CHAPTER – TWO

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The present study has focused on number of concepts and variables related to the study. An analysis of these concepts, variables and theories related to the variables was made in order to understand the problem with a broader prospective. The present chapter gives a detailed description of the analysis of the concept related to the present study namely, “Identification and Development of Competencies Related to Business Studies at Plus Two Level” and also the theoretical perspective related to the different variables of the study namely, Leadership, Communication, Constructivism and Social constructivism. The details related to these aspects are presented under captions, Theories of leadership, Theories of communication, Competency, Leadership and Communication Competencies, and Application of the idea of constructivism and Social constructivism in the present study.

2.0.0 INTRODUCTION

The present study has focused on fostering specific Business Competencies namely Leadership and Communication among students at the plus two level. A Specially Designed Instructional package was developed using a Constructive Approach to foster these Competencies. Hence there was a need to have a deep understanding of the concepts and variables involved in the study. Efforts were made to make a detailed analysis of the major concepts namely Competencies, Leadership Competencies and Communication Competencies, Constructivism and
Social constructivism. The present chapter details the conceptual frame and theoretical work of the present study.

2.1.0 Leadership

Leadership, and the study of this phenomenon, has roots in the beginning of civilization. Our work, work environment, worker motivations, leaders, managers, leadership style, and a myriad of other work-related variables have been studied for almost two centuries. Leadership studies are a multidisciplinary academic field of study that focuses on leadership in organizational contexts and in human life. Leadership studies has origins in the social sciences (e.g., sociology, anthropology, psychology), in humanities (e.g., history and philosophy), as well as in professional and applied fields of study (e.g., management and education). The field of leadership studies is closely linked to the field of organizational studies.

As an academic area of inquiry, the study of leadership has been of interest to scholars from a wide variety of disciplinary backgrounds. Today, there are numerous academic programs related to the study of leadership. Leadership degree programmes generally relate to: aspects of leadership, leadership studies, and organizational leadership (although there are a number of leadership-oriented concentrations in other academic areas).

2.1.1 Concept of Leadership

Leadership is the kind of responsibility, which aims at achieving particular ends, by utilizing available resources (human and material), to make organization cohesive and coherent. Researchers have proposed different styles of leadership; but there is no particular style of leadership which can be said universal as “Leadership is one of the most observed, yet least understood phenomena on earth” (Burns. J.M., 1978).

There are different views of leadership in this regards. According to the traditional view, there are certain “traits” and characteristic of leaders which distinguish leaders from non-leaders. Perhaps, recent research has shifted form traditional trait or personality theory to the situation theory, which says that the
kind of situation in which leadership is exercised determine the leadership skills 
and characteristics; as for instance crisis situation, (it may be financial or security).

Leaders are not born, but made. Honorable leaders give mush importance 
to, what they are, what they know and what they do for an organization. To be 
trustworthy is important for all kinds of organized human groups, whether these 
are military, religion, nation, countries, or states, business and other kinds of 
organizations.

Although, basic guide lines and concepts of leadership, proposed by 
different researchers and scholar, so far, are equally important for the non-profit 
organizations as well. However, the research on leadership in non-profit 
or ganizations, specifically, is scarce, even though, these organizations play a 
crucial role in the betterment of society and economy as well. Given to their 
different nature and pre conditions exist in non-profit organizations, some of the 
leadership patterns may vary from that of for-profit organizations. While the 
leadership in non-profit organizations has evolved as formerly, this kind of 
or ganization were relatively small, and local, and most leaders lacked the graduate 
credentials. Leadership has forced to evolve, as organizations grow bigger and 
more complex in terms of finance and functions.

The skills considered important for a leader today include, vision and 
strategic planning, a desire to innovate, a willingness to take considered risks, the 
ability to create and sustain growth, the ability to delegate and collaborate, 
managing time efficiently, excellent communication skills, Risk management, 
negotiating with others, building team and crisis intervention skills. According to a 
research study conducted by Peter and Linnea, at Umea School of Business, 
leadership in successful non-profit organizations is more supporting and places 
emphasis on team collaboration and the leaders are seen as team builders.

The good leader leads the organization to progression and develops it, 
making the profit, because the profit has to be reinvested to further developing of 
the organization.
2.1.2. History of Leadership as a Field of Study

The study of leadership can be dated back to Plato, Sun Tzu and Machiavelli; however, leadership has only become the focus of contemporary academic studies in the last 60 years and particularly more so in the last two decades. Contemporary leadership scholars and researchers have often been questioned about the nature of their work, and its place within the academy, but much of the confusion surrounding leadership as a field of study may be attributed to a lack of understanding regarding transdisciplinary, inter and multi-disciplinary academic fields of study in general.

The discipline is filled with definitions, theories, styles, functions, competencies, and historical examples of successful and diverse leaders. Collectively, the research findings on leadership provide a far more sophisticated and complex view of the phenomenon than most of the simplistic views presented in the popular press. Some of the earliest studies on leadership include:

**The Ohio State Leadership Studies** which began in the 1940s and focused on how leaders could satisfy common group needs. The findings indicated that the two most important dimensions in leadership included: "initiating structure", and "consideration". These characteristics could be either high or low and were independent of one another. The research was based on questionnaires to leaders and subordinates. These questionnaires are known as the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire and the Supervisor Behavior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ).

**The Michigan Leadership Studies** which began in the 1950s and indicated that leaders could be classified as either "employee centered," or "job centered." These studies identified three critical characteristics of effective leaders: task oriented behavior, relationship-oriented behavior, and participative leadership.

**McGregor's Theory X & Theory Y** developed by Douglas McGregor in the 1960s at MIT Sloan School of Management. These theories described employee motivation in the workforce. Both theories begin with the premise that the role of
management is to assemble the factors of production, including people, for the
economic benefit of the firm. Beyond this point, the two theories of management
diverge.

Blake & Mouton Managerial Grid (1964)-updated in 1991 to the Blake &
McCanse Leadership Grid developed the orientations of "task orientation" and
"people orientation" in leader behavior. They developed the leadership grid which
focused on concern for results (on the one axis) and concern for people (on the
other axis).

In addition to these studies, leadership has been examined from an
academic perspective through several theoretical lenses.

- **Trait & Behavioral theories of Leadership**: Attempt to describe the types of
behavior and personality tendencies associated with effective leadership.

- **Situational & Contingency theories of Leadership**: Incorporate
environmental and situational considerations into leader behavior.

- **Functional Leadership theory**: Suggests that a leader’s primary
responsibility is to see that whatever is necessary in relation to group needs is
taken care of.

- **Information-Processing Leadership theory**: Focuses on the role of social
perception in identifying leadership abilities.

- **Self Leadership theory**: Although behaviourally oriented, the essence of self
leadership theory is that behaviours are directed toward the attainment of
super-ordinate goals.

- **Transactional & Transformational theories of Leadership**: The
transactional leader focuses on managerial reward and contingent valuation.
The transformational leader focuses on motivation and goal attainment.

The first doctoral program in Leadership Studies was established at the
University of San Diego in the School of Leadership and Education Sciences in
1979. The first undergraduate school of Leadership Studies was established at the
University of Richmond (The Jepson School) in 1992. The Jepson School of
Leadership Studies at the University of Richmond studies leadership as a process that can be taught. The growth of transpersonal psychology means that this field has relevance to transpersonal business studies.

### 2.1.3 Theories of Leadership

According to Veldsman (2002a, p. 78) leadership is a dynamic and organic process which consists of an interconnected and interdependent set of roles. A role refers to a way of doing. These roles are taken up and terminated in ever changing combinations and priorities in concert with changing contextual circumstances and the agenda being pursued. The chosen combinations and priorities are a function of the future creation and realization embarked upon. The roles must be performed such that the overall act of leadership forms a coherent and unified whole, in and of itself, but also with the context in which it is embedded. The roles serve as a bridge between the leadership context and competencies.

The present study has been identified with a number of theories and approaches to leadership and the review of the leadership literature revealed an evolving series of 'schools of thought' from “Great Man” and “Trait” theories to “Transformational” leadership (see table). Whilst early theories tend to focus upon the characteristics and behaviours of successful leaders, later theories begin to consider the role of followers and the contextual nature of leadership. The following Table 2.1 shows the summery of various ‘Leadership theories and approaches reviewed for the present study.
Table 2.1
Table showing the summary of ‘Leadership Theories and Approaches’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Great Man Theories</td>
<td>Based on the belief that leaders are exceptional people, born with innate qualities, destined to lead. The use of the term 'man' was intentional since until the latter part of the twentieth century leadership was thought of as a concept which is primarily male, military and Western. This led to the next school of Trait Theories.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait Theories</td>
<td>The lists of traits or qualities associated with leadership exist in abundance and continue to be produced. They draw on virtually all the adjectives in the dictionary which describe some positive or virtuous human attribute, from ambition to zest for life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviourist Theories</td>
<td>Different patterns of behaviour are observed and categorized as 'styles of leadership'. This area has probably attracted most attention from practicing managers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational Leadership</td>
<td>This approach sees leadership as specific to the situation in which it is being exercised. For example, whilst some situations may require an autocratic style, others may need a more participative approach. It also proposes that there may be differences in required leadership styles at different levels in the same organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contingency Theory</td>
<td>This is a refinement of the situational viewpoint and focuses on identifying the situational variables which best predict the most appropriate or effective leadership style to fit the particular circumstances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional Theory</td>
<td>This approach emphasizes the importance of the relationship between leader and followers, focusing on the mutual benefits derived from a form of 'contract' through which the leader delivers such things as rewards or recognition in return for the commitment or loyalty of the followers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformational Theory</td>
<td>The central concept here is change and the role of leadership in envisioning and implementing the transformation of organizational performance.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Each of these theories takes a rather individualistic perspective of the leader, although a school of thought gaining increasing recognition is that of “dispersed” leadership. This approach, with its foundations in sociology, psychology and politics rather than management science, views leadership as a process that is diffuses throughout an organization rather than lying solely with the formally designated ‘leader’. The emphasis thus shifts from developing ‘leaders’ to developing ‘leaderful’ organizations with a collective responsibility for leadership.

2.1.3.1 Great Man theory

The Great Man theory encompasses the idea of a leader being born and not made. Much of the work on this theory was done in the 19th century and is often linked to the work of the historian Thomas Carlyle who commented on the great men or heroes of history saying that “the history of the world is but the biography of great men”. According to him, a leader is the one gifted with unique qualities that capture the imagination of the masses. Earlier leadership was considered as a quality associated mostly with the males, and therefore the theory was named as the great man theory. But later with the emergence of many great women leaders as well, the theory was recognized as the great person theory.

The great man theory of leadership states that some people are born with the necessary attributes that set them apart from others and that these traits are responsible for their assuming positions of power and authority. A leader is a hero who accomplishes goals against all odds for his followers. The theory implies that those in power deserve to be there because of their special endowment. Furthermore, the theory contends that these traits remain stable over time and across different groups. Thus, it suggests that all great leaders share these characteristic regardless of when and where they lived or the precise role in history they fulfilled.
2.1.3.2 The Trait Approach to Leadership

The Trait Approach arose from the “Great Man” theory as a way of identifying the key characteristics of successful leaders. It was believed that through this approach critical leadership traits could be isolated and that people with such traits could then be recruited, selected, and installed into leadership positions. This approach was common in the military and is still used as a set of criteria to select candidates for commissions.

