CHAPTER II

COMMUNICATION BASICS
**Chapter Objectives:**

1. To understand the concept and meaning of communication.
2. To define the term communication.
3. To identify and analyse the various dimensions of communication.
4. To present the communication models given by different experts.

In this chapter basic issues of communication have been discussed. Common sense, dictionary and encyclopedic meaning of the term have been presented. Communication has been classified along different dimensions and thoroughly analysed in this chapter. It highlights the communication model in search of a suitable model for thorough careful discussion about thirteen models of communication.
2.1. CONCEPT OF COMMUNICATION:

The word communication was derived from the Latin 'Communicare' which means 'to make common, to share, to impart, to transmit'. The idea of communication existed before the dawn of civilization. As and when 'man' changed into 'men' - single man changed into group. Before civilization - the concept of communication was grown.

The concept of communication is a dynamic one, it is ever-changing and endless. Communication is an extremely broad topic and the term is not restricted to any one subject. The communication concepts are freely used by most people in the society, the general public, scholars associated with cybernetics, computer science, biology, psychology, education, sociology, linguistics and semantics, political science, telecommunication, mass communication, library science, organizational behaviour, management etc.

The American psychiatrist and scholar Jurgen Ruesch* has identified 40 varieties of disciplinary approaches to the subject communication, including architectural, anthropological, psychological, political and many other interpretations. Interests in communication has been stimulated by the advancement of science and technology, mainly to the computer, telegraph, telephone, broadcasting, radio, television, printing and other new phenomenon of mass communication.

The subject communication attracted the scholars' attention as a topic of interest for a long age:

"Communication, the exchange of meaning between individuals through a common system of symbols, concerned scholars since the time of ancient Greece. Until modern times, however, the topic was usually subsumed under other disciplines and taken for granted as a natural process inherent to each." (p.485).

2.1.1. Definitions of Communication and Their Critical Analysis:

Communication has several different and equally acceptable meaning. Therefore, many definitions are given by the communication specialists. These are being presented in the following paragraphs.

2.1.1.1. Dictionary definitions:

Oxford English Dictionary** has given twelve meanings about communication and the following are relevant to our area of interest.

1. "The action of communicating or imparting.

2. The imparting, conveying, or exchange of ideas, knowledge, information etc. (Whether by speech, writing, or signs).

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3. Interchange of speech, conversation, conference.

4. Access or means of access between two or more persons or places; the action or faculty of passing from one place to another; passage (between two places, vessels, or spaces)". (p. 578).

Webster's Third New International Dictionary* enumerates eight meanings about the term communication. The relevant meanings are presented here:

1. The act or action imparting or transmitting.

2. A process by which meanings are exchanged between individuals through a common system of symbols (as language, signs, or gestures).

3. An art that deals with expressing and exchanging ideas effectively in speech or writing or through the graphic, or dramatic arts and that is taught as an integrated programme at various levels of education in distinction to traditional separate courses in composition and speech.

4. The function in an industrial organisation that transmits ideas, policies, and orders". (p. 460).

2.1.1.2. **Encyclopedia definitions**:

*Encyclopedia Britannica*® has offered the definition of communication, given by I.R. Richard in the year 1928, as a discrete aspect of human enterprise which according to this encyclopedia in some way still the best:

"Communication takes place when one mind so acts upon its environment that another mind is influenced, and in that other mind an experience occurs which is like the experience in the first mind, and is caused in part by that experience." (p.685).

*Encyclopedia Americana*® defines:

"Communication, in its most general sense, is a chain of events in which the significant link is a message. The chain connects a source that originates and a destination that interprets the message. The process also involves the production, transmission, and reception of messages. In its broadest humanising sense, communication is a source and extension of imagination in forms that can be learned and shared. It is the production, perception and understanding of messages that bear man's notion of what is, what is important, what is right, and what is related to something else." (p.423).

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*Encyclopedia Britannica, Vol.16.*
Collier's Encyclopedia* defines communication thus:

"Communication, transferring information from person to person or point to point, generally by signals and messages". (p.379).

International Encyclopedia of Social Sciences** defines communication as:

"That process whereby encapsulated particles of meaning are transmitted between individual organisms by means of specialized sending and receiving devices". (p.24).

This encyclopedia, again, gives a broad definition of communication:

"Communication is any transmission of signs, signals, or symbols between persons".*** (p.38).

2.1.1.3. Specialists' definitions:

Specialists of various disciplines have given numerous definitions some of which are given below:

Kerseybcki (1930), one of the pioneer semanticians, has stated:

"Language is time-binding". (p.39).

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According to Korsybacki communication processes are a unique ingredient and they permit man to use and reuse in the present, the experiences of others not only in the past but in a broad-range present.

Lee (1941), another semanticists stated about communication in the following words:

"Men can draw from the past, in and through the present, and make ready for the future. The experience of the race can be accumulated, worked over, magnified, and transmitted." (p.4).

Lee remarks men can do this they have the capacity to use symbols.

Miller (1951) defines communication thus:

"Communication means that information is passed from one place to another." (p.6).

