's Expectancy Theory

The concept of expectancy was originally developed in the valency - instrumentality - expectancy (VIE) theory which was formulated by Vroom (1964). Valency stands for value, instrumentality is the belief that if we do one thing it will lead to another, and expectancy is the probability that action or effort will lead to an outcome. This concept of expectancy was defined in more detail by Vroom.

Whenever an individual chooses between alternatives which involve uncertain outcomes, it seems clear that his behaviour is affected not only by his preferences

among these outcomes but also by the degree to which he believes these outcomes to be possible. An expectancy is defined as a momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome. Expectancies may be described in terms of their strength. Maximal strength is indicated by subjective certainty that the act will be followed by the outcome, while minimal (or zero) strength is indicated by subjective certainty that the act will not be followed by the outcome.

The strength of expectations may be based on past experiences (reinforcement), but individuals are frequently presented with new situations - a change in job, payment system, or working conditions imposed by management - where past experience is an inadequate guide to the implications of the change. In these circumstances, motivation may be reduced.

Motivation is only likely when a clearly perceived and usable relationship exists between performance and outcome; and the outcome is seen as a means of satisfying needs. This explains why extrinsic motivation - for example, an incentive or bonus scheme - works only if the link between effort and reward is clear and the value of the reward is worth the effort.

It also explains why intrinsic motivation arising from the work itself can be more powerful than extrinsic motivation; intrinsic motivation outcomes are more under the control of the individual, who can place greater reliance on his past experiences to indicate the extent to which positive and advantageous results are likely to be obtained by his or her behaviour.

3.5 Key Motivating Factors and Implications of Motivation Theory

The overriding consideration in motivation is that the members of an organization contribute to the organization in return for the inducements that the organization offers them. The task of the organization is to analyse its own circumstances and the particular needs and requirements of its employees to determine the mix of extrinsic and intrinsic motivating factors needed to attract and retain good-quality staff and to obtain consistently high standards of performance from them.

Thus the individual's main concern is to assess the benefits that will accrue to him from doing what the organization wants him to do, and the penalities that may result from a failure to act as the organization requires. The organization has to make assumptions

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about what people want in deciding how they should be motivated. This is the problem of motivation. Many such assumptions are invalid because they are based on generalizations and an inadequate understanding of the process of motivation. Even if attitudes surveys are used to assess needs and wants, they can easily produce misleading results because of the difficulties of administration and interpretation. Finally, there is the problem that all managers meet - it is easy to observe behaviour; it is much more difficult to interpret and attach reasons for that behaviour when it has been motivated by a set of hidden needs and goals.

Motivation theory helps us to understand why people behave in the way they do and what we can do about it. There are, however, no easy answers. Motivation is a complex process. The relationship between satisfaction and performance is not as clear as some people would have us believe. Motivation can be extrinsic or intrinsic but the relative importance of these to individuals depends on their personality and expectations, and the latter are not always predictable. Motivation theory does not, therefore, provide us with all the answers. But it does give us a set of analytical tools which we can use to assess the situation and consider what actions are most likely to be appropriate in the circumstances.

LITERATURE REVIEW ON JOB SATISFACTION

Employee's satisfaction is one of the most controversial areas of behavioural research. A general assumption is that satisfied individuals like their job more than they dislike them (Glen B., 1994). However various research may agree or disagree with the above statement. The components which provide this overall feeling of satisfaction represent one of the most hotly debated fields of organizational behaviour. Therefore it is evident that one of the core areas of job satisfaction is indeed, motivation. Hence, the close inter-relationship and importance of motivation in job satisfaction studies. As the frontiers of job satisfaction are explored through motivational theories (which has already been discussed in Section 3), the ensuing sections will discuss other areas of job satisfaction.

4.1 Facets of Job Satisfaction

Locke (1976), described a job is made of various inter-relationship of tasks, roles, responsibilities, interactions, incentives and rewards.

Among the important facets of a job are as follows:-

* Work — intrinsic interest, opportunity for learning, difficulty, amount of work, chances for success, importance.

* Pay — amount of pay, fairness or equity, increment.

* Promotions — opportunities for promotion, fairness, basis for promotion, promotional policy.

* Recognition — praise for accomplishment, credit for work done.