The problem with the trait approach lies in the fact that almost as many traits as studies undertaken were identified. After several years of such research, it became apparent that no consistent traits could be identified. Although some traits were found in a considerable number of studies, the results were generally inconclusive. Some leaders might have possessed certain traits but the absence of them did not necessarily mean that the person was not a leader.

Although there was little consistency in the results of the various trait studies, however, some traits did appear more frequently than others, including: technical skill, friendliness, task motivation, application to task, group task supportiveness, social skill, emotional control, administrative skill, general charisma, and intelligence. Of these, the most widely explored has tended to be “charisma”. The Table 2.2 summaries the main leadership traits and skills identified by Stogdill in 1974.
Table 2.2
Table showing Leadership traits and skills identified by Stogdill (1974)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traits</th>
<th>Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Adaptable to situations</td>
<td>- Clever (intelligent)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Alert to social environment</td>
<td>- Conceptually skilled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ambitious and achievement-orientated</td>
<td>- Creative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Assertive</td>
<td>- Diplomatic and tactful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Cooperative</td>
<td>- Fluent in speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Decisive</td>
<td>- Knowledgeable about group task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Dependable</td>
<td>- Organized (administrative ability)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Dominant (desire to influence others)</td>
<td>- Persuasive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Energetic (high activity level)</td>
<td>- Socially skilled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Persistent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Self-confident</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Tolerant of stress</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Willing to assume responsibility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.1.3.3 The Behavioural School

The results of the trait studies were inconclusive. Traits, amongst other things, were hard to measure. How, for example, do we measure traits such as honesty, integrity, loyalty, or diligence? Another approach in the study of leadership had to be found. After the publication of the late Douglas McGregor's classic book The Human Side of Enterprise in 1960, attention shifted to 'behavioural theories'. McGregor was a teacher, researcher, and consultant whose work was considered to be "on the cutting edge" of managing people. He influenced all the behavioral theories, which emphasize focusing on human relationships, along with output and performance. Theories identified from ‘The Behavioural School’ are detailed below;
2.1.3.4 McGregor’s Theory X & Theory Y Managers

Although not strictly speaking a theory of leadership, the leadership strategy of effectively-used participative management proposed in Douglas McGregor's book has had a tremendous impact on managers. The most publicized concept is McGregor's thesis that leadership strategies are influenced by a leader's assumptions about human nature. As a result of his experience as a consultant, McGregor summarized his two contrasting sets of assumptions made by managers in industry is shown in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3
Table showing the summary of McGregor’s contrasting sets of assumptions made by managers in the industry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory X managers believe that:</th>
<th>Theory Y managers believe that:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible.</td>
<td>- The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest, and the average human being, under proper conditions, learns not only to accept but to seek responsibility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Because of this human characteristic, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort to achieve organizational objectives.</td>
<td>- People will exercise self-direction and self-control to achieve objectives to which they are committed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all else.</td>
<td>- The capacity to exercise a relatively high level of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population, and the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized under the conditions of modern industrial life.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It can therefore be seen that a leader holding Theory X assumptions would prefer an autocratic style, whereas one holding Theory Y assumptions would prefer a more participative style.

### 2.1.3.5 Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid

The Managerial Grid developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton focuses on task (production) and employee (people) orientations of managers, as well as combinations of concerns between the two extremes. The grid with concern for production on the horizontal axis and concern for people on the vertical axis plots five basic leadership styles. The first number refers to a leader's production or task orientation; the second, to people or employee orientation.

![Diagram 2.1: The Blake Mouton Managerial Grid (Blake & Mouton, 1964)](image)

Blake and Mouton propose that “Team Management” - a high concern for both employees and production - is the most effective type of leadership behaviour.

### 2.1.3.6 The Contingency or Situational School

Whilst behavioural theories may help managers develop particular leadership behaviours they give little guidance as to what constitutes effective leadership in different situations. Indeed, most researchers today conclude that no one leadership style is right for every manager under all circumstances. Instead,
contingency-situational theories were developed to indicate that the style to be used is contingent upon such factors as the situation, the people, the task, the organization, and another environmental variable. The major theories contributing towards this school of thought are described below.

2.1.3.7 Fiedler's Contingency Model

Fiedler's contingency theory postulates that there is no single best way for managers to lead. Situations will create different leadership style requirements for a manager. The solution to a managerial situation is contingent on the factors that impinge on the situation. For example, in a highly routine (mechanistic) environment where repetitive tasks are the norm, a relatively directive leadership style may result in the best performance, however, in a dynamic environment a more flexible, participative style may be required.

Fiedler looked at three situations that could define the condition of a managerial task:

1. **Leader member relations**: How well do the manager and the employees get along?

2. **Task structure**: Is the job highly structured, fairly unstructured, or somewhere in between?

3. **Position power**: How much authority does the manager possess?

Managers were rated as to whether they were relationship oriented or task oriented. Task oriented managers tend to do better in situations that have good leader-member relationships, structured tasks, and either weak or strong position power. They do well when the task is unstructured but position power is strong. Also, they did well at the other end of the spectrum when the leader member relations were moderate to poor and the task was unstructured. Relationship oriented managers do better in all other situations. Thus, a given situation might call for a manager with a different style or a manager who could take on a different style for a different situation.
These environmental variables are combined in a weighted sum that is termed "favourable" at one end and "unfavourable" at the other. Task oriented style is preferable at the clearly defined extremes of "favourable" and "unfavourable" environments, but relationship orientation excels in the middle ground. Managers could attempt to reshape the environment variables to match their style.

Another aspect of the contingency model theory is that the leader-member relations, task structure, and position power dictate a leader's situational control. Leader-member relations are the amount of loyalty, dependability, and support that the leader receives from employees. It is a measure of how the manager perceives him or her and the group of employees is getting along together. In a favourable relationship the manager has a high task structure and is able to reward and or punish employees without any problems. In an unfavourable relationship the task is usually unstructured and the leader possesses limited authority. The spelling out in detail (favourable) of what is required of subordinates affects task structure.

Positioning power measures the amount of power or authority the manager perceives the organization has given him or her for the purpose of directing, rewarding, and punishing subordinates. Positioning power of managers depends on the taking away (favourable) or increasing (unfavourable) the decision-making power of employees.

The task-motivated style leader experiences pride and satisfaction in the task accomplishment for the organization, while the relationship-motivated style seeks to build interpersonal relations and extend extra help for the team development in the organization. There is no good or bad leadership style. Each person has his or her own preferences for leadership. Task-motivated leaders are at their best when the group performs successfully such as achieving a new sales record or outperforming the major competitor. Relationship-oriented leaders are at their best when greater customer satisfaction is gained and a positive company image is established.
2.1.3. 8 The Hersey-Blanchard Model of Leadership

The Hersey-Blanchard Leadership Model also takes a situational perspective of leadership. This model posits that the developmental levels of a leader's subordinates play the greatest role in determining which leadership styles (leader behaviours) are most appropriate. Their theory is based on the amount of direction (task behaviour) and socio-emotional support (relationship behaviour) a leader must provide given the situation and the "level of maturity" of the followers.

Task behaviour is the extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the duties and responsibilities to an individual or group. This behaviour includes telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, and who's to do it. In task behaviour the leader engages in one-way communication. Relationship behaviour is the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multi-way communications. This includes listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviours. In relationship behaviour the leader engages in two-way communication by providing socio-emotional support.

Maturity is the willingness and ability of a person to take responsibility for directing his or her own behaviour. People tend to have varying degrees of maturity, depending on the specific task, function, or objective that a leader is attempting to accomplish through their efforts. In summary therefore leader behaviours fall along two continuums. The following table 2.4 shows Hersey-Blanchard Leadership Model (Two Continuums)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Directive Behaviour</th>
<th>Supportive Behaviour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• One-Way Communication.</td>
<td>• Two-Way Communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Followers' Roles Clearly Communicated.</td>
<td>• Listening, providing support and encouragement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Close Supervision of Performance.</td>
<td>• Facilitate interaction Involve follower in decision-making.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.4

Table showing summary of Hersey-Blanchard Leadership Model (Two Continuums)
For Blanchard the key situational variable, when determining the appropriate leadership style, is the readiness or developmental level of the subordinate(s). As a result, four leadership styles result:

- **Directing**: The leader provides clear instructions and specific direction. This style is best matched with a low follower readiness level.

- **Coaching**: The leader encourages two-way communication and helps build confidence and motivation on the part of the employee, although the leader still has responsibility and controls decision making. Selling style is best matched with a moderate follower readiness level.

- **Supporting**: With this style, the leader and followers share decision making and no longer need or expect the relationship to be directive. Participating style is best matched with a moderate follower readiness level.

- **Delegating**: This style is appropriate for leaders whose followers are ready to accomplish a particular task and are both competent and motivated to take full responsibility. Delegating style is best matched with a high follower readiness level.

To determine the appropriate leadership style to use in a given situation, the leader must first determine the maturity level of the followers in relation to the specific task that the leader is attempting to accomplish through the effort of the followers. As the level of followers' maturity increases, the leader should begin to reduce his or her task behaviour and increase relationship behaviour until the followers reach a moderate level of maturity. As the followers begin to move into an above average level of maturity, the leader should decrease not only task behaviour but also relationship behaviour. Once the maturity level is identified, the appropriate leadership style can be determined.

**2.1.3. 9 Tannenbaum & Schmidt’s Leadership Continuum**

One criticism of early work on leadership styles is that they looked at styles too much in black and white terms. The autocratic and democratic styles or task-
oriented and relationship-oriented styles which they described are extremes, whereas in practice the behaviour of many, perhaps most, leaders in business will be somewhere between the two. Contingency theorists Tannenbaum and Schmidt suggested the idea that leadership behaviour varies along a continuum and that as one moves away from the autocratic extreme the amount of subordinate participation and involvement in decision taking increases. They also suggested that the kind of leadership represented by the democratic extreme of the continuum will be rarely encountered in formal organizations. Four main leadership styles can be located at points along such a continuum:

- **Autocratic**: The leader takes the decisions and announces them; expecting subordinates to carry them out without question (the Telling style).

- **Persuasive**: At this point on the scale the leader also takes all the decisions for the group without discussion or consultation but believes that people will be better motivated if they are persuaded that the decisions are good ones. He or she does a lot of explaining and 'selling' in order to overcome any possible resistance to what he or she wants to do. The leader also puts a lot of energy into creating enthusiasm for the goals he or she has set for the group (the Selling style).

- **Consultative**: In this style the leader confers with the group members before taking decisions and, in fact, considers their advice and their feelings when framing decisions. He or she may, of course, not always accept the subordinates' advice but they are likely to feel that they can have some influence. Under this leadership style the decision and the full responsibility for it remain with the leader but the degree of involvement by subordinates in decision taking is very much greater than telling or selling styles (the Consulting style).