Smith (1966) views on the topic and defines the term:

"Every communication act as transmission of information, consisting of discriminative stimuli, from a source to a recipient." (p.66).

Bereson and Steiner (1964) define the term communication in the following way:

"Communication: the transmission of information ideas, emotions, skills, etc. by the use of symbols-words, pictures, figures, graphs, etc." (p.234).

Shanon and Weaver (1949) define communication thus:

"The word communication can be used in a broad sense to include all the procedures by which
one mind may affect another. This of course, involves not only written and oral speech, but also music, the pictorial arts, the theatre, the ballet and in fact all human behaviour". (p.98).

Communication plays a vital role in organisation. Organisation cannot exist without communication. Scholars in organisational management and management practitioners have offered several definitions of communication and some of them are stated here:

Hughes (1979) comments:

"Communication is the key." (p.44).

In a conversation Argyris (1974) comments on the topic communication in the following words:

"... One of my fundamental assumptions is that the most important resource an organisation has is valid information ..." (p.62).

Davis (1981) focuses on the topic and states:

"Every act of communication influences the organisation in some way." (p.399).

Schneider and others (1975) defines communication thus:

"Communication is to the business organisation what electric current is to a wiring system". (p.6).

Roets and O'Donnell (1978) remark:

"Good communication has been defined as the interchange of thought or information to bring about mutual understanding and confidence". (p.396).
Anderson (1972) defines communication as a:

"Dynamic process in which man consciously or
unconsciously affects the cognitions of another
through materials or agencies used in symbolic
ways." (p.5).

Chatterjee (1980) defines communication in the following
words:

"Communication serves as a linking process by
which parts of an organisational system are
tied together". (p.226).

Robbins (1988) defines the term thus:

"Communication can be thought as a process or
flow." (p.208).

Stoner and Wankel (1988) define communication as:

"The process by which people attempt to share
meaning via the transmission of symbolic
messages." (p.500).

Kets de Vries and Weihrich (1988) define communication as:

"The transfer of information from the sender to
the receiver, with the information being
understood by the receiver." (p.461).

According to Glueck (1977) managers are involved in two kinds
of communication, viz., 1) interpersonal and 2) Organisational.
Glueck defines interpersonal communication as under:

"Interpersonal communication is the process of
exchanging information and transmitting meaning
between two people or in a small group of people." (p. 218).

Glueck defines organisational communication as:

"Organisational communication is the process by which managers develop a system to give information and transmit meaning to large numbers of people within the organisation and to relevant individuals and institutions outside of it." (p. 218).

Communication is a personal process, sharing this view Schramm (1971) writes:

"Let us understand clearly one thing about it: Communication (human communication, at least) is something people do. It has no life of its own. There is no magic about it except what people in the communication relationship put into it. There is no meaning in a message except what people put into it.... To understand the human communication process one must understand how people relate to each other." (p. 17).

In addition to its being a human process, Fisher (1974) emphasises the behavioural implications of communication and points out that:

"The only means by which one person can influence is by the behaviours he performs - that is, the communicative exchanges between people provide the sole method by which influence or effects can be achieved." (p. 23).
The personal and behavioural exchange processes are vital to the communication process. The following definition, given by Vardaman and Halterman (1968) has pointed out the very comprehensive nature of communication in to-day's organisations:

"By communication we mean the flow of material, information, perception and understandings between various parts and members of an organisation... all the methods, means, and media of communication (communication technology), all the channels, networks and systems of communication (organisational structure), all the person-to-person interchange (interpersonal communication) .... It includes all aspects of communication: up, down, lateral; speaking, writing, listening, reading; methods, media, modes, channels, networks, flows; inter-personnel, intraorganisational, inter organisational". (p.3-4).

Communication in the library system, as Bonna (1976) has defined, is:

"The work of a library administrator performs to create understanding between himself and the organisation of which his library is a part, between himself and his staff, and between the individual members of the staff. It is also the work he and the library staff together perform in order to create understanding between the library and the user." (p.31).
2.1.1.4. Critical Analysis of the Definitions:

Communication as a subject of study has faced a major difficulty to defining what it is. Allen (1964) has recognised this problem and remarked:

"A great deal of information is conveyed about communication without much real understanding taking place as to what is meant. Many a book has been written on the subject with never an attempt to define the term". (p.272).

This problem is also recognised by Roberts (1979). To study the subject communication he states in the following:

"Dance (1970) reviewed some ninetyfive definitions of communication and identified fifteen conceptual components. The definitions each contained one or more of the components. To give some idea of the range and complexity of notions about communication, it is worth stating the concepts Dance identified: 1. symbolic, verbal or speech elements; 2. understanding; 3. interaction, relationships and social processes; 4. reduction of uncertainty; 5. an act or process of transmission; 6. transfer, transmission, and interchange; 7. linking and binding; 8. commonality, (e.g. sharing an experience as a result of communication act); 9. channel, carrier, means and route concepts; 10. replication of memory; 11. discriminative response, behaviour
modification, response, change; 12. stimuli;
13. intentional effects; 14. transmission
between different states over time; 15. power*(p.99).