* Fringe Benefits — pension, medical, annual leave, paid vacations, insurance.

*	Working Condition	–	hours, breaks, equipment, ventilation, location, physical layout.
*	Supervision	–	supervisory style and influence, technical supervision, human relations, administrative skill, communication.
*	Co-workers	–	competence, helpfulness, friendliness, team spirit.

Locke (1964) found that certain facets, ie. work, supervision, co-workers, pay and promotion were highly relevant to overall job satisfaction. It is these facets that are considered for the present study.

4.2 Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

Among the factors that affect job satisfaction are:-

⋏   The intrinsic motivating factors. These relate to job content, especially variety, challenge, responsibility, control over work methods, control over work pace, the opportunity to use skills and abilities and influence in decision-making.

⋏   The extrinsic factors. These relate to pay and the context in which the work is carried out.

⋏   The quality of supervision. The Hawthorne studies resulted in the claim that supervision is the most important determinant of worker attitudes. A number of subsequent studies have suggested that the display of consideration of supervisors has increased employee satisfaction and resulted in lower labour turnover, less absenteeism and fewer grievances. But they have not shown that there is a direct relationship between consideration, satisfaction and productivity. Herzberg et. al., (1959) however, claimed that the importance of supervision has been overrated and it seems clear that considerate

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supervision is only one out of many factors that can affect attitudes and satisfaction.

∗ (Mayo, 1933) believed that a man's desire to be continuously associated in work with his fellows is a strong, if not the strongest, human characteristic. And it is true that social interaction can be highly rewarding to most people, and that experiences with one's fellow workers can be a major satisfaction at work. Research has shown that larger groups where less interaction is possible have lower cohesiveness or morale than smaller groups. The social isolation which exists on assembly lines is a known cause of dissatisfaction.

∗ Success or failure. Success obviously creates satisfaction, especially if it enables individuals to prove themselves that they are using their skills effectively and it is equally obvious that the reverse is true of failure.

4.3 Job Satisfaction and Performance

It is commonly held and apparently not unreasonable belief that an increase in job satisfaction results in

improved performance. The whole human relations movement was based on the belief that productivity could be increased by making workers more satisfied. A review of the extensive literature on this subject by Brayfield and Crockett (1955) concluded that there was little evidence or appreciable relationship between employee attitudes and the effectiveness of their performance. An updated version of their analysis by Vroom (1964) covered 20 studies, in each of which one or more measures of job satisfaction or employee attitudes was correlated with one or more criteria of performance. The median correlation of all these studies was 0.14, which is not high enough to suggest any marked relationship between satisfaction and performance. Other observations confirm the results of this analysis. We are constantly coming across people who are perfectly content to do the minimum that will keep them in employment.

It has been suggested that it is not increases in satisfaction that produce improved performance but improved performance that increase satisfaction. This is certainly true in the sense that individuals are motivated to reach certain goals and will be satisfied

if they achieve those goals through improved performance. But individal goals can be satisfied in other ways besides working harder or better. Improved performance is not a necessary or the only factor in improving satisfaction. Increases in satisfaction may therefore reduce staff turnover, absenteeism, and grievances, but they do not necessarily result in increase in productivity. Satisfaction and performance are often related, but the precise effect on each other depends upon the working situation and the people in it. Motivation is not simply a matter of increasing job satisfaction. The common-sense view that people are motivated only when they have something to strive for accords with Maslow's suggestion that only an unsatisfied need motivates behaviour. A measure of dissatisfaction and a desire for more achievement or power may be the best motivator for some people. But it will all depend on the people concerned and the environment in which they are working.

4.4 Job Satisfaction Studies in Work Organizations

A wide range of research studies on job satisfaction are often accompanied by motivation, productivity, organizational climate, absenteeism, organizational

commitment and other constructs. Such findings provide useful information to business and organizational management. As most of the job satisfaction exploration and motivational theories were applied in work organizations, a number of recent studies are discussed in the subsequent sections.

Manze (1984) conducted a study with data processing managers to explore the existing problem of motivating personnel towards improved efficiency and job satisfaction. The study showed that, positive factors (motivators) that deal with job satisfaction are crucial for improving efficiency. Hence, Manze concluded that employees will be satisfied with a job if the job contains such motivators, ie. recognition, work content, achievement, responsibility, advancement and growth.