- **Democratic**: Using this style the leader would characteristically lay the problem before his or her subordinates and invite discussion. The leader's role is that of conference leader, or chair, rather than that of decision taker. He or
she will allow the decision to emerge out of the process of group discussion, instead of imposing it on the group as its boss (the Joining style).

- What distinguishes this approach from previous discussions of leadership style is that there will be some situations in which each of the above styles is likely to be more appropriate than the others.

- **Telling**: In an emergency, a telling style may be most appropriate and would normally be considered justified by the group (as long as the general climate of that group is supportive and mature).

- **Selling**: The selling style would tend to fit situations in which the group leader, and he or she alone, possesses all the information on which the decision must be based and which at the same time calls for a very high level of commitment and enthusiasm on the part of group members if the task is to be carried through successfully.

- **Consulting**: The consulting style is likely to be most appropriate when there is time in which to reach a considered decision and when the information on which the decision needs to be based lies among the members of the group.

- **Joining**: The joining style is appropriate under similar conditions, with the important exception that this is likely to be appropriate only in those instances where the nature of the responsibility associated with the decision is such that group members are willing to share it with their leader, or alternatively the leader is willing to accept responsibility for decisions which he or she has not made personally.

### 2.1.3. 10 Adair’s Action-Centred Leadership Model

John Adair has a long pedigree in the world of leadership. The Adair model is that the action-centred leader gets the job done through the work team and relationships with fellow managers and staff. According to Adair's explanation an action-centred leader must:
• Direct the job to be done (task structuring)

• Support and review the individual people doing it

• Co-ordinate and foster the work team as a whole

His famous three circle diagram is a simplification of the variability of human interaction, but is a useful tool for thinking about what constitutes an effective leader/manager in relation to the job he/she has to do. The effective leader/manager carries out the functions and exhibits the behaviours depicted by the three circles. Situational and contingent elements call for different responses by the leader. Hence imagine that the various circles may be bigger or smaller as the situation varies i.e. the leader will give more or less emphasis to the functionally-oriented behaviours according to what the actual situation involves. The challenge for the leader is to manage all sectors of the diagram. The following diagram 2.2 shows the Action-Centred Leadership Model (Adair, 1973)

![Diagram 2.2: Action-Centred Leadership Model (Adair, 1973)](image-url)
### Table 2.5
Table showing the Summary of Action-Centred Leadership Model (Adair 1973)

| Task          | • Define the task  
|               | • Make the plan  
|               | • Allocate work and resources  
|               | • Control quality and rate of work  
|               | • Check performance against plan  
|               | • Adjust the plan  
| Team          | • Maintain discipline  
|               | • Build team spirit  
|               | • Encourage, motivate, give a sense of purpose  
|               | • Appoint sub-leaders  
|               | • Ensure communication within group  
|               | • Develop the group  
| Individual    | • attend to personal problems  
|               | • praise individuals  
|               | • give status  
|               | • recognize and use individual abilities  
|               | • develop the individual  

#### 2.1.3.11 Transactional and Transformational Leadership

James Mac Gregory Burns writing in his book ‘Leadership’ was the first to put forward the concept of “transforming leadership”. According to Burns transforming leadership, “is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents”. Burns went on to also further define it by suggesting that: Transforming leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality…”
Burns draws upon the humanistic psychology movement in his writing upon ‘transforming leadership’ by proposing that the transforming leader shapes, alters, and elevates the motives, values and goals of followers achieving significant change in the process. He proposed that there is a special power entailed in transforming leadership with leaders “armed with principles that may ultimately transform both leaders and followers into persons who jointly adhere to modal values and end-values”.

Burns sees the power of transforming leadership as more noble and different from charismatic leadership, which he terms ‘heroic’ leadership, and executive or business leadership. Despite this it is surprising that most of the application of Burns’ work has been in these two types of leadership.

Bernard Bass developed Burns’ concept of transforming leadership in ‘Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations’ into ‘transformational leadership’ where the leader transforms followers – the direction of influence to Bass is thus one-way, unlike Burns’ who sees it as potentially a two-way process. Bass, however, deals with the transformational style of executive leadership that incorporates social change, a facet missing from Burns’ work. For Bass ‘transformational leaders’ may:

- Expand a follower’s portfolio of needs
- Transform a follower’s self-interest
- Increase the confidence of followers
- Elevate followers’ expectations
- Heighten the value of the leader’s intended outcomes for the follower
- Encourage behavioural change
- Motivate others to higher levels of personal achievement (Maslow’s ‘self-actualization’).

Tichy and Devanna in their book ‘Transformational Leadership’ built further on the work of Burns and Bass in organizational and work contexts. They
described the hybrid nature of transformational as “not due to charisma but as a behavioural process capable of being learned”.

Bass writing with a research colleague Avolio suggested that “Transformational leadership is closer to the prototype of leadership that people have in mind when they describe their ideal leader, and it is more likely to provide a role model with which subordinates want to identify”.

Transactional leadership has been the traditional model of leadership with its roots from an organizational or business perspective in the ‘bottom line’. Stephen Covey writing in ‘Principle-Centred Leadership’ suggests that transformational leadership’ focuses on the ‘top line’” and offers contrast between the two (a selection being). The following table 2.6 shows the Comparison of Transactional and Transformational Leadership (Covey1992).

**Table 2.6**

**Table showing the comparison of Transactional and Transformational Leadership (Covey1992)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transactional Leadership</th>
<th>Transformational Leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Builds on man’s need to get a job done and make a living</td>
<td>• Builds on a man’s need for meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Is preoccupied with power and position, politics and perks</td>
<td>• Is preoccupied with purposes and values, morals, and ethics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Is mired in daily affairs</td>
<td>• Transcends daily affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Is short-term and hard data orientated</td>
<td>• Is orientated toward long-term goals without compromising human values and principles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Focuses on tactical issues</td>
<td>• Focuses more on missions and strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Relies on human relations to lubricate human interactions</td>
<td>• Releases human potential – identifying and developing new talent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Follows and fulfils role expectations by striving to work effectively within current systems</td>
<td>• Designs and redesigns jobs to make them meaningful and challenging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Supports structures and systems that reinforce the bottom line, maximize efficiency, and guarantee short-term profits</td>
<td>• Aligns internal structures and systems to reinforce overarching values and goals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Both kinds of leadership are necessary. Transactional leadership has remained the organisational model for many people and organizations that have not moved into or encouraged the transformational role needed to meet the challenges of our changing times. “The goal of transformational leadership is to ‘transform’ people and organizations in a literal sense – to change them in mind and heart, enlarge vision, insight, and understanding, clarify purposes, make behaviour congruent with beliefs, principles, or values, and bring about changes that are permanent, self-perpetuating, and momentum building”. According to Bass and Avolio (2003), transformational leaders display behaviours associated with five transformational styles. Table 2.7 details the summary of behaviours associated with transformational styles.

Table 2.7
Table showing summary of behaviours associated with transformational styles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transformational Style</th>
<th>Leader Behaviour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1) Idealized Behaviors: living one's ideals | • Talk about their most important values and beliefs  
• Specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose  
• Consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions  
• Champion exciting new possibilities  
• Talk about the importance of trusting each other |
| 2) Inspirational Motivation: inspiring others | • Talk optimistically about the future  
• Talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished  
• Articulate a compelling vision of the future  
• Express confidence that goals will be achieved  
• Provide an exciting image of what is essential to consider  
• Take a stand on controversial issues. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transformational Style</th>
<th>Leader Behaviour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3) Intellectual Stimulation:</td>
<td>• Re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stimulating others</td>
<td>• Seek differing perspectives when solving problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Get others to look at problems from many different angles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Encourage non-traditional thinking to deal with traditional problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Encourage rethinking those ideas which have never been questioned before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Individualized Consideration:</td>
<td>• Spend time teaching and coaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coaching and development</td>
<td>• Treat others as individuals rather than just as members of the group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Consider individuals as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Help others to develop their strengths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Listen attentively to others' concerns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Promote self development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Idealized Attributes:</td>
<td>• Instill pride in others for being associated with them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect, trust, and faith</td>
<td>• Go beyond their self-interests for the good of the group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Act in ways that build others' respect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Display a sense of power and competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Make personal sacrifices for others' benefit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Reassure others that obstacles will be overcome</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Transformational leadership is a process in which the leaders take actions to try to increase their associates' awareness of what is right and important, to raise their associates' motivational maturity and to move their associates to go beyond the associates' own self-interests for the good of the group, the organization, or society. Such leaders provide their associates with a sense of purpose that goes beyond a simple exchange of rewards for effort provided.

The transformational leaders are proactive in many different and unique ways. These leaders attempt to optimize development, not just performance. Development encompasses the maturation of ability, motivation, attitudes, and values. Such leaders want to elevate the maturity level of the needs of their associates (from security needs to needs for achievement and self-development). They convince their associates to strive for a higher level of achievement as well as higher levels of moral and ethical standards. Through the development of their associates, they optimize the development of their organization as well. High performing associates build high performing organizations.

Hooper and Potter (1997) extend the notion of transformational leadership to identify seven key competences of “transcendent leaders”: those able to engage the emotional support of their followers and thus effectively transcend change.

1. Setting direction
2. Setting an example
3. Communication
4. Alignment
5. Bringing out the best in people
6. The leader as a change agent
7. Providing decision in a crisis and on the ambiguous
2.1.3. 12 Dispersed Leadership Approach

The importance of social relations in the leadership contract, the need for a leader to be accepted by their followers and a realization that no one individual is the ideal leader in all circumstances have given rise to a new school of leadership thought referred to as ‘informal’, ‘emergent’ or ‘dispersed’ leadership, (Manz and Sims, 1987). This approach argues a less formalized model of leadership where the leaders’ role is dissociated from the organizational hierarchy. It is proposed that individuals at all levels in the organization and in all roles (not simply those with an overt management dimension) can exert leadership influence over their colleagues and thus influence the overall leadership of the organization. Heifetz (1994) distinguishes between the exercise of “leadership” and the exercise of “authority” – thus dissociating leadership from formal organizational power roles whilst Raelin (2003) talks of developing “leaderful” organizations through concurrent, collective and compassionate leadership.

The key to this is a distinction between the notions of “leader” and “leadership”. “Leadership” is regarded as a process of sense-making and direction-giving within a group and the “leader” can only be identified on the basis of his/her relationship with others in the social group who are behaving as followers. In this manner, it is quite possible to conceive of the leader as emergent rather than predefined and that their role can only be understood through examining the relationships within the group (rather than by focusing on his/her personal characteristics or traits).

The origins of such an approach have their foundations more in the fields of sociology and politics than the more traditional management literature and draw on concepts such as organizational culture and climate to highlight the contextual nature of leadership. It is a more collective concept, and would argue for a move from an analysis and development of individual leader qualities to an identification of what constitutes an effective (or more appropriate) leadership process within an organization.
2.1.4 Leadership Theory applied in the Present Study

The present study has focused ‘Transformational leadership’ as it holds promise to further understanding of effective leadership, especially the leadership needed for changing organizations. Transformational Leaders are always visible and will stand up to be counted rather than hide behind their troops. They show by their attitudes and actions how everyone else should behave. They also make continued efforts to motivate and rally their followers, constantly doing the rounds, listening, soothing and enthusing.