To study communication part of the problem is that communi-
cation experts did not agree upon a definition themselves. A
good number of definitions are given by them, but none of them
widely accepted. Communication is broad topic and not confined to
any one subject. Encyclopedia Britannica* points out modern
interests of the subject communication which has centred upon:

"1) The mass communication industries; the
people who run them, and the effects they have
upon their audiences;
2) Persuasive communication and the use of technology
to influence dispositions;
3) Process of interpersonal communication as
mediators of information;
4) Dynamics of verbal and non-verbal (and perhaps
extrasensory) communication between individuals;
5) Perception of different kinds of communication;
6) Uses of communication technology for social and
artistic purposes, including education in and
out of schools; and
7) Development of relevant criticism for artistic
endeavours employing modern communications
technology."(p.686).

*Encyclopedia Britannica, Vol.16 : Chicago : Encyclopedia
Britannica Inc. 1986.
After a thorough review of all the definitions of communication and organizational communication, and after an indepth study of the Dance's conceptual components, the following definition of communication may be derived for the present study to serve as a conceptual basis with special references to library as an organization.

Communication is the transmission of material and information, both symbolic and verbal, between various parts or members of library with a view to attain understanding, interaction, relationship and social processes for the best achievement of the objectives of a library.

2.2. DIMENSIONS OF COMMUNICATION:

The concept of communication as it has been discussed in the previous section has obviously many facets. Any multifaceted concept may be classified independently along the different dimensions. Communication may be classified along the following dimensions:
1) Method, 2) Flow or line, 3) Structural arrangement,
4) Processes, 5) Way and 6) Channel. These are being discussed one by one.

2.2.1. Method of Communication:

During participation in the job or work in any organisation the method of communication may be according to Davis (1961): i) words, ii) pictures, and iii) action (non-verbal communication).
2.2.1.1. Words :

Use of words is the main communication method in the job or work. During job many employees spend more than fifty percent of their time in word communication.

2.2.1.2. Picture :

Pictures are used to clarify the word communication. There are provisions for the extensive use of pictures in organisations such as blue print, charts, maps, films, models and the like. The use of pictures are most effective to an organisation when they are used with well-chosen words and actions.

2.2.1.3. Action (non-verbal communication) :

The third type of method of communication is action which is also known as non-verbal communication. Action is an important way of communication. A manager may visit to any sub-system to his organisation. During this visit he may be attracted to one's job and comes to his desk and smiles - these are actions and methods of communication with that person.

According to McCasky (1979), an important part of non-verbal communication is body language. People communicate meaning to others with their bodies in interpersonal interaction. Davis (1981) argues that:

"The face and the hands are especially important source of body language in work situations.
Examples are eye contact, eye movement, smiles and frowns, touching, and a furrowed brow .... Other types of body language are closeness, hip movements
and breathing rate". (p.410).

2.2.2. Flow or Line of Communication:

In an organisation, communication comes or flows through a definite line, vertically or horizontally, from superior to subordinate, subordinate to superior, subordinate to subordinate. Therefore, the possible flow of communication along different directions are:

1) Vertical communication:
   a) Downward
   b) Upward

2) Horizontal communication or Lateral or sideward

3) Diagonal

4) Outward.

2.2.2.1. Downward communication:

In the words of Koontz and Weihrich (1968):

"Downward communication flows from people at higher levels to those at lower levels in the organisational hierarchy. This kind of communication exists especially in organisations with an authoritarian atmosphere. The kinds of media used for downward oral communication include instructions, speeches, meetings, the telephone, loudspeakers, and even the grapevine. Examples of written downward communication are memoranda, letters, handbooks, pamphlets, policy statements, procedures, and electronic news display". (p.466).
Downward communication is also known as superior-subordinate
communication. Katz and Kahn (1978) have identified five general
purposes of superior-subordinate communication in an
organisation:

1. to give specific task directives about job
   instructions.
2. to give information about organisational
   procedures and practices.
3. to provide information about the rationale
   of the job.
4. to tell subordinates about their performances.
5. to provide ideological information to facilitate
   the indoctrination of goals." (p.440).

There are some problems in downwards communication. Jones
and Weihrich (1965) have identified these problems. It is a
lengthy process and its major problem lies in filtering. Informa-
tion is often lost or substantially distorted as it comes down
through the long chain of command. In fact, it is a time-consuming
process and many directives are not understood or even read.

2.2.2.1. Upward communication:

Upward communication flows from subordinates to superiors
and it is continued up to the organisational hierarchy. To discuss
upward communication, Schneider and others (1975) write:

"The type of communication that normally flow
upward in an organisation are based on the
communication demand system as designed by
management in conformance by various organisational practices, policies and decisions. Standard reporting items generally revolve round the activities of the organisations". (p.61).

Upward communication is welcomed, as there is the provision of feedback, superiors informed of the current problems and its solution. It eases superiors how subordinates feel about their jobs, co-workers, and organisation in general. (Robbins 1988).