June M L Poon and Raja Azimah Ainuddin (1987) indicated significant relationship between several organizational climate dimensions and job satisfaction. These climatic elements are, an open, supportive and friendly work atmosphere, high performance standards, performance-based reward systems and well defined jobs and policies.

Further, while updating the literature on job satisfaction, Fein (1983) confirmed the limited causal relationship between worker satisfaction and work output. He lamented that, "empirical support for the satisfaction-performance relation does not approximate the degree to which this relation has been exposed in theories of organizational design".

Another controversial area is the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism. The literature on this relationship contains such unsystematic reviews that it is surprising, they provide different interpretation of the relationship between these two variables. For example, Muchinsky (1977) concluded that a relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism does exist, Nicholson et al., (1976) concluded that such a relationship does not exist; and Steers and Rhodes (1978) suggested that undiscovered moderator variables may cause the mixed findings.

James et al., (1986) conducted a study on the relationship between job satisfaction and organizaional commitment. Their study did not indicate that satisfaction is a determinant of commitment (a commonly held position) or that commitment is a determinant of satisfaction. Hence, they proposed further research in this area.

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Although sex differences in job satisfaction have received attention in the recent literature, research findings are somewhat unclear. For example, some studies report that women are more satisfied with pay (Ronan and Organt, 1973; Sauser and York, 1978), but others have found no sex differences in any Job Description Index scales (Bush and Bush, 1978) or on a single measure of overall job satisfaction (Fry and Greenfield, 1980). However, Philip et al., (1983) study supported that sex differences in job satisfaction revolve around organizational rewards and that these differences were moderated by occupational level. Their studies showed that upper level men and lower level women were more satisfied with their pay and promotion.

A study by Pearce (1983) on job attitude and motivation between volunteers and paid employees showed that volunteers were frequently motivated to work for rewards with greater job satisfaction than paid workers.

Balazadeh (1982) conducted a study on the relationship of age and job satisfaction for men and women. He found that, age was very important factor of job satisfaction among male and female employees.

Hochstedler and Dunnings (1983) surveyed job satisfaction among police officers and found that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and communication. However this relationship was not statistically significant. The study also pointed out that communication with immediate supervisors are most important too.

A study by Chan Yoke Kin (1992) on job satisfaction among the employees of large textile companies revealed that employees at lower job grades were less satisfied than employees at higher job grades.

Further, Lee Teck Hock (1994) found no satistical significance to correlate job satisfaction to motivators of work among employees at Tenaga Nasional Berhad.

LITERATURE REVIEW ON COMMUNICATION

5.1 Importance of Communication

Organizations function by means of the collective action of people, yet each individual is capable of taking independent action which may not be in line with policy or instructions, or may not be reported properly to other people who ought to know about it. Good communication is required to achieve coordinated results.

Organizations are subject to the influence of continuous change which affects the work employees do, their well-being and their security. Change can be managed only by ensuring that the reasons for and implications of change are communicated to those affected in terms they can understand and accept.

Individuals are motivated by the extrinsic reward system and the instrinsic rewards that come from the work itself. But the degree to which they are motivated depends upon the amount of responsibility and scope for achievement provided by their job, and upon their expectations that the rewards they will get will be the ones they want and will follow from the efforts they

make. Feelings about work and the associated rewards depend very much on the effectiveness of communication from their boss and within the company.

Above all, good two-way communication are required in order that management can keep employees informed of the policies and plans that affect them and employees can react promptly with their views about management's proposals and actions. Change cannot be managed properly without an understanding of the feelings of those affected by it, and an efficient system of communication is needed to understand and influence these feelings.

The extent to which good communications create satisfactory relationships, rather than simply reducing unsatisfactory relationships, can be exaggerated. A feature of management practices during this century is the way in which different management theories become fashionable or influential for a while and then decline in favour. Among these has been the 'good communication theory of management. This approach to dealing with management problems is based upon the following assumptions:

* The needs and aims of both employees and management are, in the long run, the same in any organization. Managers' and employees'ideas and objectives can all be fitted together to form a single conceptual framework.

* Any differences in opinion between management and employees are due to misunderstangings that have arisen because communication are not good enough.