It is their unswerving commitment as much as anything else that keeps people going, particularly through the darker times when some may question whether the vision can ever be achieved. If the people do not believe that they can succeed, then their efforts will flag. The Transformational Leader seeks to infect and reinfect their followers with a high level of commitment to the vision. One of the methods the Transformational Leader uses to sustain motivation is in the use of ceremonies, rituals and other cultural symbolism. Small changes get big hurrahs, pumping up their significance as indicators of real progress.

Overall, they balance their attention between action that creates progress and the mental state of their followers. Perhaps more than other approaches, they are people-oriented and believe that success comes first and last through deep and sustained commitment. This synthesis sought to examine the literature to identify characteristics that appear to facilitate or impede the implementation of school teaching learning interventions.

2.2.0 Communication

The term 'Communication' has been derived from the Latin word 'communis' that means 'common'. Thus 'to communicate' means 'to make common' or 'to make known'. This act of making common and known is carried out through exchange of thoughts, ideas or the like. The exchange of thoughts and ideas can be had by gestures, signs, signals, speech or writing. People are said to be in
communication when they discuss some matter, or when they talk on telephone, or when they exchange information through letters.

### 2.2.1 Components of Communication Process

Communication is a process of exchanging verbal and non verbal messages. It is a continuous process. Pre-requisite of communication is a message. This message must be conveyed through some medium to the recipient. It is essential that this message must be understood by the recipient in the same terms as intended by the sender. He must respond within a time frame. Thus, communication is a two way process and is incomplete without a feedback from the recipient to the sender on how well the message is understood by him. The process of communication is detailed below;

**Context:** Communication is affected by the context in which it takes place. This context may be physical, social, chronological or cultural. Every communication proceeds with context. The sender chooses the message to communicate within a context.

**Sender / Encoder:** Sender / Encoder is a person who sends the message. A sender makes use of symbols (words or graphic or visual aids) to convey the message and produce the required response. For instance a training manager conducts training for new batch of employees. Sender may be an individual or a group or an organization. The views, background, approach, skills, competencies, and knowledge of the sender have a great impact on the message. The verbal and non verbal symbols chosen are essential in ascertaining interpretation of the message by the recipient in the same terms as intended by the sender.

**Message:** Message is a key idea that the sender wants to communicate. It is a sign that elicits the response of the recipient. Communication process begins with deciding about the message to be conveyed. It must be ensured that the main objective of the message is clear.
**Medium:** Medium is a means used to exchange / transmit the message. The sender must choose an appropriate medium for transmitting the message else the message might not be conveyed to the desired recipients. The choice of appropriate medium of communication is essential for making the message effective and correctly interpreted by the recipient. This choice of communication medium varies depending upon the features of communication. For instance - Written medium is chosen when a message has to be conveyed to a small group of people, while an oral medium is chosen when spontaneous feedback is required from the recipient as misunderstandings are cleared then and there.

**Recipient / Decoder:** Recipient / Decoder is a person for whom the message is intended / aimed / targeted. The degree to which the decoder understands the message is dependent upon various factors such as knowledge of recipient, their responsiveness to the message, and the reliance of the encoder on decoder.

**Feedback:** Feedback is the main component of communication process as it permits the sender to analyze the efficacy of the message. It helps the sender in confirming the correct interpretation of message by the decoder. Feedback may be verbal (through words) or non-verbal (in form of smiles, sighs, etc.). It may take written form also in form of memos, reports, etc. The following diagrams show the components of communication process.

![Diagram 2.3: Components of Communication Process](image)
2.2.2 The History of Communication

The history of communication dates back to prehistory, with significant changes in communication technologies (media and appropriate inscription tools) evolving in tandem with shifts in political and economic systems, and by extension, systems of power. Communication can range from very subtle processes of exchange, to full conversations and mass communication. Human communication was revolutionized with speech approximately 200,000 years ago. Symbols were developed about 30,000 years ago, and writing in the past few centuries.

The oldest known symbols created with the purpose of communication through time are the cave paintings, a form of rock art, dating to the Upper Paleolithic Age. The next step in the history of communications is petroglyphs, carvings into a rock surface. It took about 20,000 years for homo sapiens to move from the first cave paintings to the first petroglyphs, which are dated to around 10,000BC. Pictographs were the next step in the evolution of communication. Pictograms, in turn, evolved into ideograms, graphical symbols that represent an idea.

Human spoken and pictorial languages can be described as a system of symbols (sometimes known as lexemes) and the grammars (rules) by which the symbols are manipulated. The word "language" also refers to common properties of languages. Language learning normally occurs most intensively during human childhood. Most of the thousands of human languages use patterns of sound or gesture for symbols which enable communication with others around them. Languages seem to share certain properties although many of these include exceptions. There is defined line between a language and a dialect constructed language such as Esperanto, Programming Language and various mathematical formalisms are not necessarily restricted to the properties shared by human languages. Communication is the flow or exchange of information within people or group of people.
A variety of verbal and non-verbal means of communicating exists such as body language, eye contact, sign signals, haptic communication, chronemics, and media such as pictures, graphics, sound and writing. Manipulative Communications was studied and reported by Bryenton in 2011. These are intentional and unintentional ways of manipulating words, gestures, etc. to "get what we want", by demeaning, discounting, attacking or ignoring instead of respectful interaction. Sarcasm, criticism, rudeness and swearing are examples.

Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities also defines the communication to include the display of text, Braille, tactile communication, large print, accessible multimedia, as well as written and plain language, human-reader, augmentative and alternative modes, means and formats of communication, including accessible information and communication technology.

The study of communication and mass media has led to the formulation of many theories: structural and functional theories believe that social structures are real and function in ways that can be observed objectively; cognitive and behavioral theories tend to focus on psychology of individuals; interactionist theories view social life as a process of interaction; interpretive theories uncover the ways people actually understand their own experience; and critical theories are concerned with the conflict of interests in society and the way communication perpetuates domination of one group over another.

The earliest theories were those propounded by Western theorists Siebert, Paterson and Schramm in their book Four Theories Of the Press (1956). These were termed "normative theories" by McQuail in the sense that they "mainly express ideas of how the media ought to or can be expected to operate under a prevailing set of conditions and values." Each of the four original or classical theories is based on a particular political theory or economic scenario.

### 2.2.3 Theories of Communication

A review of the communication literature reveals an evolving series from ‘Cognitive Dissonance Theory’ to Uses and Gratifications Theory’. Each of the
listed theories considers the significance of communication in terms of particular concepts; clarify observations, to predict communication behavior, and generate personal and social change. The following Table 2.8 summaries the various communication theories reviewed for the present study.

**Table 2.8**

**Table showing the summary of various Communication Theories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cognitive Dissonance Theory</strong></td>
<td>Cognitive dissonance is a relatively straightforward social psychology theory that has enjoyed wide acceptance in a variety of disciplines including communication. The theory replaces previous conditioning or reinforcement theories by viewing individuals as more purposeful decision makers; they strive for balance in their beliefs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Communication Accommodation Theory</strong></td>
<td>The Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT) was developed by Howard Giles, professor of communication, at the University of California, Santa Barbara. CAT explains some of the cognitive reasons for code-switching and other changes in speech as individuals seek to emphasize or minimize the social differences between themselves and their interlocutors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Coordinated Management of Meaning-Communication Theory</strong></td>
<td>This theory explains that in conversation, people co-create meaning by attaining some coherence and coordination. Coherence occurs when stories are told, and coordination exists when stories are lived. CMM focuses on the relationship between an individual and his or her society. Through a hierarchical structure, individuals come to organize the meaning of literally hundreds of messages received throughout a day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cultivation Analysis theory</strong></td>
<td>According to Cultivation Analysis, in modern Culture most people get much of their information in a mediated fashion rather than through direct experience. Thus, mediated sources can shape people’s sense of reality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cultural Approach theory to Organizations</strong></td>
<td>Theorists in this tradition argue that an organization’s culture is composed of shared symbols, each of which has a unique meaning. Organizational stories, rituals, and rites of passage are examples of what constitutes the culture of an organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Expectancy Violations Theory</strong></td>
<td>Expectancy Violation Theory examines how nonverbal messages are structured. The theory advances that when communicative norms are violated, the violation may be perceived either favourably or unfavourably, depending on the perception that the receiver has of the violator. Violating another’s expectations may be a strategy used over that of conforming to another’s expectations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Face-Negotiation Theory</strong></td>
<td>Face-Negotiation Theory is concerned with how people in individualistic and collectivistic cultures negotiate face in conflict situations. The theory is based on face management, which describes how people from different cultures manage conflict negotiation in order to maintain face. Self-face and other-face concerns explain the conflict negotiation between people from various cultures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Groupthink theory</strong></td>
<td>Groupthink is concerned with the quality of decision-making in the group setting, but should not be confused with theories focused on explaining excellent group decisions. It tries to explain why a group decides on decisions that, in hindsight are considered ill advised and incompetent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Narrative Paradigm theory</td>
<td>The Narrative Paradigm explains that all meaningful communication is a form of storytelling or giving a report of events and so human beings experience and comprehends life as a series of ongoing narratives, each with their own conflicts, characters, beginnings, middles, and ends.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbolic Interaction Theory</td>
<td>This theory suggests that people are motivated to act based on the meanings they assign to people, things, and events. Further, meaning is created in the language that people use both with others and in private thought. Language allows people to develop a sense of self and to interact with others in community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainly Reduction Theory</td>
<td>Uncertainty reduction theory (URT) was initially presented as a series of axioms (universal truths which do not require proof and theorems (propositions assumed to be true) which describe the relationships between uncertainty and several communication factors. Uncertainty reduction follows a pattern of developmental stages (entry, personal, exits).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses and Gratifications Theory</td>
<td>Uses and Gratifications Theory is an approach to understanding why people actively seek out specific media outlets and content for gratification purposes. The theory discusses how users proactively search for media that will not only meet a given need but enhance knowledge, social interactions and diversion.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.2.3.1 Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Leon Festinger (1951) synthesized a set of studies to distill a theory about communication’s social influences. Cognitive dissonance enjoyed great popularity from the late 1950s through the mid-1970s. Theoretical problems and conflicting findings lead to temporary replacement by similar “self” theories in the early 1980s, but cognitive dissonance regained its place as the umbrella theory for selective exposure to communication by the late 1980s. Cognitive dissonance is a communication theory adopted from social psychology. The title gives the concept: cognitive is thinking or the mind; and dissonance is inconsistency or conflict. Cognitive dissonance is the psychological conflict from holding two or more incompatible beliefs simultaneously.

Cognitive dissonance is a relatively straightforward social psychology theory that has enjoyed wide acceptance in a variety of disciplines including communication. The theory replaces previous conditioning or reinforcement theories by viewing individuals as more purposeful decision makers; they strive for balance in their beliefs. If presented with decisions or information that creates dissonance, they use dissonance-reduction strategies to regain equilibrium, especially if the dissonance affects their self-esteem. The theory suggests that dissonance is psychologically uncomfortable enough to motivate people to achieve consonance, and in a state of dissonance, people will avoid information and situations that might increase the dissonance. How dissonance arises is easy to imagine: It may be unavoidable in an information rich-society. How people deal with it is more difficult.