By saying upward difficulties Davis (1981) writes:

"Upward communications tend to travel slowly. They are usually subject to delay in filtering. Each level is reluctant to take any problem upward because to do so is considered an admission of failure; therefore each level delays the communication in an effort to decide how to solve the problem. If the problem cannot be solved, the message may be filtered so that higher management receives only part of the information. There is a natural tendency for an employee to tell a superior only what the employee thinks the superior wants to hear. Obviously a superior cannot be told all that subordinates know, so each subordinate has genuine reasons for selecting, interpreting, and other filtering actions. Usually the employee is doing the best that human emotions and judgement will allow but by the time filtering has happened
at several levels, the original communication may be hardly recognisable" (p.427).

2.2.2.3. Horizontally, lateral or sideward communication:

In this type, communication flows in horizontal line. When communication takes place among the people of same working group on the same or similar organisational level either among subordinates, is called lateral or sideward or horizontal communication.

Horizontal communication provides authoritarian leadership to the working people. They increase their feelings of security, acceptance, and recognition by comparing themselves with group members on their same level. It benefits the organisation by providing increased co-ordination. But there exists a danger here, that is employees might overdepend on horizontal communication when they should be going down or up communication ladder. (Schneider and others 1975).

2.2.2.4. Diagonal communication:

In this communication there is no line rigidity. It is on the basis of diagonal flow, with persons are different levels who have not direct reporting relationships. This diagonal communication is a type of Horizontal communication.

This Horizontal communication may come in oral form and also in written form. Examples of oral form is when employees are assembled together for a formal meeting, committee or conferences and also in informal meeting at the lunch hour, it occurs. It also occurs when individual members of different departments are grouped into task teams and staff with functional and advisory authority interacts with line managers in different departments.
The examples of written forms of horizontal communications include the company newspaper or magazine and bulletin boards.

To discuss the purpose of horizontal communication Koons and Weirich (1968) writes:

"This kind of communication is used to speed information flow, to improve understanding, and to co-ordinate efforts for the achievement of organisational objectives. A great deal of communication does not follow the organisational hierarchy but cuts across the chain of command". (p.467-468).

This horizontal or crosswise communication may create some difficulties, as mentioned in the section 2.1.2.3., but it is necessary for organisations in order to respond to the needs of the complex and dynamic organisational environment. Koons and Weirich (1968) prescribed safeguard measures to avoid the problem, by saying this:

"Because information may not follow the chain of command, proper safe-guards need to be taken to prevent potential problems. Specially, crosswise communication should rest on the understanding that (1) crosswise relationships will be encouraged wherever they are appropriate, (2) subordinate will refrain from making commitments beyond their authority, and (3) subordinates will keep superiors informed of important interdepartmental activities". (p.467).
2.2.2.3. Outward communication:

It is beyond internal communication, Simons (1976) writes on outward communication thus:

"Communication in the library system is not limited to internal communication. In common with all other service organisations, there is for libraries that most important problem of all - direct communication with the public. I think that we must not only be understanding in our communications with the library user but also especially careful about understanding exactly what it is he needs to know. The ability to interrogate a library user in order to help him find the information he needs, or find it for him, and to do this without annoying him, is a skill that boarders on being an art". (p.31).

2.2.3. Structural Arrangement of Communication:

Communication may be classified in terms of its structural arrangement into two; 1) Administrative and 2) Interpersonal (Schneider and others 1975).

2.2.3.1. Administrative communication:

Administrative communication strictly follow the organisational hierarchy and the flow of orders, directives and control media from higher-management level down to the employees as per organisation chart. And if it is needed to report, then, these reports back to the hierarchy chains of the organisation.
Administrative communication includes all forms of communication, oral, written, actual or implied.

2.2.3.2. Interpersonal communication:

This communication occurs between the employees of same level group. It may occur in the high management level, or lower management level, or supervisory level, or working group level, normally on the oral plane. It may cover work-processes, questions, training interpretations etc. It may be of two types a) work-related and b) social related. It is usually carried out on a horizontal plane.

2.2.4. Processes of Communication:

In respect of the process, communication may be classified as (i) Normal Routine, (ii) Normal Oral and (iii) Normal Written communication process. Details of them are discussed one by one.

2.2.4.1. Normal routine communication process:

This involves day to day activity of organisation which included information gathering, recording, storing and transmitting. The function of information processing has a three-fold objectives mentioned by Schneider and others (1975).

1. Historical
   a) Collection of relevant data
   b) Processing of data
   c) Storing of data

2. Analytical (or interpretative)

3. Decision making
   a) Comparative judgements
   b) Interpretative judgements
Management is concerned with the methods employed for processing routine communications because it is aware that information is a prelude to judgement, and judgement is fundamental to decision making. All information processing is predicated upon its: 1) Relevance, 2) Timeliness and 3) Accuracy.

It is apparent that information that is not relevant is worthless; that if information is not received in time for proper analysis, it may be too late to be effective; and finally, if information is not accurate, it may be worse than no information at all.