* The solution to industrial strife is to improve communication.

The existence of different loyalities and points of view in an organization, however, does not mean that communication is unimportant. If anything, the need for a good comunication system becomes even greater when differences and conflict exist. But it can only aleviate those differences and pave the way to better cooperation. It cannot solve them.

5.2 Barriers to Communication

So many barriers exist to good communication which is the constant cry in many organizations. Some of the main communication barriers are as follows:-

* Hearing What We Expect To Hear

What we hear to understand when someone speaks to us is largely based on our own experience and background. Instead of hearing what people tell us, we hear what our minds tell us they have said. We all tend to have perconceived ideas of what people mean: when we hear something new we tend to identify with something similar that we have experienced in the past. When people receive a communication which is consistent with their own beliefs, they accept it as valid, seek additional information and remember accurately what they heard.

* Perceptions About The Communicator

Not only do receivers evaluate what they hear in terms of their own background, but they also take the sender into account. Experience or prejudice may ascribe non-existent motives to the communicator.

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Some people see every collective action as a conspiracy. Others look behind the message to read into it all sorts of motives different from those apparent on the surface. It is extremely difficult for us to separate what we hear from our feelings about the person who says it.

* Influence Of Reference Group

The group with which we identify ie. the reference group, influences our attitudes and feelings. 'Management' and 'the union' as well as our family, our ethnic background, our political party and our religious beliefs (if any) constitute a reference group and colour our reactions to information. What each group 'hears' depends on its own interests. Shared experiences and common frames of reference have much more influence than exhortations from management in which people with whom employees feel they have nothing in common hand on messages containing information which conflicts with what they already believe.

* Words Mean Different Things To Different People

This is the problem of semantics. As Strauss and Dayles put it: 'Essentially language is a method of using symbols to represent facts and feelings.' Strictly speaking we can't convey meaning, all we can do is, convey words. And yet, the same words may suggest quite different meanings for different people. Words may have symbolic meanings for some people, with the result that they convey a quite different impression from the one intended. 'Profits', to management, are a prerequisite for survival and growth: to employees, they represent ill-gotten gains from keeping down pay or overpricing. In short, do not assume that something which has a certain meaning to you will convey the same meaning to someone else.

* Emotional Context

Our emotions colour our ability to convey or to receive the true message. When we are insecure or worried, what we hear and see seems more threatening than when we are secured and at pace with the world. When we are angry or depressed, we tend to reject out of hand what might otherwise seem like reasonable

requests or good ideas. During arguments, many things can be said which are not understood or are badly distorted.

5.3 Overcoming Barriers to Communication

The overall implication of this formidable collection of barriers is that no one should assume that every message sent will be received in the form intended. But communication can be improved, even if perfect understanding between people is impossible. Among the means to overcome barriers to communication are:-

⋏ Adjusting To The World Of The Receiver

When we communicate, the tendency is to adjust to ourself. We have the need to say something and to say it in a particular way. But to get the message across, we have to adjust to the receivers. This means thinking ahead and trying to work out how they will perceive the message - understanding their needs and potential reactions. It also means using feedback and reinforcement techniques. Overcoming barriers requires empathy ie. the ability to put oneself in someone else's shoes and understand how he or she is likely to hear and interpret the message.

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* Using Feedback

Feedback is the process of obtaining information on performance in order to take corrective action where this is necessary. In communication, feedback means ensuring that communicators get a message back from the receiver which tells them how much has been understood. This is why face-to-face communication is so much more effective than the written word, as long as the communication is truly 'two-way'; in other words, the receivers are given adequate opportunity to respond and react.

* Using Reinforcement

The message may have to be presented in a number of different ways to get it across. Good speakers know that, if they can get more than three important ideas across in a 30-minute talk, they are lucky, and that they must repeat each idea at least three times in different ways to ensure that the message has been received and understood. In giving complicated directions, it is wise to repeat them several times, perhaps in different ways, to guarantee successful transmission.