2.2.3.2 Communication Accommodation Theory

The Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT) was developed by Howard Giles, professor of communication, at the University of California, Santa Barbara. CAT explains some of the cognitive reasons for code-switching and other changes in speech as individuals seek to emphasize or minimize the social differences between themselves and their interlocutors. Giles posits that when
speakers seek approval in a social situation they are likely to converge their speech to that of their interlocutor. This can include, but is not limited to the language of choice, accent, dialect and paralinguistic features used in the interaction. In contrast to convergence, speakers may also engage in divergent speech. In divergent speech, individuals emphasize the social distance between themselves and their interlocutors by using linguistic features characteristic of their own group. There are four components in CAT: the socio-historical context, the communicators’ accommodative orientation, the immediate situation and evaluation and future intentions. These components are essential to the theory and affect the course and outcome of intercultural conversations.

- **Socio-historical context:** The socio-historical context represents the general basis for any intercultural communication. Thereby, the relations between the two interacting groups influence the communicators’ behavior. Such influencing factors are for example political or historical relations between nations or different religious or ideological views between the two groups participating in the conversation.

- **Accommodative orientation:** There are three factors that are crucial to accommodative orientations: (1) “intrapersonal factors” (e.g. personality of the speakers), (2) “intergroup factors” (e.g. communicators’ feelings toward out groups), and (3) “initial orientations” (e.g. perceived potential for conflict).

- **Immediate situation:** The immediate situation, i.e. the actual communication, is shaped by five aspects which are interrelated: (1) “sociopsychological states”, (2) “goals and addressee focus” (e.g. motivations and goals for the encounter), (3) “sociolinguistic strategies” (e.g. convergence or divergence), (4) “behavior and tactics” (e.g. topic, accent) and (5) “labeling and attributions”.

50
• **Evaluation and future intentions:** This aspect deals with how communicators perceive their conversational partners’ behavior and its effects on future encounters between the two groups. Positively rated conversations will most likely lead to further communication between the interlocutors and other members of their respective groups.

2.2.3.3 **Coordinated Management of Meaning- Communication Theory**

Theorists in Coordinated Management of Meaning believe that in conversation, people co-create meaning by attaining some coherence and coordination. Coherence occurs when stories are told, and coordination exists when stories are lived. CMM focuses on the relationship between an individual and his or her society. Through a hierarchical structure, individuals come to organize the meaning of literally hundreds of messages received throughout a day.

It is a practical theory that sees communication as doing things fully as much as talking about them. "Taking the communication perspective" consists of looking at communication (rather than through it to what it is ostensibly about) and seeing it as a two-sided process of (1) coordinating actions with others, and (2) making/managing meanings. These interwoven threads of stories and actions comprise the texture of social worlds. Much of the development of the theory consists of heuristic models and concepts that enable the user to perceive and describe the ongoing processes of communication. In all, CMM heavily relies on three basic processes: coherence, coordination, and mystery. Separately and sometimes in combination, these processes help to clarify and explain how social realities are created through conversation. CMM is one of an increasing number of theories that see communication as "performative" (doing things, not just talking "about" them) and "constitutive" (the material substance of the social world, not just a means of transmitting information within it). In CMM-speak, "taking the communication perspective" means looking at communication rather than through it, and seeing communication as the means by which we make the objects and events of our social worlds. The "communication perspective" entails a shift in
focus from theory to parxis. CMM concepts and models are best understood as providing tools for naming aspects of performance. The hierarchy model of actors' meanings, for example, does not purport to describe a fixed number of levels or a necessary relationship among those levels. Rather, it serves to discipline and guide perception of the process of communication by asking: What stories are the communicators using to make sense of their experience and to guide their actions? How have the communicators sorted these stories out in terms of their relative importance in this specific situation? What changes in these stories themselves or in the pattern of context-and-contextualized stories occur during or as a consequence of coordinated actions with others?

To date, CMM has found greater acceptance among practitioners than among scholars. Taking the communication perspective confers something like communication literacy"—the ability to inscribe and read the complex process of communication in real time. Among other things, CMM's concepts and models guide practitioners in helping clients become aware of the patterns of communication which make up aspects of the social world that they want to change and help both clients and practitioners identify openings or "bifurcation points" in which changes in the way we communicate have large effects in the continuing process of making social worlds. Many CMM practitioners have an explicit commitment not only to describe and understand, but to improve the conditions in which they and those around them live. They believe that the best way of making better social worlds is to improve the patterns of communication which generates them.

2.2.3.4 Cultivation Analysis Theory

Cultivation Analysis theory was developed by George Gerbner, the University of Pennsylvania. Cultivation theory derived from several large-scale research projects as part of an overall research project entitled 'Cultural Indicators'. The purpose of the Cultural Indicators project was to identify and track the 'cultivated' effects of television on viewers. They were "concerned with the effects of television programming (particularly violent programming) on the attitudes and
behaviors of the American public. Gerbner asserts that the overall concern about the effects of television on audiences stemmed from the unprecedented centrality of television in American Culture.

This theory argues that television (and other media) plays an extremely important role in how people view their world. According to Cultivation Analysis, in modern Culture most people get much of their information in a mediated fashion rather than through direct experience. Thus, mediated sources can shape people’s sense of reality. This is especially the case with regard to violence, according to the theory. Cultivation Analysis posits that heavy television viewing cultivates a sense of the world that is more violent and scarier than is actually warranted.

Cultivation Analysis is a Positivistic theory, meaning it assumes the existence of objective reality and value-neutral research. A study conducted by Jennings Bryant and Dorina Miron (2004), which surveyed almost 2,000 articles published in the three top mass communication journals since 1956, found that Cultivation Analysis was the third most frequently utilized theory, showing that it continues to be one of the most popular theories in mass communication research.

2.2.3.5 Cultural Approach Theory to Organizations

This theory was developed by Clifford Geertz (1973), and Michael Pacanowsky (1983). The Cultural Approach contends that people are like animals that are suspended in webs that they created. Theorists in this tradition argue that an organization’s culture is composed of shared symbols, each of which has a unique meaning. Organizational stories, rituals, and rites of passage are examples of what constitutes the culture of an organization.

This theory describes organizations as having their own culture. This means that any given organization has a particular culture in which the meanings for things are shared between individuals. This symbolic interactionist approach is influenced by the East, and Japanese companies that have moved into the West.
The environment that surrounds each company is called the corporate culture and consists of the organization's image, character, and climate. The culture is learned through the use of Stories (or metaphors) used to convey the messages the corporation wants to share with its employees. There are three types of stories told: Corporate stories, information which the management wants to share with the employees; Personal stories, which include personal accounts of themselves that employees share with each other to help to define who they are within the organization; and Collegial stories, which are stories (positive or negative) that employees within an organization tell about each other. Using the scientific method of ethnography, we can learn to understand the rituals of a given culture of an organization.

2.2.3.6 Expectancy Violations Theory

Expectancy Violation Theory examines how nonverbal messages are structured. The theory advances that when communicative norms are violated, the violation may be perceived either favorably or unfavorably, depending on the perception that the receiver has of the violator. Violating another’s expectations may be a strategy used over that of conforming to another’s expectations.

Three primary assumptions predicate Expectancy Violations Theory. First, people seek to reward others and seek to avoid punishing others, as explained by Social Exchange Theory. Second, behavior violations arouse and distract, calling attention to the qualities of the violator and the relationship between the interactants. Third, the evaluation of the violation is based upon the relationship between the particular behavior and the valence of the actor.

EVT proposes that observation and interaction with others leads to expectancies. The two types of expectancies noted are predictive and prescriptive. Predictive expectancies let people know what to expect based upon what typically occurs within the context of a particular environment and relationship. For example, a husband and wife may have an evening routine in which the husband always washes the dishes. If he were to ignore the dirty dishes one night, this
might be seen as a predictive discrepancy. Prescriptive discrepancies, on the other hand, are expectancies based upon general social norms of what is deemed to be appropriate. For instance, if it customary in an organization to greet people with a firm handshake but an individual is greeted by a kiss on the lips, this could be seen as a prescriptive discrepancy.

2.2.3.7 Face-Negotiation Theory

Face-Negotiation Theory is concerned with how people in individualistic and collectivistic cultures negotiate face in conflict situations. The theory is based on face management, which describes how people from different cultures manage conflict negotiation in order to maintain face. Self-face and other-face concerns explain the conflict negotiation between people from various cultures. This theory first postulated by Stella Ting-Toomey in 1985 to explain how different cultures manage conflict and communicates previous models explaining Face and Face work in the context of conflict. The theory has gone through multiple iterations since its creation, most recently in 2005. In essence, the theory specifically to conflict is based on identity management on an individual and a culture.

The various facets of individual and cultural identities are described as faces. Faces are the public image of an individual, or group, that their society sees and evaluates based on cultural norms and values. Face can also be defined as "the claimed sense of favorable social self-worth and/or projected other-worth in a public situation (Ting-Toomey & Kurogie, 1998) Conflict occurs when that group or individual has their face threatened. Faces can be lost, saved, or protected.

The "Locus of Face" is known as the degree of concern for self-face and others faces. It is important to observe Locus of Face because it provides the frame work for studying face and face work because it is a direct indicator of how important it is to the individual to maintain face (for him or herself of the face of their culture/group) and in turn it can directly effect the direction of the interaction. The Locus of Face is also valuable because it reflects both self and -other concerns
for preserving face, and is relevant to the communicators when navigating through an interaction or negotiation.

### 2.2.3.8 Groupthink Theory

Groupthink Theory was first defined by Irving Janis (1970) and tried to explain how poor decisions are made by groups during the brainstorming process. Groupthink is concerned with the quality of decision-making in the group setting, but should not be confused with theories focused on explaining excellent group decisions. It tries to explain why a group decides on decisions that, in hindsight are considered ill advised and incompetent. The clearest way to understand groupthink is to realize it is a negative thing; it is a communication process that develops when group members begin thinking similarly, which reduces the probability of effective decision reaching. It is also important to understand the factors necessary for groupthink to exist, which was the base used as a starting point for these three studies.

There are three major symptoms that indicate the presence of groupthink. A group may overestimate its power, and the members will think that they are right, assuming their opponents are wrong. Another sign is when the group members become very closed minded, and the consequences of risky actions are not considered. The final symptom is when the group feels pressure to conform. The members play down the importance of their doubts to preserve unanimity. When this occurs, groups prematurely make decisions, some of which can have lasting consequences.

### 2.2.3.9 The Narrative Paradigm Theory

The Narrative Paradigm is a theory proposed by Walter Fisher. It tell that all meaningful communication is a form of storytelling or giving a report of events and so human beings experience and comprehends life as a series of ongoing narratives, each with their own conflicts, characters, beginnings, middles, and ends. Fisher believes that all forms of communication that appeal to our reason are
best viewed as stories shaped by history, culture, and character, and all forms of human communication are to be seen fundamentally as stories.