Those who are responsible for the collecting, processing, storing, and compiling of routine data, governing business operations, have a responsibility to assist the management in making the following types of information-processing activities:

1. What types of information might be developed that will best assist management in its critical decision making?

2. How best might this information be communicated?

3. How best might this information be systematised?

4. How best might this information be co-ordinated?

2.2.4.2. Formal oral communication processes:

For the purposeful operation of any organisation oral communication activities are essential. The following are the example of oral communication activities:

There are some advantages of oral communication process. Firstly, in this form of communication, questions can be asked and answered at once. Secondly, there is complete interchange between speaker and listener, as speakers are forced into direct contact with listeners. But oral communication process has some defects also. Many listeners fail to ask the right question and only for this reason they are left with inadequate information, which can result in costly error. (Koesten and O'Donnell 1973).

2.2.4.3. Normal written communication processes:

There are written communication activities which is needed for the constant operation throughout the organisation. Some of them are listed below:

1. Written memoranda; 2. Reports (which includes)
   a) Research reports, b) Special reports,
   c) Monthly reports, d) Accounting reports,
   e) Progress reports, f) Interim reports; 3. Telegrams;
4. Letters; 5. Employee newspaper; 6. Plant magazine;
11. Organisation charts and rules; 11. Corporate charters and other legal documents etc.

(Schneider and others 1975).

There are some advantages and disadvantages of written communication. It has the advantage that written communication can be retained as records and reference source for future use. As they are carefully formulated and thus save time and money. One of the disadvantages of written communication is that actual meaning of the message is misunderstood and even remain untouched by the employees and therefore often fail to communicate.

2.3.5. Way of Communication:

Discussion in the earlier section implies that communication may be one-way or two-way. In one-way communication, sender transmits a message without expecting or getting feedback from the receiver. Policy statements from top managers are the examples of one-way communication.

In two-way communication, a sender transmits a message and the receiver returns feedback to the sender. Making a suggestion to a subordinate and receiving a question or counter-suggestion is an example of two-way communication (Stenger and Winkel 1983).

Two-way communication is better than one-way communication, as there is feedback opportunity by which speaker can adjust the message to fit response of the receiver. In the words of Davis (1981):

"This opportunity to adjust to the receiver is the great advantage of two-way communication"
compared with the one-way variety. It provides better understanding for both parties. There are other benefits of effective two-way communication. Frustration is reduced, and favourable feelings usually are generated. Accuracy of work is much improved". (p.403).

But, two-way communication has some problems. These problems are also identified by Davis (1981). He writes:

"Two-way communication is not exclusively beneficial. It also can cause difficulties. Two people may strongly disagree about some item but not realize it until they establish two-way communication. When their strong differences, they may feel even further separated from each other, but at least two-way communication has helped them understand the nature of their differences. Another difficulty that may occur is cognitive dissonance. This happens when people receive information incompatible with their value systems or other information they have. This dissonance sets up internal conflict that causes anxiety and other reactions. Since people do not feel comfortable with dissonance, they try to remove it. Perhaps they will try to adjust their communication inputs, change their interpretation of the inputs, or change their values. They may even refuse to
believe the dissonant input, or they may rationalize it out of the way". (p.403).

Leavitt (1978) sketched some guidelines for communication and that are pointed out by Stoner and Wankel (1988) thus:

"If communication must be fast and accuracy is easy to achieve ..., one-way communication is both more economical and more efficient. If ordeline is considered vital as in a large, public meeting - one way communication might also be more appropriate. One-way communication also has political benefits. It reduces the chance that the sender's mistakes will be publicly revealed and challenged.

"Where accuracy of communication is important however (as an instructions for carrying out complex tasks), the two-way method is almost essential. Without feedback from the receiver, the sender has little basis for judging the accuracy of the communication or the degree of understanding and comprehension experienced by the receivers.

"In most situations, managers will have to create the most efficient mix of one-way and two-way communication. Some categories of managerial communications, such as straightforward statements of company rules and policies, require little or no feedback to assure clarity. In many other cases,
such as the formulation of organisational objectives or the implementation of a new sales strategy, two-way communication is usually essential. (p. 503).

2.2.6. Channel of Communication :

In this section the path of communication transmission is being discussed which is also called the channel of communication. In the words of Glueck (1977):

"A communication channel is the route through which a message passes, that is, the chain of personnel who pass the message one." (p. 223).

There are two kinds of communication channels (i) formal and (ii) informal.

2.2.6.1. Formal Communication :

Formal communication channels are established when the communication follows the organisation chart. This communication creates superior–subordinate employee relationships within the organisation and its various departments. These formal channels are carefully defined in each large organisation. Who sends the message to whom and who receives the information from whom, these orders are established fact in the formal communication channel. In each and every organisation, a good deal of information passes through this formal channel of communication.