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* Using Face-To-Face Communication

Face-to-face communication is more effective than the written word for the reasons already mentioned. First, the sender is able to experience direct feedback from the receiver on what the latter is or is not hearing. The way in which the message is presented can then be adjusted by being expressed in different terms or reinforced. If necessary, the message itself can be changed in the light of immediate reactions. Secondly, most people express themselves more clearly and directly when they use the spoken rather than the written word. Thirdly, a spoken message can be delivered in a much more human and understanding way - this helps to get over prejudices against the speaker. It also means that criticisms can be expressed in a more constructive manner. A written reproof seems much more harsh and condemnatory than one delivered orally.

* Using Different Channels Of Communication

Some communication have to be in writing to get the message across promptly and without any danger of variations in the way in which it is delivered. But,

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wherever possible, written communication should be supplemented by the spoken word. Conversely, an oral briefing should be reinforced by a written confirmation.

5.4 Communication Studies In Work Organizations

Effective communication has long been credited as a prime factor in the attainment of high levels of organizational success (Howard, 1974). Organization theorists, communication researchers and practising managers have frequently discussed its critical role and basic elements. However, the applied behavioural science of organizational communication is seldom recognized as a major management activity.

A review of empirical investigations through 1969, reported that organizations suffered wide-spread ineffectiveness in downward communication, an urgent need to encourage upward communication and the greatest deficiency of all in the area of horizontal communication (Thompkins, 1967). One investigator concluded a study of manufacturing organizations with the statement that, there existed a general lack of

awareness that communication was a problem to be studied (Nilsen, 1953). Therefore, it is important to develop and continuously improve an effective communication system throughout the organization.

Organizational communication is concerned with most of the specialized disciplines related to human communication. ie. interpersonal communication, small-group communication, information systems, mass communication and non verbal communication. It is the interpersonal and small - group communication that are explored in the present study.

Several scholars have proposed that individuals actively interpret and organize their experiences (Susan, 1986) and map the organizational environments they encounter (Bogart, 1980). All these activities - exploring, interpreting, mapping and organizing, fall within the general behavioural category of adoptation. In organizations, individuals adopt by tailoring their behaviours to fit the demands of a particular environment. The tailoring is based on information they are given or obtain from the environment. This information is commonly called feedback (Susan, 1986). A given piece of information/feedback can fulfill

different functions. It can serve as a reward and thus motivate performance and it can serve as a cue useful in regulating behaviour appropriately (Payne and Hauty, 1955).

Ashford and Cummings (1983), defined feedback - seeking as conscious devotion of effort towards determining the correctness and adequacy of behaviors for attaining valued end states. They said that, individuals may monitor an environment for feedback by observing the situation or may directly inquire/ask for information as to how others perceive and evaluate their behaviour. With such information, individuals can correct their behaviour in attaining their organizational goals.

Bavelas (1948), laid the foundation for experimental work in the area of communication network, with a paper describing the mathematical aspects of group structures. A multitude of communication network studies have demonstrated that differences in efficiency, satisfaction, leadership emergence and perception and organizational development are produced by centralized against decentralized communication network (William and John, 1976). Reviews of the communication network

studies have suggested that effects of personality in communication need further exploration (Cohen, 1967).

Recently, Schuler (1979) took a major step forward in the area of research on organisational communication with his role-perception transaction-process model of organization communication, which describes the relationship among communication, role perceptions, satisfaction and performance. Measuring interpersonal communication in organizations is difficult because of the nature of communication. Communication is a process, it is transactional and its relationship to other organizational variables may be characterized by reciporal causality (Schuler, 1979).

Directionality and formality of information are the dimensions of communication most often measured in the organizational communication literature (Roberts and O'Reily, 1974). Researchers have paid little attention to the content of communication or to the communication behaviour of employees of organizations, focusing instead on the structure of communication and on attitudianl outcomes, such as satisfaction. Muchinsky (1977) went on to note that all upward communicators is

not the same; upward communication varies in frequency as a function of the purpose or content of the communication.

Further Jublin's (1979) review of literature on superior - subordinate communication shows that there has been no lack of attention between leaders and subordinates. Much of such research focussed on behaviour of effective superior rather than upon communication as the observable behaviour of leadership. Meanwhile, Larry and Brian (1985) found that, the relationship between five scales of behaviour and two leadership dimensions, strongly emphasise the need to focus attention on leaders' communication and their relational massages.

The above review clearly shows the importance of effective organizational communication (be it personal or non personal) that links everyone in a working place.