Although most communicators will argue that narratives are only one part of communication, Walter Fisher believes that all communication is a form of storytelling. His Narrative Paradigm asserts that people are essentially storytelling animals and our reason is best appealed to through stories. Fisher defines narration as symbolic actions, words, and/or deeds that have sequence and meaning for those who live, create or interpret them. Obviously, his broad definition that everything with sequence and meaning is a narrative leaves little room to argue with his claim that all meaningful communication is storytelling.

Fisher says that not all stories are created equally. He thinks that everyone has the same innate ability to determine the narrative rationality (interpreted value) of the stories we hear based upon two aspects. First we examine the narrative coherence. This is our way of determining if the story holds together and makes sense in our world. Then we check the narrative fidelity. Here we see if the story matches our own beliefs and experiences and, hence, portrays the world we live in.

The traditional paradigm of the rational world claims that:

- People are essentially rational
- We make decisions on the basis of arguments
- The type of speaking situation determines the course of our argument
- Rationality is determined by how much we know and how well we argue
- The world is a set of logical puzzles that we can solve through rational analysis.
Fisher believes that this viewpoint is too limited and suggests a new paradigm. His builds upon the narrative foundation of communication:

- People are essentially storytellers
- We make decisions on the basis of good reasons
- History, biography, culture, and character determine what we consider good reasons
- Narrative rationality is determined by the coherence and fidelity of our stories
- The world is a set of stories from which we choose, and thus constantly re-create, our lives

The Narrative Paradigm allows for a democratic judgment of speakers because no one has to be trained in oratory and persuasion to make judgments based on coherence and fidelity.

2.2.3.10 Organizational Information Theory

This Theory argues that the main activity of organizations is the process of making sense of equivocal information. Organizational members accomplish this sense-making process through enactment, selection, and retention of information. Organizations are successful to the extent that they are able to reduce equivocality through these means.

Weick's Organizational Information Theory has been identified as a powerful theoretical framework for explaining how organizations make sense of the information that is essential for their existence. Organizational Information Theory draws from other theoretical perspectives that explain the processes that organizations undergo to receive input from others. Specifically, Weick emphasizes the importance of human interaction as central to processing information; thus, communication is the central focus of his theory. The primary
idea is that organizations are not simply structures but are instead continually transforming and changing entities, created by their members. By making the process of reducing equivocality central to his theory, Weick emphasizes the importance of communication to the ability of organizations and their members to achieve goals.

Organizational Information Theory focuses on the process of communication rather than on the role of communicators themselves. This is of great benefit to understanding how members of an organization engage in collaborative efforts with both internal and external environments to understand the information that they receive. The theory has inspired thinking and research in negotiation (Putnam, 1989), public discourse (Robichaud, 1999), and organizational learning (Weick & Westley, 1996). Charles Bantz (1989) observed that in terms of Weick's influence on research overall, "it is not surprising that a variety of scholars picked up the organizing concept directly from Weick or integrated it into their on-going research". Weick was clearly influential, thereby making Organizational Information Theory a heuristic theory.

2.2.3.11 Social Exchange Theory

This is a humanistic theory because it has intuitive credibility; it makes sense and is relative to actual communication practice. It has a systematic approach and is timely. The social exchange theory, also called the communication of social exchange, suggests that human beings make social decisions based on perceived costs and benefits. This hypothesis asserts that people evaluate all social relationships to determine the benefits they will get out of them. It also suggests that someone will typically leave a relationship if he or she perceives that the effort, or cost, of it outweighs any perceived advantages. This premise of social Psychology is rooted in economics, rational choice theory and structuralism.

The social exchange theory uses economic terms such as benefit, gain, cost, and payment to describe social situations. According to this supposition, people
consciously and unconsciously evaluate every social situation in terms of what they will have to put into it, and relate this to the benefits they think they may get out of it. The greater the potential benefit, the greater the personal investment an individual may make in a relationship.

According to social exchange theory, people make these decisions based on their individual satisfaction level within the relationship. Individuals typically have a high level of happiness if they perceive that they are receiving more than they are giving to a relationship. If, on the other hand, individuals feel that they are giving more than they are receiving, they may decide that the connection is not fulfilling their needs.

Whether a person ends a relationship that he or she feels is not worth the social investment often depends on the options he or she thinks are available. Individuals who think that they could fare better in other relationships are more likely to leave such high-cost social situations. If a person feels that there are no better options than the costly relationship, he or she is more likely to stay in the situation.

This social exchange theory is considered by many psychologists to be highly individualistic, which means that it assumes that the individual assesses all human social interactions based on his or her personal gain. This supposition denies the existence of true altruism. It also suggests that all decisions are made from a self-serving motivation, even generosity.

According to the social exchange theory, people will only be generous if they expect some personal benefit to come to them because of it. Examples of personal gain from self sacrifice can include a show of gratitude from the recipient or the approval of the donor’s peer group. This idea emphasizes the anticipated return for such good deeds, also called reciprocity.
2.2.3.12 Social Penetration Theory

Social Penetration Theory states that as relationships develop, communication moves from relatively shallow, non-intimate levels to deeper, more personal ones. The theory was formulated by psychology professor Irwin Altman and Dalmas Taylor as their attempt to provide an understanding of the closeness between two individuals. Social penetration is defined as a process that moves a relationship from non-intimate to intimate. Social Penetration theory states that this process occurs primarily through self-disclosure. This theory is also guided by the assumptions that relationship development is systematic and predictable and also includes deterioration, or growing apart. Social Penetration theory also claims that our relationships progress through four stages before reaching stability where communication is open and partners are highly intimate.

Altman and Taylor proposed that closeness occurs through a gradual process of self disclosure, and closeness develops if the participants proceed in a gradual and orderly fashion from superficial to intimate levels of exchange as a function of both immediate and forecast outcomes. This psychological theory, as with many others, is applied in the context of interpersonal communication. It can also be defined as the process of developing deeper intimacy with another person through mutual self-disclosure and other forms of vulnerability. The Social Penetration theory is known as an objective theory, meaning that the theory is based on data drawn from experiments, and not from conclusions based on an individual's specific experiences.

Altman and Taylor believe that only through opening one's self to the main route to social penetration – self-disclosure – by becoming vulnerable to another person can a close relationship develop. Vulnerability can be expressed in a variety of ways, including the giving of anything which is considered to be a personal possession, such as a dresser drawer given to a partner. Altman and Taylor were convinced that the process of social penetration moves a lot faster in the beginning stages of a relationship but then it slows considerably. Those who are able to develop a long term, positive reward/ cost outcome are the same people who are
able to share important matches of breadth categories. The early reward/cost assessment have a strong impact on the relationships reactions and involvement. When you have expectancies in a relationship regarding the future it plays a major role on the outcome in the relationship.

Social penetration theory is made for explaining the level of intimacy and interaction between people. There are various degrees of how someone could respond to decisions about ethics or personal challenges. The reactions to problems regarding ethics and challenges are also based on personal characteristics, reward/cost assessments and situational factors.

2.2.3.13 Spiral of Silence Theory

The spiral of silence is a political science and mass communication theory propounded by the German political scientist Elisabeth Noelle-Neumann. Spiral of silence theory is described as a dynamic process, the predication about public opinion in mass media which gives more coverage to the majorities in the society and gives very less coverage to minorities.

The Spiral of Silence Theory (1974) is one that explores hypotheses to determine why some groups remain silent while others are more vocal in forums of public disclosure." The spiral of silence begins with fear of reprisal or isolation, and escalates from there. The fear of isolation is the centrifugal force that accelerates the spiral of silence. Individuals use what is described as "an innate ability" or quasi-statistical sense to gauge public opinion. The Mass media play a large part in determining what the dominant opinion is, since our direct observation is limited to a small percentage of the population. The mass media have an enormous impact on how public opinion is portrayed, and can dramatically impact an individual's perception about where public opinion lies, whether or not that portrayal is factual. Noelle-Neumann describes the spiral of silence as a dynamic process, in which predictions about public opinion become fact as mass media's coverage of the majority opinion becomes the status quo, and
the minority becomes less likely to speak out. The theory, however, only applies to moral or opinion issues, not issues that can be proven right or wrong using facts.

Therefore, this theory is not scientific in nature. It is only a theory for how human beings communicate, and why certain things, in the way we communicate, occur. Noelle-Neumann describes public opinion as controversial opinions that one is able to express in public without becoming isolated. Noelle-Neumann has come up with ways to measure these controversial opinions. The first is the measuring of how the individual perceives the climate of opinion and what they believe its future development will be. The second measurement of public opinion is through one’s willingness to stand up for their opinion or lack of willingness depending on the majority and minority trends. Readiness to join in conversations under different circumstances shows the degree of confidence of being on the majority side. This confidence then influences the spiraling process. The third is to measure whether the opposite sides of each viewpoint ignore the other party and only listen to their side’s viewpoint.

2.2.3.14 Standpoint Theory

Standpoint Theory’ is a post modern method for analyzing inter-subjective discourses. This theory is mainly about an authority which is generated by people's knowledge and the power to shape people's opinions in daily life. Standpoint theory's most important concept is that individual's own perspectives are shaped by his or her experiences in social locations and social groups. Standpoints are always involved in more than one part.

Standpoint theory has a huge affect on how people's perceptions change from one thing to another. A standpoint is a place from which we view and see the world that determines what we focus on as well as what is obscured from us, depending on how our situation your standpoint may vary from someone elses who may be similar to us in status. Every day we see different people with the same background and who live in the same environment who both are of the same sex, but one of them might have more money than the other person so that’s why they
are exactly not the same. This doesn't mean that person is better than him, it just means his standpoint in life is far more ahead due to his economic situation. People whose lives are less powerful can provide a more objective view than people who are more likely in power. The standpoint theory has not been expressed formally in literature writing. Standpoint theories remind us why a naturalistic conception of knowing is so important. Knowledge helps us understand part of the world that we normally tend to not understand. This occurs only in septic circumstances and has real consequences. These Consequences can have an effect on how a person can live his or her life. It matters politically as well as epistemically which concepts are intelligible, which claims are heard and understood by whom, which features of the world are perceptually salient, and which reasons are understood to be relevant and forceful, as well as which conclusions credible.

Standpoint theory supports what feminist theorist Sandra Harding calls strong objective or the notion that the perspectives of marginalized and/or oppressed individuals can help to create more objective accounts of the world. Through the outsider-within phenomenon, these individuals are placed in a unique position to point to patterns of behavior that those immersed in the dominant group culture are unable to recognize. Standpoint theory gives voice to the marginalized groups by allowing them to challenge the status quo as the outsider within, the status quo representing the dominant white male position of privilege.

2.2.3.15 Symbolic Interaction Theory

This theory assumes that People live in a symbolic world as well as in the physical world. Individuals generally have different meanings for symbols. In order to understand human behavior, it is important to know the meaning a behavior has for the individual. Having a mutual understanding of a symbol helps individuals to understand each other better. Humans learn about themselves as a result of their interactions with others.
We learn about ourselves and develop personal feelings based on how other people react to our own behaviors. This is what Charles Horton Cooley (1964) termed as the “looking glass self”. Individuals have minds. The human mind is capable of obtaining and processing information as well as having the ability to reflect on these processes which increases the development of one’s self.