2.2.6.2. Informal Communication :

There are informal channels of communication, outside this established formal chain of commands, which is usually called
the grapevine. This grapevine exists alone with formal communication system. In informal channels communication move in several directions, viz., vertically, horizontally, and/or digonally, in a combined form. Every organisation has grapevines as they serve several purposes and also fulfil the needs of the organisation. Glueck (1977) has considered in the following four points:

"1. Grapevines are fast.
2. Grapevines are accurate.
3. Grapevines are efficient.
4. Grapevines fulfil people's need" (p. 258).

To discuss grapevine Davis (1981) writes:

"Since the grapevine arises from social interaction, it is as fickle, dynamic, and varied as people are. It is the expression of their natural motivation to communication. It is the exercise of their freedom of speech and is a natural, normal activity .... In a sense, the grapevine is a human birthright, because whenever people congregate into groups, the grapevine is sure to develop." (p. 336-337).

Davis (1981) has pointed out some problems of grapevines. Grapevine informations are usually incomplete. Grapevine tends to carry the truth but it rarely carries the whole truth.

Most organisations have the formal and informal channels of communication side-by-side for better management. Organisations establish chain of command through which communications
flew as their organisational chart. Most written communications follow these formal channels in the superior-subordinate hierarchy.

But formal channels face a series of problems and need help from the informal channels to overcome these problems. Glueck (1977) has identified the areas in which formal communication needs help from informal communication:

"First, formal channels often become overloaded, get clogged up, and slow down, especially in times of crisis. Second, as the organisation gets larger, these channels have to be used to communicate lengthy rules, regulations, policies and the like. In many ways, then, the formal channels supplement the grapevine or serve the purpose of communicating official communication." (p.261).

Having the glimpses of different types of communication and their importance in an organisation, it is apparent that almost all the dimensions of communication are highly relevant to the effective management of library. But a question on the specific pattern or model of communication in libraries remains unresolved. The reason is not difficult to understand. Studies of communication are mostly based on industrial management and therefore, other types of organisation have been ignored. This will be further evident in the following section where models of communication have been discussed.
2.3. MODELS OF COMMUNICATION:

There are so many models of communication. Before discussing them it is necessary to highlight the purpose and functions of models.

2.3.1. Purpose & Functions of Models:

A good number of respected communication theorists have constructed working models of communication. These models of communication illustrate what is taking place in the communicative processes. The models of communication are the most germane to the management practitioners in understanding and grasping the complexities of management communication. Miller (1968) has argued that there are three basic functions for any communication model. Schneider, Donaghy and Newman (1975) has stated Miller's idea of three basic functions of communication model in their discussion thus:

"The first function is its organisation and/or teaching potential. It allows the student or practitioner to isolate certain aspects of the communicative processes in order to demonstrate the relevancy factor in sending or receiving activities. The second function of a communication model is its heuristic or research function. Since a model outlines the relevant variables in a given communication situation, it thus serves as an impetus or sample in generating communication research. The third function of a model is
its anticipatory or predictive function. It allows us to make an educated guess concerning the possible factors which determine the level of success or failure in communication situation." (p.26-27).

2.3.2. The Models:

In this part of our discussion, we should study the communication models which are most widely discussed.

2.3.2.1. Aristotelian Model:

Aristotle, who lived centuries before Christ, provides the first basic simplest model of communication process* as follows:

Sender ———> Message ———> Receiver

The forms of communication as observed by Aristotle were of the persuasive type which advocated in the courtrooms, legislative assemblies and public meetings as the speaker—the speech—the listener.

This Aristotelian model of communication is an one-way process following from the speaker through his messages to the listener. There was no provision for the listener to turn affect or persuade the speaker. The Aristotelian model influenced communication theory for many years. It is still widely read in the disciplines of speech and English.

2.3.2.2. Hovland Model (1959)

The Hovland model is receiver— or listener—oriented and also persuasive in nature. It deals basically with the area in

the Aristotelian model which was called 'listener-sething'.

Neuland's (1939) model of communication process is represented by Schneider Donaghy and Newman (1975) as given in figure 2.1.

In this model both the speaker and the message (speech) are seen as "Observable communication stimuli" which have the characteristics of content, communicator media and situational factors.

The predispositional factors represent the result of all our past experiences which influence the reception of new communication stimuli.

Attention, comprehension, and acceptance are all inter-related. If any managerial communication fails to elicit the attention of intended receiver, then no comprehension or acceptance will follow.

Even if a message is accepted, there is no guarantee of conformance or performance change. It is possible for one to change one's opinion, perception, action or feelings (affect) without the change of any other.
Figure 2.1.
Major features in Attitude change produced by means of Social Communication (Hovland).
2.3.2.3. **Shannon and Weaver model**:  
Shannon and Weaver (1949) work together in the field of information theory. They give us one communication model (Figure 2.2) which is commonly known as information theory model of communication:

![Diagram of Shannon and Weaver model of Communication]

**Figure 2.2: Shannon and Weaver model of Communication**

This model involves some steps: (1) an information source which selects the desired message out of all the possible messages; (2) now a transmitter which changes the message into a signal; (3) signal can be sent over some communication channel to a receiver; (4) receiver receives the intended message in some destination; and finally (5) a noise source that can introduce any new foreign information into the signal.