The underlying proposition of this theory is, One proposition of symbolic interaction is that the greater a person’s clarity of his/her role expectations, the greater the person’s ability to perform that role. People must have a clear understanding of what is expected of them in their role from others if they are to perform that role to their greatest potential. Clear role expectations will not only promote greater role performance but will it will also have a positive effect on an individual’s self worth.

A second proposition of symbolic interaction is that the greater the agreement an individual perceives about his/her role, the less role strain she or she will experience. If individuals believe that society agrees with the role they play the more they will feel comfortable performing that role. Role strain will lead to a decrease in one’s self worth.

This theory suggests that people are motivated to act based on the meanings they assign to people, things, and events. Further, meaning is created in the language that people use both with others and in private thought. Language allows people to develop a sense of self and to interact with others in their community.

2.2.3.16 Uncertainty Reduction Theory

Uncertainty reduction theory (URT) was initially presented as a series of axioms (universal truths which do not require proof and theorems (propositions assumed to be true) which describe the relationships between uncertainty and several communication factors. URT was developed to describe the interrelationships between seven important factors in any didactic exchange: verbal communication, nonverbal expressiveness, information-seeking behavior,
intimacy, reciprocity, similarity, and liking. This theoretical perspective was originated by C.R. Berger and Calabrese in 1975; they drew on the work of Heider (1952).

Core Assumptions of the theory of Uncertainty is unpleasant and therefore motivational people communicate to reduce it. Uncertainty reduction follows a pattern of developmental stages (entry, personal, exits). During the entry stage information about another’s sex, age, economic or social status, and other demographic information is obtained. Much of the interaction in this entry phase is controlled by communication rules and norms. When communicators begin to share attitudes, beliefs, values, and more personal data, the personal stage begins. During this phase, the communicators feel less constrained by rules and norms and tend to communicate more freely with each other. The third stage is the exit phase. During this phase, the communicators decide on future interaction plans. They may discuss or negotiate ways to allow the relationship to grow and continue. However, any particular conversation may be terminated and signify the end of the entry phase. This pattern is especially likely to occur during initial interaction, when people first meet or when new topics are introduced later in a relationship.

Besides the stages in uncertainty reduction patterns Berger makes distinction between three basic ways people seek information about another person: (1) Passive strategies - a person is being observed, either in situations where the other person is likely to be self-monitoring as in a classroom, or where the other person is likely to act more naturally as in the stands at a football game. (2) Active strategies - we ask others about the person we're interested in or try to set up a situation where we can observe that person (e.g., taking the same class, sitting a table away at dinner). Once the situation is set up we sometime observe (a passive strategy) or talk with the person (an interactive strategy). (3) In interactive strategies - we communicate directly with the person.

People seek to increase their ability to predict their partner’s and their own behavior in situations. One other factor which reduces uncertainty between
communicators is the degree of similarity individuals perceive in each other (in background, attitudes and appearance).

Statements: the axioms in URT follow the “If… then…” statements typical of the law-governed approach. For example: “If uncertainty levels are high, the amount of verbal communication between strangers will decrease.”

**Conceptual Model**

![Conceptual Model Diagram](image)

**Diagram 2.4: Uncertainty Reduction Model (Source: Heath & Bryant, 1999)**

2.2.3.17 Uses and Gratifications Theory

Uses and Gratifications theorists explain why people choose and use certain media forms. The theory emphasizes a limited effect position; that is, the media have limited the effect on their audiences because audiences are able to exercise control over their media. Uses and Gratifications Theory attempts to answer the following: What do people do with the media?

Uses and Gratifications Theory is an approach to understanding why people actively seek out specific media outlets and content for gratification purposes. The theory discusses how users proactively search for media that will not only meet a given need but enhance knowledge, social interactions and diversion.

It assumes that members of the audience are not passive but take an active role in interpreting and integrating media into their own lives. The theory also holds that audiences are responsible for choosing media to meet their needs. The approach suggests that people use the media to fulfill specific gratifications. This
theory would then imply that the media compete against other information sources for viewers' gratification.

The Uses and Gratifications Theory was developed from a number of prior communication theories and research conducted by fellow theorists. Uses and gratifications approach is an influential tradition in media research. The original conception of the approach was based on the research for explaining the great appeal of certain media contents. The core question of such research is: Why do people use media and what do they use them for? (McQuail, 1983). There exists a basic idea in this approach: audience members know media content, and which media they can use to meet their needs.

In the mass communication process, uses and gratifications approach puts the function of linking need gratifications and media choice clearly on the side of audience members. It suggests that people’s needs influence what media they would choose, how they use certain media and what gratifications the media give them. This approach differs from other theoretical perspectives in that it regards audiences as active media users as opposed to passive receivers of information. In contrast to traditional media effects theories which focus on “what media do to people” and assume audiences are homogeneous, uses and gratifications approach is more concerned with “what people do with media” (Katz, 1959). It allows audiences personal needs to use media and responds to the media, which is determined by their social and psychological background.

2.2.4 Communication Theory Applied in the Present Study

A Theory of Uncertainty Reduction was applied for the present study. This theory was developed with the objective of allowing the communicator with the ability to predict and explain initial interactions. Though Berger and Calabrese did not explore the realm of subsequent interaction, they did strongly recommend that future research should investigate the application of the framework of URT to developed relationships. Especially in initial encounters, there exists a high degree of uncertainty given that a number of possible alternatives exist in the situation.
(Shannon & Weaver, 1949). But individuals can use communication to reduce this uncertainty. Berger and Calabrese (1975) maintained that “communication behavior is one vehicle through which such predictions and explanations are themselves formulated” (p.101). Individuals have the ability to decrease uncertainty by establishing predictable patterns of interaction. Because of this, reducing uncertainty can help foster the development of relationships.

Given the high level of uncertainty present at the onset of the entry phase, as the amount of verbal communication between strangers’ increases, the level of uncertainty for each interactant in the relationship will decrease. As uncertainty is further reduced, the amount of verbal communication will increase. As nonverbal affiliative expressiveness increases, uncertainty levels will decrease in an initial interaction situation. In addition, decreases in uncertainty level will cause increases in nonverbal affiliative expressiveness.

High levels of uncertainty cause increases in information seeking behavior. As uncertainty levels decline, information seeking behavior decreases. High levels of uncertainty in a relationship cause decreases in the intimacy level of communication content. Low levels of uncertainty produce high levels of intimacy. High levels of uncertainty produce high rates of reciprocity. Low levels of uncertainty produce low reciprocity rates. Similarities between persons reduce uncertainty, while dissimilarities produce increases in uncertainty. Increases in uncertainty level produce decreases in liking; decreases in uncertainty level produce increases in liking.

2.3.0 Competency

A competence in general can be understood as the ability of an individual to activate, use and connect the acquired knowledge in complex, diverse and unpredictable situations (Paranoid, 1997 and Svetlik, 2005). Gruban (2003) defines competencies as the ability to use knowledge and other capabilities, necessary for successful and efficient accomplishment of an appointed task, transaction of work, goal realization, or performance of a certain role in the business process.
Competencies encompass knowledge, expertise, skills, personal and behavioral characteristics, beliefs, motives, values, etc. They are behavioral records of the roles, which people perform in the work processes. Ellstrom (1997) considered competence as an attribute of an employee referring to “A Kind of Human Capital or a Human Resource that can be transformed into Productivity”.

2.3.1 Concept of Competency

The concept of competency is detailed below:

- A generally accepted concept establishes it as an effective ability to successfully carry out some activity which is totally identified. Competence is not a probability of success in the execution of one's job; it is a real and demonstrated capability.
- The concept of "Professional Competence" is the aptitude to carry out a task or job position effectively, on account of possessing the qualifications required for such. In this case, the concepts of competence and qualification are tightly associated, seeing as how qualifications are considered the acquired capability to fulfill duties or carry out a job position.
- Competency is the ability of a student/worker enabling him to accomplish tasks adequately, to find solutions and to realize them in work situations. This identifies the need for describing competencies and assessing them.
- Competencies consist of components that are trainable (knowledge, skills) and components that are more difficult to alter (attitudes, beliefs). In addition competencies refer to a profession in the organizational context.

Changes in organizations are more and more common. They appear at faster pace and employees are expected to be even more adaptable. Leaders play an important role in setting an example for all those values, behaviors and considerations expected from employees. Leaders have to ensure that changes in an organization are accepted and implemented in a way resulting not only in better job performance but also in general understanding and satisfaction of all. Therefore, it is reasonable to set the expectations of key employees – what they
should achieve and how they should behave in order to implement successful changes. In other words, which are the important leadership competencies for successful change management?

It is necessary to distinguish between leadership competencies in profit organizations and public (as well as not-for-profit) organizations. Nature of activity, context, orientation of work and the budget, to name only a few areas, cause certain distinctions in leadership competencies between these two groups. There is a lack of studies comparing leadership factors and skills relevant to profit, public, and not-for-profit organizations.

2.3.2.0 Business Competencies

Competencies refer to capabilities, abilities, skills, proficiencies, expertise and experience of an individual. It is the main strengths or strategic advantages of a person in dealing a business. Business competencies are the combination of pooled knowledge and technical capacities that allow a businessman to be competitive in the marketplace. Theoretically, competency should allow an individual for superior performance in any tasks.

2.3.2.1 Leadership Competencies

Leadership competencies are leadership skills and behaviors that contribute to superior performance. By using a competency-based approach to leadership, organizations can better identify and develop their next generation of leaders. A focus on leadership competencies and skill development promotes better leadership. However, skills needed for a particular position may change depending on the specific leadership level in the organization.

By using a competency approach, organizations can determine what positions at which levels require specific competencies. By looking at his/her current competencies and comparing those to the skills necessary to fill a leadership position, organizations can make better informed decisions in hiring, developing and promoting leaders.
According to Bennis (1987), there are a few leadership competencies that have been proven time and again as mandatory for effective leadership. These include the competency clusters of vision and goal-setting, interpersonal skills, self-knowledge and technical competence regarding the specifics of the business in which the leader works. In addition, commonly referenced competencies include: integrity/honesty, communication, technical competence, diversity consciousness, developing others, results-orientation, change management, interpersonal skills, problem-solving, decision making, political savvy, strategic/visionary thinking, customer focus, business skills, team leadership, influence skills, conflict management, more recently emotional intelligence, social and environmental responsibility, depending on the culture of the organization.

Leadership has gained the attention of researchers’ world wide. Many people believe that leadership is a way to improve their personal, social, and professional lives. Facilitating student leadership competencies development directly and indirectly helps communities, societies, families and industries. The prior research showed that environment and involvement variables have positive significant effect on student leadership development. Also leadership attitude and leadership behaviour have significant positive effects on student leadership development.

2.3.2.2 Communication Competencies

Spitzberg (1988) defined communication competence as "the ability to interact well with others". He explains the term 'well' refers to accuracy, clarity, comprehensibility, coherence, expertise, effectiveness and appropriateness". A much more complete operationalization is provided by Friedrich (1994) when he suggests that communication competence is best understood as "a situational ability to set realistic and appropriate goals and to maximize their achievement by using knowledge of self, other, context, and communication theory to generate adaptive communication performances."
Communication competence is the ability to send messages which promote attainment of goals while maintaining social acceptability. Competent communicators attempt to align themselves with each other’s goals and methods to produce a smooth, productive, and often enjoyable dialogue.