The Shannon-Weaver model is currently relevant to the management situation as data storage, retrieval and transmission devices become more and more central to the management process.
2.3.3.4. Collins and Gustsknow, group communication model:

The model of communication introduced by Collins and Gustsknow (1964) is primarily based on communication of groups (Figure 2.3).

![Diagram of Collins and Gustsknow's model of communication]

**Figure 2.3:** Collins and Gustsknow model of communication
There are seven boxes in this model under four heads: sources, behaviours, outputs and rewards. The top three boxes represent the sources, behaviours and rewards in connection with the task aspect of group operation. The lower three boxes also represent the sources, behaviour and rewards in connection with the interpersonal aspect of group operation. Collins and Guest know model stresses the relationship between the task and the interpersonal behaviour.

Now, we may focus our attention to the middle box: the all-important output box of the model. Collins and Guest know have group productivity into two parts: 1) individual productivity and 2) assembly-effect bonuses. One line is drawn from task behaviours to individual productivity which represents the proposition that when a group concentrates its effort on the task obstacles, they feel that they are working merely as a collection of individuals. Another line is drawn from task behaviours to assembly-effect bonuses, which actually means, when the group is able to achieve collectively something and that have not been achieved by any member working alone or by a combination of individual efforts, and thus build an interpersonal relationship. Once this interpersonal relationship is established, it can functionally continue for a long period of time and for a variety of problems.
Thayer Model of organisational communication:

Thayer (1967) represents one communication model. (Figure 2.4). It represents the levels of communication.

Thayer searched four levels of communication Organisational, Interpersonal, Intrapersonal and Technical which are derived from the basic sources or determinants of human communication behaviour: Physiological, Psychological, Sociological and Technological.
2.3.2.6. Koontz & Weihrich model:

Koontz and Weihrich (1969) has diagrammed their communication model as in Figure 2.5. given below:

![Communication Model Diagram]

Figure 2.5: Koontz & Weihrich model of communication

In the above model, communication begins with the sender, who has a thought, which is then encoded in a way that can be understood by the sender and the receiver both. Now the information is transmitted through a channel, which links the sender and the receiver. The proper selection of channel is vital for effective communication. For each effective communication there is a receiver who receives the message and this is reception here. The next step in the process is decoding and in this step the receiver converts the message into thought. The communication is completed as and when it is understood. Sometimes communication is affected by noise and that hinders communication. This noise may come from any side from the sender or receiver or transmission. Effective-
ness of communication be confirmed and checked through feedback.

2.3.2.7. **Herbert Model**

Herbert (1976) presents a model of communication process as in Figure 2.6 which may help us to analyse communication situation.

![Communication Diagram](attachment:communication_diagram.png)

**Figure 2.6.** Herbert model of communication

Now, we may discuss the sequence of elements of communication as shown by Herbert. The source means here the individual who is making the communication attempt, which requires a formidable process of abstracting and symbolising for the communication. Once the symbols are selected, they are arranged into some sort of message. This message must be passed through an appropriate channel to transmit the communication. The recipient
of the transmitted message is the receiver. Now the received symbolic message must be decoded and this step in communication process is interpretation. The next necessary step is inferring meaning from the message can take place. Thus, with the successful completion of each step of communication process receiver received the message as desired by the source attempted to communicate. It is unfortunate, the process is so complicated that there is every possibility of error at each successive step that the meaning inferred by the receiver may be completely different from that the source attempted to communicate. There is a provision in this process in which the receiver changes his role and he becomes the source. Thus by feedback the receiver may confirm the impact of original message.

2.3.2.5. Barlo model of communication:

The first widely recognised communication model, which presents communication as a dynamic, interactive process, which is proposed by Barlo (1960), is being shown in Figure 2.7 given below.

![Diagram of Barlo Model of Communication]

Figure 2.7: Barlo model of communication
With the following ideas, Berlo has countered the linear, step-by-step information approach:

"If we accept the concept of process, we view events and relationships as dynamic, ongoing, ever-changing, continuous. When we label something as a process, we also mean that it does not have a beginning, an end, a fixed sequence of events. It is not static, at rest. It is moving. The ingredients within a process interact; each affects all the others". (p. 24).

2.3.2.9. Gerbner's Model (1956)

George Gerbner (Fiske 1982) has produced an attempt to sketch a general purpose model of communication as in Figure 2.8. This communication process consists of two alternating dimensions (1) the perceptual or receptive, and (2) the communicating or means or control dimension.

![Gerbner's model of communication](image_url)
Garbmer's model has three stages. The first stage is its horizontal dimension (upper). The process of communication in this model starts with an event $E$. This $E$ or event is something which has its external reality which is perceived by $M$ i.e., man or machine. Here, $M$'s perception of $E$ is a percept $E_1$. The relationship between $E$ and $E_1$ involves some selection. If $M$ is machine, then the selection is determined by its technicalitities, etc. If $M$ is a human being, then the selection depends on a process of interaction or negotiation and controlled by cultural experience.