A useful framework for understanding communication competence was designed by Spitzberg & Cupach (1984) and is known as the component model of competence because it is comprised of three specific dimensions: motivation (an individual’s approach or avoidance orientation in various social situations), knowledge (plans of action; knowledge of how to act; procedural knowledge), and skill (behaviours actually performed).

The component model asserts that communication competence is mutually defined by the interdependency of the cognitive component (concerned with knowledge and understanding), the behavioral component (concerned with behavioural skills), and the affective component (concerned with attitudes and feelings about the knowledge and behaviours) by interacting an interpersonal encounter within a specific context. Rubin (1985) explains that communication competence is “an impression formed about the appropriateness of another's communicative behaviour” and that “one goal of the communication scholar is to understand how impressions about communication competence are formed, and to determine how knowledge, skill and motivation lead to perceptions of competence within various contexts” (p. 173).

Communicative competence is dependent on the context in which the interaction takes place (Cody and McLaughlin, 1985; Applegate and Leichy, 1984; Rubin, 1985). Communication which is successful with one group in one situation may not be perceived as competent with a different group in another situation. McCroskey (1982) attempts to clarify the importance of competence when he writes, “The domain of communicative competence includes learning what are the available means (available strategies), how they have been employed in various situations in the past, and being able to determine which ones have the highest probability of success in a given situation (p. 5).
2.4.0 Application of ideas of Constructivism and Social Constructivism in the Present Study

The following details the major ideas of constructivism and social constructivism applied in the present study.

2.4.1 Constructivism

Constructivism is a psychological theory of knowledge (epistemology) which argues that humans generate knowledge and meaning from their experiences. Constructivism is not a specific pedagogy, it is an educational theory developed by Seymour Papert.

Constructivism has roots in philosophy, psychology, sociology, and education. Constructivism's central idea is that human learning is constructed, that learners build new knowledge upon the foundation of previous learning. This view of learning sharply contrasts with one in which learning is the passive transmission of information from one individual to another, a view in which reception, not construction, is key. Two important notions orbit around the simple idea of constructed knowledge.

1. The first is that learners construct new understandings using what they already know. There is no tabula rasa on which new knowledge is etched. Rather, learners come to learning situations with knowledge gained from previous experience, and that prior knowledge influences what new or modified knowledge they will construct from new learning experiences.

2. The second notion is that learning is active rather than passive. Learners confront their understanding in light of what they encounter in the new learning situation. If what learners encounter is inconsistent with their current understanding, their understanding can change to accommodate new experience. Learners remain active throughout this process: they apply current understandings, note relevant elements in new learning experiences,
judge the consistency of prior and emerging knowledge, and based on that judgment, they can modify knowledge.

2.4.2 Constructivist Teaching

Constructivism is a reaction to didactic approaches such as behaviourism and programmed instruction. Constructivism states that learning is an active, contextualized process of constructing knowledge rather than acquiring it. Knowledge is constructed based on personal experiences and hypotheses of the environment. Learners continuously test these hypotheses through social negotiation. Each person has a different interpretation and construction of knowledge process. The learner is not a blank slate (tabula rasa) but brings past experiences and cultural factors to a situation.

One of the primary goals of using constructivist teaching is that students learn how to learn by giving them the training to take initiative for their own learning experiences. According to Audrey Gray, the characteristics of a constructivist classroom are as follows:

1. The learners are actively involved
2. The environment is democratic
3. The activities are interactive and student-centered
4. The teacher facilitates a process of learning in which students are encouraged to be responsible and autonomous

The constructivist approach to teaching and learning is based on a combination of a subset of research within cognitive psychology and a subset of research within social psychology, just as behavior modification techniques are based on operant conditioning theory within behavioral psychology (Bill Huitt). The basic premise is that an individual learner must actively "build" knowledge and skills (Bruner, 1990) and that information exists within these built constructs rather than in the external environment. However, all advocates of constructivism
agree that it is the individual's processing of stimuli from the environment and the resulting cognitive structures, that produce adaptive behaviour, rather than the stimuli themselves (Harnard, 1982). John Dewey (1933/1998) is often cited as the philosophical founder of this approach. Ausubel (1968.), Bruner (1990), and Piaget (1972) are considered as the chief theorists among the cognitive constructionists, while Vygotsky (1978) is the major theorist among the social constructionists. Activity theory and situated learning are two examples of modern work based on the work of Vygotsky and some of his followers. As the structure of education has evolved, the methods of teaching children have evolved with it.

In general, reform-minded teachers are now emphasizing active learning over passive learning. Traditionally, a vast amount of the school day is spent listening to unidirectional lectures in large groups, completing workbooks and taking memorization-driven tests. Reformers and psychologist argue that this form of passive education is extremely inefficient, for it fails to engage the student within a given subject. Students may be taught the Civil War in terms of dates and actions, but they are unable to comprehend and articulate its nuances. This same problem holds true for all areas of education.

Constructivism is a philosophical position that views knowledge as the outcome of experience mediated by one's own prior knowledge and the experience of others. Constructivism holds that the only reality we can know is that which is represented by human thought (Ayn Rand, 1957, Immanuel Kant, 1781/1787). Each new conception of the world is mediated by prior-constructed realities that we take for granted. Human cognitive development is a continually adaptive process of assimilation, accommodation, and correction (Piaget, 1968).

Constructivism has important implications for teaching (Wesley A Hoover). First, teaching cannot be viewed as the transmission of knowledge from enlightened to unenlightened; constructivist teachers do not take the role of the "sage on the stage." Rather, teachers act as "guides on the side" who provide students with opportunities to test the adequacy of their current understandings.
Second, if learning is based on prior knowledge, then teachers must note that knowledge and provide learning environments that exploit inconsistencies between learners' current understandings and the new experiences before them. This challenges teachers for they cannot assume that all children understand something in the same way. Further, children may need different experiences to advance to different levels of understanding.

Third, if students must apply their current understandings in new situations in order to build new knowledge, then teachers must engage students in learning, bringing students' current understandings to the forefront. Teachers can ensure that learning experiences incorporate problems that are important to students, not those that are primarily important to teachers and the educational system. Teachers can also encourage group interaction, where the interplay among participants helps individual students become explicit about their own understanding by comparing it to that of their peers.

Fourth, if new knowledge is actively built, then time is needed to build it. Ample time facilitates student reflection about new experiences, how those experiences line up against current understandings, and how a different understanding might provide students with an improved (not "correct") view of the world.

2.4.3 Social Constructivism

Social constructivism is a sociological theory of Knowledge that applies the general philosophical constructivism into social settings, wherein groups construct knowledge for one another, collaboratively creating a small culture of shared artifacts with shared meanings. When one is immersed within a culture of this sort, one is learning all the time about how to be a part of that culture on many levels. Its origins are largely attributed to Vygotsky.

Constructivism views learning as a process in which the learner actively constructs or builds new ideas or concepts based upon current and past knowledge or experience. In other words, "learning involves constructing one's own
knowledge from one's own experiences." Constructivist learning, therefore, is a very personal endeavor, whereby internalized concepts, rules, and general principles may consequently be applied in a practical real-world context. This is also known as social constructivism.

Social constructivists posit that knowledge is constructed when individuals engage socially in talk and activity about shared problems or tasks. Learning is seen as the process by which individuals are introduced to a culture by more skilled members" (Driver et al., 1994) Constructivism itself has many variations, such as Active learning, discovery learning, and knowledge building. Regardless of the variety, constructivism promotes a student's free exploration within a given framework or structure. The teacher acts as a facilitator who encourages students to discover principles for themselves and to construct knowledge by working to solve realistic problems. Aspects of constructivism can be found in self-directed learning, transformational learning, experiential learning, situated cognition, and reflective practice.

Social constructivism emphasizes the importance of culture and context in understanding what occurs in society and constructing knowledge based on this understanding (Derry, 1999; McMahon, 1997). This perspective is closely associated with many contemporary theories, most notably the developmental theories of Vygotsky and Bruner, and Bandura's social cognitive theory (Shunk, 2000).

2.4.3.1 Assumptions of Social Constructivism

Social constructivism is based on specific assumptions about reality, knowledge, and learning. To understand and apply models of instruction that are rooted in the perspectives of social constructivists, it is important to know the premises that underlie them.

I. Reality: Social constructivists believe that reality is constructed through human activity. Members of a society together invent the properties of the
world (Kukla, 2000). For the social constructivist, reality cannot be discovered: it does not exist prior to its social invention.

II. Knowledge: To social constructivists, knowledge is also a human product, and is socially and culturally constructed (Ernest, 1999; Gredler, 1997; Prat & Floden, 1994). Individuals create meaning through their interactions with each other and with the environment they live in.

III. Learning: Social constructivists view learning as a social process. It does not take place only within an individual, nor is it a passive development of behaviours that are shaped by external forces (McMahon, 1997). Meaningful learning occurs when individuals are engaged in social activities.

2.4.3.2 Conclusion on Constructivism and Social Constructivism

The application of Vygotsky's constructivist theory, which is often called social constructivism, has much more room for an active learning. For Vygotsky, the culture gives the child the cognitive tools needed for development. The type and quality of those tools determines, to a much greater extent than they do in Piaget's theory, the pattern and rate of development. Adults such as parents and teachers are conduits for the tools of the culture, including language. The tools the culture provides a child include cultural history, social context, and language. Today they also include electronic forms of information access.

Vygotsky emphasized the critical importance of culture and social context for cognitive development. Vygotsky's the Zone of Proximal Development is probably his best-known concept. It argues that students can, with help from adults or children who are more advanced, master concepts and ideas that they cannot understand on their own.

According to Vygotsky's social constructivism, a constructivist teacher creates a context for learning in which students can become engaged in interesting activities that encourages and facilitates learning. The teacher does not simply stand by, however, and watch children explore and discover. Instead, the teacher
may often guide students as they approach problems, may encourage them to work in groups to think about issues and questions, and support them with encouragement and advice as they tackle problems, adventures, and challenges that are rooted in real life situations that are both interesting to the students and satisfying in terms of the result of their work.

Instructional models based on the social constructivist perspective stress the need for collaboration among learners and with practitioners in the society (Lave & Wenger, 1991; McMahon, 1997). Lave and Wenger (1991) assert that a society’s practical knowledge is situated in relations among practitioners, their practice, and the social organization and political economy of communities of practice. For this reason, learning should involve such knowledge and practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Gredler, 1997). Social constructivist approaches can include reciprocal teaching, peer collaboration, cognitive apprenticeships, problem-based instruction, web quests, anchored instruction, negotiation within the communicating groups and other methods that involve learning with others (Gredler, 1997; Prawat & Floden and Shunk, 2000).

In this context social constructivism represents one of the big ideas in education. Its implications for how teachers teach and learn to teach are enormous. If our efforts in reforming education for all students are to succeed, then we must focus on students. To date, a focus on student-centered learning may well be the most important contribution of constructivism.