The second stage is its vertical dimension. Now, in this stage the percept $E_1$ is converted into a signal of $E$ (event) as coded SE. This is actually a message, that is a signal or statement about the event. The message $S^E$ is divided into two: $S$ refers to the form of the signal and $E$ refers to its content. SE is a unified concept here and the relationship between $S$ form and $E$ content is dynamic and interactive.

The third stage of the process is its horizontal dimension (lower). Now, receiver $M_2$ has not directly perceived the event $E$, but perceived a signal or statement about an event or $S^E$. Here is, also, involved a process of interaction or negotiation between the receiver and the message. The message is never completely realized and the form it takes is not determined until and unless interaction or negotiation occurs between $M_2$ and $S^E$. Thus final meaning of the message occurs that is $SE_1$. 
2.3.3.10. Lasswell's model (1948)

Lasswell's model is based on the verbal version of Shannon and Weaver's original model and specially applicable to mass communication. There are five stages in his model in Figure 2.9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Who</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Says what</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In which channel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With what effect?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 2.9. Lasswell's model of communication**

Lasswell argues communication as a transmission of messages. An important issue, 'effect', which implies an observable and measureable change in the receiver is raised here. Any change in the process elements will change the effect. If there is change in encoder or message or channel, then it should produce the appropriate change in the effect.

2.3.3.11. Newcomb's model (1951)

Newcomb produced a communication model of triangular shape:

**Figure 2.10. Newcomb's model of communication**

This is the first model to introduce the role of communication in a society or a social relationship. According to
Newcomb this role is simple. It is to maintain equilibrium within the social system. Here in this model A and B are the communicators and receiver X is a part of their social environment. ABX is a system and they have interdependent relationship. If A changes his relationship, B and X will change as well or if A changes his relationship to X, B will have to change either his relationship with X or with A. A and B may stand as individual and individual or management and union, or government and people.

2.3.2.12. Westley and MacLean's model (1957)

Westley and MacLean introduce the model of communication, specifically for the mass media.

![Diagram of Westley and MacLean's model of communication]

Figure 2'II. Westley and MacLean's model of communication

Fiske (1982) in his communication studies comments on Westley and MacLean's model:

"The root of this is clearly Newcomb's ABX, but Westley and MacLean have made two fundamental changes. They have introduced a new element, C,
which is the editorial-communicating function: that is, it is the process of deciding what and how to communicate. They have also started to stretch the model so that it is beginning to return to the familiar linear shape of the process-centred models.... X is now nearer A than B, and the arrows are one way. A is encoder of Shannon and Weaver, and C has some elements of the becoming closer to the transmitter.

The fragmentation of X to show its multifarious nature is a less significant, but useful, modification. When Westley and MacLean apply their model specifically to mass communication they stretch it even further away from Newcomb's triangle. A may be seen as the reporter who sends in his story to C, his paper/radio/television newsroom. The editorial and publishing/broadcasting process (which are contained within C) then work on and transmit this story to B the audience. In this model B has lost any direct or immediate experience of X, as he has lost a direct relationship with A". (p.34-36).

2.3.2.13. Jacobsen's model (1963)

Jacobsen, a linguist, has produced the model of communication which is a double one, and was discussed by Fishbe (1983) in the following words:

"He starts by modelling the constitutive factors..."
in an act of communication. These are the six factors that must be present for communication to be possible. He then models the functions of this act of communication performs for each factor (p.36).

Jacobson visualizes his model as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Addresser</th>
<th>Context</th>
<th>Message</th>
<th>Addressee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contact</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2.12: Jacobson's model of communication

The above model is the constitutive factors of communication. An addresser sends a message to an addressee and the message must refer to something other than itself which he calls the context. Jacobson adds two new factors to the model. One is contact, which means the physical channel and psychological connections between the addresser and addressee. The final factor is a code i.e., a shared meaning system by which the message is structured.

Jacobson also produces an identically structured model to explain the six functions of communication.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Referential</th>
<th>Emotive</th>
<th>Conative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poetic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phatic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metalinguual</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 'emotive function' in this model describes the relationship of the message to the addressee. The 'conative function', at the other end of the process refers to the effect of the message to the addressee. The 'referential function' denotes the reality orientation of the message. The 'phatic function' maintains the relationship between addressee and addressee. The 'metalinguual function' identifies the code that is being used. Lastly, the poetic function identifies the code that is being used identifies with the internal relationship of the message itself.

We have discussed thirteen models of communication which are given by the communication specialists and related to the different fields of communication such as linguists, political communication, telecommunication, mass communication, organisational communication etc. These models are represented in different dimensions i.e., linear, triangular, horizontal, vertical and combined. These communication models which are more general in nature needs to be modified in order to fit into the complex and diverse function of a big library. It is now understood that library as an organisation must have its own communication system because, by nature, it is different from
the industries and corporations and also from the big academic
institutions like universities. But before deriving such a
model its basic requirements are to be ascertained and these
are being discussed in the following chapter.